A NEW AND ENLARGED
MILITARY DICTIONARY,
OR,
ALPHABETICAL EXPLANATION
OF
TECHNICAL TERMS:
CONTAINING, AMONG OTHER MATTER,
A SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS
OF FORTIFICATION, TACTICS, &c.
ALSO THE VARIOUS
FRENCH PHRASES AND WORDS
THAT HAVE AN IMMEDIATE, OR RELATIVE, CONNECTION
WITH THE BRITISH SERVICE,
OR MAY TEND TO GIVE GENERAL INFORMATION ON MILITARY
SUBJECTS IN EITHER LANGUAGE.

By CHARLES JAMES,
AUTHOR OF THE REGIMENTAL COMPANION; COMPREHENSIVE VIEW, &c.; POEMS,
DEDICATED, BY PERMISSION, TO HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS
THE PRINCE OF WALES.

THE SECOND EDITION.

Malheur aux apprentis dont les sens égarés
Veulent, sans s'appliquer, franchir tous les degrés.
Téméraires! craignez le sort qui vous menace;
Phaëton périr seul par sa funeste audace;
Si vous guidez trop tôt le Char brillant de Mars,
Songez que tout l'État doit courir vos hazards.

KING OF PRUSSIA'S ART OF WAR.

LONDON:
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NEAR WHITEHALL.

1805.
TO

HIS ROYAL HIGHNESS

FREDERICK DUKE OF YORK,

FIELD MARSHAL,

COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES,

&c. &c. &c.

SIR,

HAD I not received permission to dedicate the annexed volume to your ROYAL HIGHNESS, your uniform attention to the real interests of the British army would naturally have pointed You out, as the fittest person to whom a work of this description ought to be inscribed. Your anxiety to encourage the most humble efforts, that individuals make for the benefit of any branch of the service, is at least equal to the importance of your station in it. On this account, You have a double claim to every production which has for its object the dissemination
nation of military knowledge; a knowledge that promises to be so effectually secured by the warm and active part You have taken, in promoting the establishment of a Military School.

Next to the KING—who is the uncontroled head and director of the forces which are annually voted by Parliament for the benefit of the empire—You, Sir, are the executive source, and ultimate resort of military arrangements. You are responsible to His Majesty, and to the country at large, for the good or bad management of this complicated machine; under your immediate direction, the distribution of the army is made to correspond with the resources, and to answer the exigencies of the state; and by your wisdom and experience, the various branches of the service are rendered conducive to one system. To your praise be it said, no man, in your exalted situation of life, could have devoted his time and application to the ends of the great trust reposed in him, with more zeal, more eagerness to do justice to merit, or with more perseverance in official business, than You have done. This, Sir, is not the language of flattery; it is the tribute of conviction, and is offered by an individual who never but once asked a professional favour for himself; who has no pretensions to notice or consideration, although during the course of the late war, he frequently
frequently sought occasions to be practically useful; and who has once had the honour of being temporarily employed, without having applied for the situation, through any other channel than a voluntary tender of his services against the common enemy. How far he corresponded with the expectations of the illustrious character that distinguished him by his confidence, or did justice to the permission which your Royal Highness condescended to grant at that period, would not be becoming in me to say. I had the good fortune to satisfy the person who employed me; and the proud consolation of securing the good opinion of a man, whom all parties respect, and from whose integrity and honour even calumny withholds its whisper.

Your Royal Highness need not be told—for the readiness with which You receive the most humble communications would invalidate the supposition—"That every

* The Earl of Moira. In 1795, I was mentioned in General Orders as Deputy Muster-Master-General to Lord Moira’s army. I acted as Inspector of the French corps that had been at Quiberon; the remnant of which force I embarked for the Isle D’Yeu; and on his Lordship’s command ceasing, I returned to Whitley camp, in Northumberland, to rejoin my regiment. Lieutenant-Colonel, now Brigadier-General, Clinton was my principal during the very short period alluded to. Perhaps I shall escape the imputation of egotism, when I add, that I was not benefited in any way, (except in the consciousness of doing my duty,) by the situation I held; for, although the person whom I succeeded, enjoyed full pay to the hour of his death, I did not receive the least compensation. This circumstance did not, however, in any shape, concern the commander in chief, to whom alone I am indebted for my present standing in the army.
man has a right to contribute something to the common stock, and that no man's contribution ought to be re-
jected." This maxim has been laid down by the most classical writer* in the British language, and it is a truth to which your uniform practice, in listening to the sug-
gestions of individuals, pays the handsomest testimony.

Under these impressions, I cannot help indulging a con-
fidence, that however defective this work may still prove, however unequal to the great purposes for which it has been compiled, and however unworthy of the high patron-
age with which You have been graciously pleased to honour it, I shall at least possess the merit of having endeavoured well. I shall have convinced those persons, who may have thought me idle (or inactive from a less pardonable cause than that of mere indolence,) that I have never lost sight of the profession, since I quitted the active duties it im-
poses, but have, on the contrary, directed my attention to its theory, in order to make up for the loss of practice.— Whilst some have been gloriously fighting the battles of their country abroad, and have reflected immortal honour upon its military genius; whilst others again, equally me-
ritorious, though less conspicuous, have defended her coasts at home; it has been my humble lot to co-ope-
rate, in secluded privacy, by collecting materials for the information

* Junius.
information of young officers; and to endeavour to assist the service, by gathering into one commodious volume the scattered thoughts of established authorities.

How far I have succeeded in this laborious drudgery; time only, and the opinion of better judges than myself, must determine; but neither time, nor more ingenious men, will be able to deprive me of the merit of having opened the ground (both in my Regimental Companion, and in this undertaking,) for greater talents; and, like the pioneer, of having cleared some obstructions to military knowledge.

No small portion of rashness will probably be attached to my conduct on this occasion. If, however, there be any species of rashness more deserving than another, not forgiveness, but approbation, it is unquestionably that which runs the hazard of personal blame, or ridicule, in order to be of service to community. It is only to be lamented, Sir, that men who have seen much active business, and whose abilities are equal to the distribution of knowledge, which has practice and experience for its groundwork, should not be animated by the same zeal for the general good of the service, in time of peace, that marked their conduct in the field; and it is still more melancholy to reflect, that instead of assisting the humble endeavours of
of others, persons, even of this class, do not hesitate to undervalue their labours, and sometimes to consider them with jealous harshness or with cool neglect*. Faults and inaccuracies, however, which could not be overlooked in a work published collectively by the Royal Military School, or individually compiled by any one of its professors, will perhaps, be viewed with indulgence by the army, and by the public at large, when they learn, that the whole has been, more or less, executed by an individual, whose intercourse with head-quarters, or with any other military department, has been extremely limited.

I have the honour to be,

YOUR ROYAL HIGHNESS's

Most respectful

And obedient humble servant,

CHARLES JAMES.

London,
November 9th, 1805.

*Were I permitted, I could here mention an illustrious exception to the remark, by avowing my obligations to a general officer of distinguished skill and valour. I could also add my tribute of acknowledgment to a worthy and independent gentleman, under whose roof I have repeatedly collected the best military information; and to whose general philanthropy, many, besides myself, are constantly indebted.
PREFACE.

If I were vain enough to imagine, that the following compilation
would entitle me to any rank among literary men, or to any praise
beyond that which arises from an honest ambition to be useful to the
British Army, I ought to be disappointed. For when I consider the na-
ture of a Dictionary, and cast my eyes over the voluminous tracts of so
many celebrated writers, from whose labours the materials of a complete
Military Encyclopædia might have been collected; I feel conscious of the
penury of my own means, and shrink within the exiguity of my researches.
But when again I reflect, that an undertaking of this sort, to be properly
executed, should not only have the advantage of a combination of talents,
but likewise the indulgence of time, leisure and convenience, and that I
have been excluded, in a considerable degree, from the benefits of them
all; I am encouraged to lay these sheets before the public, with less ap-
prehension of censure and severity, than I might otherwise have expe-
rienced.

Let it not, however, be inferred from these observations, that I imagine
myself entitled to the name of a Lexicographer, or to be classed among
those valuable and "unhappy mortals (to use Dr. Johnson's language)
whom mankind have considered, not as the pupils, but the slaves of
science, the pioneers of literature, doomed only to remove rubbish, and
clear obstructions from the paths through which learning and genius press
forward to conquest and glory, without bestowing a smile on the humble
drudge that facilitates their progress." I am so far from indulging a delu-
sion of the kind, that although I should be proud of being numbered
among the lowest of those regular writers, who have laboured through the
extensive fields of general literature, I shall feel satisfied in being consi-
dered as a zealous supernumerary in the ranks of military compilers.

What Mr. Gibbon has so well expressed with regard to the study of the
law, may, in some degree, be said of scientific and technical works in ge-
neral. "Few men," observes this able writer, "without the spur of
necessity, have resolution to force their way through the thorns and
thickets
thickets of that gloomy labyrinth." I may add, fewer still have the perseverance to labour through the dry research of lexicographical matter, with no other recompense before them than the negative comfort of escaping censure and reproach. Those who may be disposed to think lightly of this species of literary drudgery, should be told, that the most intense labour is required for the common arrangement of terms, and the alphabetical distribution of letters. It is not sufficient to have prepared matter for publication, by extracting from established authorities, collecting together illustrations, and adding original suggestions of our own; something more is required to render a Dictionary generally useful. An undertaking of that extensive nature ought to be marked by acute judgment in the selection of terms, great happiness in the etymology of words, and the utmost perspicuity in its explanations. Such, in my humble opinion, is the character of a work, which treats of language in its fullest import and signification. But such is not the presumed cast of this. The original design was extremely limited; but the work itself has insensibly grown to a much larger size than I had proposed. Yet I should not be fair to myself, or do justice to my own conception, were I not to acknowledge, that it still falls short of what it ought to be.

By this candid avowal, I may possibly secure the indulgence of the learned, and prepare the deep-read critic for matter of a less important nature, than would be reasonably expected from the title and character of a Dictionary. But I am well aware at the same time, that no candour, no explanation will be able to rescue any work from the disingenuous, perhaps the malignant, censure of that class of beings, who only read to gratify an innate propensity to abuse.

There are some persons, who, though they themselves seldom or ever afford one particle of real wit or science, but run erratic into a Birmingham brilliancy of language, and impudently conclude their critique and observations by an abrupt and affected climax:—there are persons of this description, who will probably fasten upon many passages which might have been better written, more ingeniously aided by etymology, and more correctly explained. To the flippancy of such men—(for however conscious I may feel of the imperfections in this undertaking, I cannot think so badly of its general end, as to yield much deference to any species of criticism that is the growth of mere censure and abuse)—to the flippancy of such men I shall answer, with Dr. Johnson, that I cannot hope to satisfy those who are perhaps not inclined to be pleased; since I have not always been able to satisfy myself. But I shall certainly feel myself considerably indebted to
to those practical characters in military life, who, by the aid of experience, are calculated to throw out useful suggestions, and to assist the best written treatises by their knowledge of events.

I will thank even the flippant, the talkative, and the self-sufficient, for any information, by which I may be enabled to render the present compilation more conducive to the object for which it has been collected. But at the same time let it be remembered, that it has not been written for those who open every treatise upon modern tactics, with a predetermination to abuse the system; and it is much less intended for those waspish creatures, who will cavil at the mere etymology of a word, without considering the import of the term, or the utility of its explanation; whose vanity seeks praise from petty criticism, or attempts to build a reputation, over the bottle, by discovering a few solitary errors, and thus endeavouring to consign to censure, or neglect, the labour of months, and perhaps of years, without having read six pages of the work.* It would be labour lost to endeavour to please such men. Let me therefore address those only, who, in some degree, know what difficulties occur in the acquirement of any knowledge, and those especially, who not only love the profession of arms, but have good sense enough to feel the necessity of adding theory to practice, of reading the most approved authors, and of devoting their attention to the various methods which have been pointed out by the most experienced officers.

Count Turpin, in his Essay on the Art of War, has very justly observed, that "Military science branches out into so many particulars, takes in so many different parts; there are so many reflections necessary to be made, so many circumstances and cases to be brought together, that it is only by a continual application, grounded upon a love of his duty, and an inclination to his profession, that any man can attain it." He wisely says, in the preceding chapter—"A military man who would be master of his profession, has no hours to lose: in peace, he ought to study with the greatest diligence; in time of war, he will see his principles open themselves of their own accord; his ideas are then more distinct, he acts with clearness and certainty in all the cases he has foreseen, and applies his rules to all those which now occur for the first time, and which till then had escaped his thoughts. Who does not know that bravery, courage, and comprehension, are often useless, and even fatal to a military man that is

* And probably, without being able to replace those errors by the least information of their own. Ritem tenulatis amici
unacquainted with his business? Having no previous helps from study, it often happens that the braver he is, the more liable he is to mistakes, and less able to foresee and avoid them."*  

Whatever good dispositions a general may make, they must prove ineffectual, if they are not seconded by the general officers under his command; he cannot be everywhere, neither can he foresee all exigencies that may arise. He is obliged to give only general orders; it is therefore the business of those who command under him, to know how to derive advantage from a wrong movement of the enemy; to take upon them to attack or sustain the troops which are engaged; and as circumstances vary, to make them advance towards the enemy, either to keep him back, or to attack him. To effect all this, it is necessary, that the commander in chief of an army should have a quick eye, which is no other than that penetrating genius that suffers nothing to escape it; which looks into the heart, and discovers the slightest impressions that can disorder it. A general, who knows how to unite this quality with perpetual coolness, never is in want of expedients; he will see how those events, which to any other would be the presage of his own defeat, may end in the overthrow of his enemies.  

The choice of the general officers depends upon this genius, which discovers every thing; they ought to be the right hand of the general, and as capable of commanding an army as himself."†  

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*The French, who unquestionably have made war an object of national science and encouragement, are so convinced of the truth of these observations, that no man can rise in their armies without being thoroughly grounded in its elementary branches, and adding much theoretical skill to daring enterprise. The possession of mere animal courage is considered by them, as so inadequate to the great purposes of war, that in speaking of an officer who has no other quality, they sarcastically say, *It est brave comme mon épée, mais général***, concluding their remark by a ludicrous allusion to a brainless part of the human frame.  

I have already stated, under the word *Superiority*, that one of the best modern generals, and certainly as brave a monarch as ever filled a throne, made professional knowledge and military genius the indispensable qualifications for promotion and command. In addition to this article, I submit the following anecdote to the perusal of those gentlemen who think themselves generals and able officers, because they have served in America, or in the East and West Indies, or have attempted the conquest of France, at the commencement of her Revolution, by running headlong into the concave line of her iron frontier, and by retrograde movements to the Waal or Scheld. Frederick the Great, of Prussia, having been told, in the way of remonstrance, by one of his generals, that he had seen many campaigns; with much truth (though, perhaps, with little delicacy) replied, "So has the jack-ass that carries my pack." Implying thereby, that the mere circumstance of having been on service, or present at many engagements, does not constitute the character of a good officer. *See Military Mind.*  

† See Captain Otway's Translation.
Bonaparte was so thoroughly impressed with the truth of these maxims, that during his first campaigns in Italy, after having praised one of his chiefs of brigade for great bravery, he sent him to a garrison town, with this remark: "No man could have fought his troops with more intrepidity than you have, but you do not possess the genius and talents of a commander." I have been informed from good military authority, that in a capture which was made by a part of the Austrian army, some French orderly books were taken, in which this observation was inserted.

But war, it may be said, like pestilence and famine, is one of the greatest calamities to which mankind can be subjected; and being so, wise men ought to exert their talents for its prevention, rather than point out the means of rendering it more fatal and destructive. Such has been the language, and such indeed the avowed truth of all ages. Yet, strange to say, neither the wisdom of former times, nor the collected information of the present, has yet proved sufficiently strong, to resist the natural tendency of the human mind to struggle for wealth, empire, or reputation.

We find recorded in Holy Writ, and in every tradition, from the creation of the world, down to the present day, that feuds, quarrels, and open violences have existed between man and man. The first race was no sooner

*War, according to the celebrated Montesquieu, owes its origin to injustice, and to the ambition of mankind. "It is impossible," says a modern writer, "to assign any certain date to its commencement; but it is probable, that feuds, differences, and open hostilities began soon after the increase of the human species, and the distribution of society into clans and nations. During the first stage of the human race, the fathers of families were the absolute and uncontrolled chiefs of their children: as population increased, families became separated from one another, as far as regarded individual comforts, but coalesced together for the general purposes of community. This political union of their several interests, induced the necessity of having individuals selected from the aggregate body, who, by their talents and integrity, might regulate the common weal. Judges were consequently chosen, whose decisions became absolute, with respect to differences at home, and whose sagacity provided against the aggressions of enterprising neighbours abroad. This state of the human race was, properly speaking, nothing more than a state of clans or small bodies, whose possessions increased in proportion as their numbers multiplied.

The power and authority which were thus entrusted to a few individuals by the unanimous consent of the people, were gradually encroached upon by private views; and these very judges, or arbiters, of right and wrong, insensibly rendered themselves supreme masters of their situations; and by force and intrigue converted a responsible magistracy into unbounded sovereignty. Having once established themselves at home, the most powerful devised means of aggression against their neighbours, raised armies under various pretences, and extended their dominions at the expense of the weaker clans or nations.

In this manner were kingdoms and empires originally formed, and hence arose the first causes of discord among nations. War has ever since been predominant. In Europe, it is subjected to periodical vicissitudes and revolutions; and after contending
sooner driven out of Paradise, and left to manage for itself, than jealousy fired the mind of Cain, and Abel his brother became the victim of his animosity. As population spread, the unextinguished sparks of difference and hatred, which had been engendered from the loins of our first parents, grew with every growing generation; and as partial communities became subject to partial laws and customs, the spirit of contention increased, and the necessity of openly fighting, for what was called rights, became a science and an object of political encouragement. So that war may be considered, if not the consequence, at least the concomitant of civilization. In proportion as the manners of mankind grew refined, military knowledge became a necessary support for the different states and governments, under which the enlightened quarters of the globe have gradually fallen. Even contending powers have so far settled their differences, as to give peace to each other, the continuance of tranquillity depends, more or less, upon a restless disposition to conquest, upon interests, jealousy and commercial relations.

* I cannot corroborate my observations on this subject in more appropriate terms, than in the following words of our virtuous countryman Mr. William Paley. Speaking of war, and of military establishments (see page 408, vol. ii. On the Principles of Moral and Political Philosophy), this sensible writer remarks, That because the Christian Scriptures describe wars, as what they are, as crimes or judgments, some have been led to believe that it is unlawful for a Christian to bear arms. But it should be remembered, that it may be necessary for individuals to unite their force, and, for this end, to resign themselves to the direction of a common will; and yet it may be true, that that will is often actuated by criminal motives, and often determined to destructive purposes. Hence, although the origin of wars be ascribed in Scripture to the operation of lawless and malignant passions (James iv. 1); and though war itself be enumerated amongst the sorest calamities with which a land can be visited, the profession of a soldier is no where forbidden or condemned.

When the soldiers demanded of John the Baptist what they should do, he said unto them, "do violence to no man, neither accuse any falsely, and be content with your wages" (Luke iii. 14). In which answer we do not find, that, in order to prepare themselves for the reception of the Kingdom of God, it was required of soldiers to relinquish their profession, but only that they should beware of the vices of which that profession was accused. The precept which follows, "be content with your wages," supposed them to continue in their situation. It was of a Roman centurion that Christ pronounced that memorable eulogy, "I have not found so great faith, no not in Israel." (Luke vii. 9.) The first Gentile convert who was received into the Christian church, and to whom the gospel was imparted by the immediate and especial direction of Heaven, held the same station: and in the history of this transaction (Acts x. 1), we discover not the smallest intimation, that Cornelius, upon becoming a Christian, quitted the service of the Roman legion; that his profession was objected to, or his continuance in it considered as, in any wise, inconsistent with his new character.

† This passage also clearly demonstrates, that the Romans were too much enlightened to reject the services, or to daump the seal, of any individual, on account of his religious tenets.
to adopt methods for self defence, and to have recourse to artificial means of warfare. Such being the melancholy texture of sublunary things, the science of war has become indispensably requisite to the preservation of social compacts between nations; and until the diversity of human passions, the difference of climates, and the heterogeneous mixture of contending interests, can be so regulated as to render coercion unnecessary; until all the wants of man be circumscribed within the immediate produce of his native spot; until, in a word, trade be rendered useless, and the jealousies, arising from an intercourse of various countries, be put an end to by the realization of some Utopian system, war will be inevitable; and those will reap the most advantage from it, who, by the superiority of their arms, can vindicate not only their natural rights, but preserve the fruits of conquest and hard fighting. I am well aware, that this language is controvertible in many points; and that common sense (upon which all true legislation ought to be founded, and by which alone the jarring interests of nations, as well as of individuals, ought to be governed,) might supersede the force of arms: but I know, that hitherto all the suggestions of the good and wise have proved unequal to the task; and I am moreover convinced, that from the convulsed state of the most civilized part of the world, arms will be resorted to as the sine quæ non of rival pretensions. Yet it does not follow from hence, that unqualified bloodshed and devastation are to become the practice, and the consequent means of effecting their melancholy purposes, the sanctioned study of mankind. This would be rendering war a curse indeed. Instead of seeking to extend its elementary principles, and endeavouring to reduce its diversified branches into some rule and system, it would become every honest man to thwart its progress, and if possible to expunge it from the catalogue of human sciences. Count Turpin, in the opening of the preliminary discourse to his Essay on the Art of War, very justly says:—"If he who first reduced to rules the art of destroying his fellow-creatures, had no end in view, but to gratify the passions of princes; he was a monster, whom it would have been happy to have smothered at his birth: but if his intention was the defence of persecuted virtue, or the punishment of successful wickedness; to curb ambition, or to oppose the unjust claims of superior power, mankind ought to erect altars to his memory." 

War, in the last case, is the most necessary, and the most useful of all the sciences. "The various kinds of knowledge, however," continues the same author, "with which the mind of a soldier ought to be furnished, are not without great difficulty to be attained. Of most other sciences
ences the principles are fixed, or at least they may be ascertained by
the assistance of experience; it requires only a little diligence to learn
them, or a particular turn of mind to put them into practice. Philosophy,
mathematics, architecture, and many other arts and sciences, are all
founded upon invariable combinations. Every man, even of a narrow
understanding, may recollect rules, apply them properly, and sometimes
draw just consequences from them; but the study of war is of another
kind. Experience can so seldom be referred to rules, that nothing but a
mind enlightened by study (and let me add, endued with genius,) can
make a proper application of rules to circumstances. Most artists may
join practice to theory, and make one perfect by the help of the other.
The warrior has not always the like assistance; he spends part of his life in
forming plans, of which humanity does not suffer him to wish the execu-
tion; and when he has an opportunity of judging, from experience, of the
solidity of his principles, the operations are so rapid, the motions so
diversified and desultory, the actions so perplexed, that he can scarcely
snatch a glimpse of those things which require the most calm and close
examination."

These reflections naturally lead me to enquire into the principal
branches of this extraordinary science. The same ingenious writer has
anticipated almost every observation which might be made upon the sub-
ject. I shall therefore quote his words out of the English translation, vol. i.
p. 3. "To march an army in every sort of country, whether open,
woody, or mountainous; to know how to form a camp in all these
countries, with which the general must be thoroughly acquainted, in order
to do it with security; to make the proper dispositions for a battle, whe-
ther with a view to the posture of the enemy, or to the situation of the
country; to foresee events which depend, in a manner, upon chance; to
be capable of making a good retreat on proper occasions; to direct the
forages, without fatigue of exposing the troops; to send out detach-
ments with precaution; to conduct the convoys in safety; to know how
to canton an army, and to settle it in winter quarters, in such a manner,
that by the just disposition of all the parts, it may be able to assemble rea-
dily on the first order, though widely dispersed; to establish magazines in
places, both safe and within the reach of the army, so that it shall never be
in want of subsistence; these are the great ends of military science. An
Alexander of Parma, a Spinola, a Gustavus, a Weimär, à Condé, a Tu-
rence, a Montecuculli, a Vendome, a Marlborough, an Eugene, (and; let
me add, without disparagement to these illustrious names, and without
partiality
partiality or prejudice, with regard to modern rivalry, a Moreau, an Archduke Charles; *) and all the great men who have gone before us, or exist at present; would never have been the subject of our admiration; if they had neglected this study in any of its branches. It is by courage, genius, and capacity, by having a head always cool, and an eye at once quick and exact; by a nice knowledge of the country, by skill in the choice of officers, and by strict discipline, kept up in the army, that a general is enabled to take such just measures, as will frustrate the designs of the enemy."

The sensible writer of a small Tract†, upon Light Troops in the Field, (Instructions concernant le Service de l'Infanterie légère en Campagne) is so thoroughly convinced of the necessity of military knowledge, that he says with marked emphasis—"An ignorance of military duties leads to a series of mistakes and errors, one of which is sufficient to do away the well earned reputation of whole years, and to destroy, at once, that confidence which is so imperiously called for between the officer who commands, and the soldier who obeys, and upon which rest the ultimate issue and success of the most brilliant actions." It naturally follows, from the concurrent opinion of so many able men, sanctioned hourly by experience, that art so diversified in all its branches, and, when reduced into practice, so often at variance with established theory, should not only be studied by the chiefs of armies, but likewise be sedulously followed by all who act in responsible situations. In order to give effect to the best laid plans, it is indispensably requisite, that the chains of operation and communication should be kept up by the strictest discharge of all the civil and military duties, under the infinity of changes which circumstances must create, during the course of a campaign. And how are all these changes to be provided for? How is the general of an army (which covers an extensive tract of country, and to which magazines, depôts, central points of communication, secret intelligence, &c. are essentially necessary) to be constantly master, as he ought to be, not only of his own resources, but likewise more or less apprized of what is going forward in every part of his opponent's country? I shall have the concurrence of every man who is in the least acquainted with active warfare, but more especially the

(*) I could, with great propriety, add to this illustrious list, the names of some of our own countrymen, whose talents and exertions, as far as their limited sphere of action would permit, have been conspicuously brilliant during the course of the late war. The record of their actions is in the heart of every good Englishman; and history will supply the vacancy I leave in this humble compilation.

† This Tract, though printed and recommended to the perusal of British officers, was not published, or even translated for several months. It has since been printed in English.
practice of the French, to bear me through, when I confidently assert, that
the bravest men, under the ablest general, from the richest country in the
world, must prove useless in the field, unless they have the advantage of
a general staff, composed of zealous and scientific officers; and conse-
sequently, that nothing permanently great can be attained without it.

The importance of such a staff, with its subordinate dependencies, has
been so well discussed in a late French publication, that it cannot be too
often pressed upon the attention of military men, nor too conspicuously
detailed in a military work. On this account, I have not scrupled to deviate
from the beaten tract of lexicographical writers, and to refer from the
alphabetical succession of letter to the preface.*

The author of Précis des Evenemens Militaires, (who is well known to
be an officer of rank in the French service) speaks in the following man-
ner of staffs in general. "Military staffs, as well as the different
branches which are necessarily connected with the vast and complicated
machinery of war, have been considerably improved by the experience of
our days. This organization, and the consequent arrangements resulting
from it, will be found to be of very modern date; if we consider the
manifold aids that have been successively brought forward, in order to
simplify the system of details, and to prevent the mind of the commander
in chief from being pre-occupied, by things which must impede the more
important objects of executive enterprise. It is impossible to form any
determined opinion, with respect to the manner in which the ancients
made war. Their conceptions were always bold, and their plans propor-
tionably extensive. But their operations, on the other hand, were less
rapid, and their combinations less complicated than ours, on account of the
difference of their weapons, and the imperfection of their artificial means
of attack and defence.

"The service of military staffs has been rendered a distinct and separate
branch in modern times. It has grown out of the various movements of
troops, the consequent variety of orders, and the necessity of exact and punctu-
tual returns. Notwithstanding this apparent system, no precise method has
yet been fixed upon, to govern all the different relations which constitute
an efficient staff. The functions of the several officers, belonging to this
department, are not yet sufficiently known, nor accurately ascertained.—
The chief and most interesting duty of a staff officer—that of reconnoitring
ground, with military aptitude and skill—is, in itself, an object of perpe-
tual novelty and speculation; and every man who has paid the least atten-
tion to this branch of the service, must have discovered, that it was inti-
mately

* See Staff.
mately connected with all the rest, and that, in order to execute its various duties, with any degree of accuracy and use, it was necessary to have acquired a knowledge of the elementary principles of other branches,—such a man must have felt astonished at the deficiency of system, and the want of rules; and he may probably have lost some time in endeavouring to find out a clue, to guide him through so vast and complicated a labyrinth.

"In order to form an accurate idea of such an institution, and to ascertain its state and progress, at different periods, it is necessary, that the inquisitive should call to their minds, the manifold objects to which it is applied, together with the several denominations by which those objects are distinguished.

"It is well known, for instance, that in the German and English armies, the quarter-master-generals and their assistants were seldom, if ever, employed in direct military operations.* Their attention and time were rather confined to the closet, in keeping the details of service, and in communicating orders, than to the active duties of the field; which were performed by the several adjutants attached to the generals. The quarter-master-general was entrusted with the whole interior economy of the army, and his functions, in this respect, corresponded minutely with those of the commissary-general.

"The regular establishment of staffs (or états majors) in the French armies (of which we now propose to give a cursory view) was soon adopted in all the armies of Europe. It is but justice to remark in this place, that while the professional characters of France paid the greatest attention to the most minute details of elementary knowledge that were recommended by the Germans, they supplied the latter with models of the higher branches of the profession, and taught them to apply the different arts and sciences to the purposes of war.

"Before the revolution, there were three sorts of staffs belonging to the French armies, viz.—The general staff; at the head of which was placed a quarter-master-general, who had assistant quarter-master-generals under him, without any specific rank attached to their situation.

"Secondly, the cavalry staff; the chief of which was likewise called quarter-master-general; and thirdly, the infantry staff, whose chief had the rank of major-general in the army, and subordinate to whom were the staffs belonging to the park of artillery, and to the engineer department.

* The Austrians did so during their late war with France.
"The duties of the two staffs attached to the cavalry and infantry services, were limited to a regular transmission of orders of movements, to the superintendence of good discipline, and to a careful attention to the maintenance and supply of the troops, as well as to the interior economy of each particular regiment. The administration and charge of the army at large were intrusted, as they now are, to a commissary or intendant, who was only accountable to the general of the army, and to the minister. In the duties of the general staff of the army were comprehended, all the preliminary arrangement and subsequent execution of the plans of war, together with the particular operations determined upon by the commander in chief; the survey and reconnoitring of ground; the facilities for the march of the troops; the measurement of ground upon the principles of castration; the establishment of head-quarters and subordinate cantonments; and, finally, every thing which related to topographical distribution. It is natural to suppose, that those generals who were solicitous to make a proper choice of their principal aids and assistants, would appoint such officers to the staff as were capable of seconding their designs. But as interest, favour, and partiality occasionally forced them to receive men less informed and less experienced, the service of the staff of the army (which is always more or less an object of jealousy to those corps that pride themselves upon executive knowledge) could not acquire a necessary stability and consequence. These three channels to promotion produced, of course, a multiplicity of candidates for situations; the instant the army was put upon a peace establishment, the advocates for reform and economy thought it right to reduce the staff; the officers that had composed it, returned to their several corps, under more or less favourable circumstances; some, indeed, and those only that had been particularly distinguished for assiduity and talents, and who were destined, as it were, to preserve the records of the several details of this particular branch of service, were retained by government, without any military rank, for the purpose of being sent upon specific missions, during peace. The labours and researches of these individuals, have produced the most fortunate circumstances in favour of the service in general, and for the better arrangement of military staffs in particular.*

"It was not until after the war, which France had voluntarily entered into, to secure to the Americans their rights and independence, and which

*To this wise distribution of intelligent officers, during peace, may, perhaps, be attributed that superiority in topographical knowledge, which has so ably seconded every movement of the French armies.
terminated in 1782, that a permanent staff establishment (in which no distinction was made with respect to corps) was, for the first time, instituted in the French army. The superior officers in it retained the rank of assistant quarter-master-generals, to whom an equal number of deputies or adjutants, with the rank of captains, was attached, and all obtained or kept a certain rank, independent of the line. This corps, thus composed, and under the immediate direction of a general officer, obtained some stability; the official and field duties became more regular, and nothing seemed wanting to complete the establishment, and to lay the foundation of a military school for staff service, but the means of connecting it with the repository of charts and warlike plans, and with the geographical institution belonging to the engineer department.

"All the correspondence, orders and instructions, which had passed between the generals of the French army, and the different ministers of war during the space of thirty years, had been carefully collected together. Men, selected for the purpose, had scrupulously analysed these documents, in order to ascertain the causes of success or defeat; every one felt the necessity of drawing and of expressing, with greater precision and perspicuity than had hitherto been done, the charts of the different theatres of war, and of those frontiers, whose outward aspect, or front, it was in contemplation to attack or defend. Hence arose the wonderful improvement which has been made in that useful knowledge of topography; and to that conviction is owing the high degree of perfection to which the taking the dimensions of ground, whether by the naked eye, or by instruments, has been brought. A large assortment was collected of military memoirs, which not only related to the frontiers, to the coasts of France, and its foreign possessions, but likewise to all the countries into which the war might be carried. It must indeed be universally acknowledged, that this depot of military charts and plans forms the richest collection of the kind that has ever existed. The staff officers who had accurately taken, and carefully preserved those historical and topographical documents, which grew out of the researches of this institution, at the conclusion of a war contributed to the general stock, by bringing with them, not only the fruits of their own labours, but the improved result of original information.

"In thus describing the origin, and making known the principles and necessity of a sound theory for the service of military staffs; we do not pretend...
pretend to attach to either, false importance or exaggerated latitude and weight. Military men cannot be too much impressed with the idea, that the science of war is only to be acquired amidst the activity of warlike operations, (or, as the ingenious writer of this work expresses himself, Que la guerre ne s'appr\'\'end qu'\'\'a la guerre); that the most profound theorist must at every step experience incidents and wants, which bid defiance to rules and calculations; that the particular tactics, which suit each branch of the service, can only be learned in the actual experiment of the field; and that combats alone can determine the particular kind of tactics which are adapted to each corps or description of armed force; which suit the country, the sol\'diers, and the class of men that fall under their com-
mand. Even in known countries, and in places where battles have been often fought, and are so well remembered, that nothing seems left for sagacity or foresight to provide for, but where there are only exam-
pies to be followed, or marked errors to be avoided; even in such places as these, all suppositions are fruitless; war is always presenting some-
thing new: or rather there is no fixed plan which can be deduced from former ideas, and be fitted to the actual circumstances of the mo-
ment. It will be natural to ask, whether from these observations one can with propriety infer, that the study of good models, the contempla-
tion of the plans of the most skilful generals, a comparative view of their means of execution, and a minute and scrupulous examination of their several dispositions in action, are objects of useless attention and trouble? On the contrary; the investigation and review of what has passed in preceding times, either prepare the way for great talents, or serve to ripen such as have been developed and seconded by experience. The best modern generals have never lost sight of the brilliant examples that have been left; they have never ceased to call into practice the tac-
tics of the ancients, as far as the difference of arms and a change of \'\'m\'\'n\'\'ers would allow. To those who peruse the histories of the 17th and 18th centuries, and read over the actions of the most celebrated generals of those times, this observation will appear peculiarly apposite. It is justi-
fied in the uniform conduct of the great Cond\'e, Prince Eugene, Tu-
scane, Marlborough, Marshal Baxe, and Frederick the Great. Their several military institutions, as well as their private commentaries, afford the most ample testimony to the truth of what we advance; and if it were meet or necessary to corroborate the same by instances, that are reserved for posterity to consecrate to fame, we might bring forward the opinion and
and the practice of the most celebrated of our contemporary captains. This sublime conception is visible in all their operations; it is manifested in their writings, and hourly proved in their conversations; nor must it be attributed to that natural elasticity of genius which hurries similar minds to the pursuit of similar objects, and mingles together the congenial elements of which they are composed; but to that quick and just perception, in minds of a superior cast, which instantly attracts them to all the essential relations that exist between the objects of their mutual speculation. Impressed, as it were, by the result of contemplative reflection, they overlook intermediate occurrences, plunge into futurity, and snatch out of the womb of time the ultimate issue of events.

"Thus in the extensive field of modern and ancient military history, every one may find the particular kind and degree of instruction to which he is ambitious of arriving; in those repositories of knowledge, individuals may collect, wherewith to adorn their memories, to sharpen their understandings, and adapt them to a variety of combinations; to animate their courage, to raise their genius, and by useful comparative views to enrich, and by degrees to bring to perfection, not only the basis of the science of war, but likewise the various arts that have been made tributary to it.

"To this end must all the labours and all the attention of a good staff officer be constantly directed; however arduous, however complicated and extensive this species of military encyclopaedia may be, it is wholly his; and must be laboured through with indefatigable industry. Let the genius and talent of the individual be what they may, this truth must be always pressed upon his mind, that they will be useless, unless he have resolution to assist them by intense labour and application. It will be easy to form some opinion of the good, that might be derived from a more extensive and better planned system of instruction in this line, by what was effected by the French during the American war, in consequence of a well-conducted staff; notwithstanding the disadvantages to which it was subjected on account of the frequent changes it underwent, the rapidity with which it was necessarily formed, and the desultory nature of its functions.

"It must, however, be concluded from these remarks, that this essential part of modern warfare has been neglected. Staff service has, on the contrary, been considerably improved, its functions have been clearly defined, and the effects which have been produced by gradual ameliorations ought to be carefully preserved. Among the alterations which have taken place for the better, there are two principal instances that deserv
serve notice. The first is the simplification of staff duties, by reducing the three heads under which they were classed, and rendering the whole subservient and responsible to one source. The second is the new and hitherto unpractised custom (from being formally opposed by men of military influence) of entrusting the command of columns of attack to staff officers, who before were confined to the mere delivery of orders, and to instructions for their occasional direction. Not only the individuals themselves, but the service in general, are considerably benefited by these arrangements. The officers become calculated for any species of active warfare, by being enabled, through this system, to apply their theory to practice; and to secure the esteem and confidence of the soldiers, who are easily indisposed towards that class of officers that do not combat in the ranks. By means of this arrangement, the general of an army can look with certainty to the execution of that part of his plan, of which he might have apprehended a disclosure in the customary way of transmitting orders. Hence it happened, that the principal staff officers, who, during the late contest with the empire, were selected by the generals of the French army to second their designs, had a considerable share in all the victories they gained. Nor have there, perhaps, ever before been so many instances of that entire confidence in concerted measures, and of participation of glory in the execution of them (without which, indeed, all the talents and activity of a chief of the staff must be abortive, as appeared during the course of this war. Almost every individual, who was employed in that difficult branch, had already given proofs of professional knowledge in some species of military service. Generals Berthier, Regnier, Dessolles, Dupont, Oudinot, and some others, have been alternately taken from the command of divisions, battalions, and even detached armies, to superintend and manage the staff service. They have quitied the same line, and again resumed its functions, according as the commander in chief thought the application of their talents might be useful in either way; and it is but justice to say, that these officers contributed, in a great degree, to the consolidation of the different branches which constitute the present staff of the French army. It is also worthy of observation, that Generals Mack, Bellegarde, Chastelet, Zach, and Schmidt, who belonged to the Imperial service, were the chief executive springs and instruments that influenced the councils, and conducted the operations of the war in Germany and Italy. 

"The consolidation of the different branches, belonging to the staff service, under one head, has not only simplified the transmission of orders,
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but by giving those orders the utmost rapidity of communication, the movements of the several armies become proportionably quick and decisive. By means of this consolidation, the specific purposes to which the several branches of the staff service might be applied, are more accurately determined, and more methodically classed than they could have been in their former state.

"An army may now be considered as being composed of divisions, and each division made up of troops and companies of all descriptions, according to the nature, and in proportion to the relative exigencies, of the country in which they are to act. These divisions are of course provided with everything that can be required in stores and men, and can act separately, without requiring any other succour, than what has been provided for in the different reserves, appropriated for the reinforcement of their several corps or detachments. They are, moreover, so disposed of, that though apparently scattered, they can at any time unite as one body, and be brought into action, without the hazard of confusion. This excellent method appears to have been adopted throughout all armies; but it is more particularly followed, and more scrupulously attended to in the French. It is there alone that a clear and uniform system of staff service may be discovered. Each division has its separate staff, organized and governed in the same manner that the general one is, and only differing in the exigency of its detail." These subordinate staffs are composed of the smallest possible number of individuals, and are, each, subject to the orders of a superior officer, whom the French call adjutant; but whose duties, except in actual service, correspond more immediately with those of our deputy quarter-master-general.

"All the different details of duty, that are necessary for the interior government of the divisions, the discoveries and dispositions that are taken upon the ground, the communications that are made to the commander in chief of the division, and to the quarter-master-general of the army, must, in every respect, correspond with the established distribution of the several objects, and minutely agree, throughout all the divisions, with the rules and forms which have been laid down by the general staff.

"It is easy to distinguish those objects, which are immediately connected with the central point of communications belonging to the general staff, from those which are diversified, and in a manner branch out of the divisional ones. The following table contains an abstract of all the objects that relate to interior or official distribution, discoveries of ground, and to active operations in the field.

"The
The first section contains:

Military discoveries. General and special discoveries and distributions of ground. Topographical excursions and views for the purpose of reconnoitring and ascertaining ground; discoveries made upon the enemy.

2d Section.—Openings and facilities of progress for troops upon the route, likewise, for movements of manœuvre, and for castrametation; the marking out positions of attack or defence; the designation of appropriate quarters and cantonments, and the establishment of hospitals and magazines.

3d Section.—Stations; police for the interior government of troops in quarters, inspection and examination of guides; wagon train; forage parties; scouts; equipages; baggage and convoy; postage of letters.

4th Section.—Office of Inspection in general; states of situations and quarters, pay, clothing, internal police and discipline; drill and instruction of troops of all descriptions; councils of war; and courts-martial.

5th Section.—Adjutant-general's office, from whence general orders are issued for the movement of troops.

6th Section.—Office of communication and correspondence: 1. With the minister at war.

2. With the intendant, or director-general of the army.

3. With the generals commanding divisions; with the heads of their several staffs; and with the generals commanding the artillery and engineer departments.

4. With the governments and persons in power belonging to the countries, which may be immediately occupied by the army.

5. With the staffs that are attached to the armies which lie in adjacent quarters.

7th Section.—The topographical office, in which the charts of countries, &c. are deposited, and where the minutes are kept relative to position and locality.

8th Section.—Functions which are immediately personal, and belong to the secretarship of the general staff; the opening of paquets; dispatches with explanatory reasons and instructions (if they be found necessary) to the several sections; communications direct with the commander in chief; the formation and distribution of the army; orders and instructions respecting the stations, &c. of the troops, and of the several generals commanding them; the management of the secret correspondence relative to the movements and designs of the enemy; the dispatching officers belonging to the secret correspondence, and of the necessary couriers and mounted orderlies; and, finally, the vouchers for extraordinary disbursements.
"By the assistance of a table of this sort, in which the several objects would be explained under their appropriate titles, all the relative duties of the staff of an army might be arranged and distributed, according to the exigencies of the service, and a perfect theory be formed that would immediately correspond with every branch of practice. In order to render such work truly useful, it would be necessary to bring forward all the principles, laws, rules, and customs which are connected with this theory, and to strengthen them by precedents and examples."

The author concludes this interesting view of the staff service with the following passage:

"We should not have been satisfied with merely having pointed out the form and method, in which a work, so truly classical as this is, might be arranged, had not our observations already greatly exceeded the limits of a note. We feel regret in thus abruptly finishing our remarks, after having insensibly been led to treat this important branch of the art of war in a didactic manner. If ever it should fall to our lot to resume these historical essays, and to give an epitome of the events of the two last campaigns; or if we should be bold enough to undertake a larger work, we must necessarily enter into all the details of service, to which our readers have a right to look, after having perused these general outlines." See from page 435 to 451 of Even. Milit. 11 & 12.

In another place this sensible writer observes, that "the nature of staff service is very different from that of other military branches, particularly of such as require a regular education and training; of which description are the artillery and engineer departments. These have certain bounds fixed to their service; their theory rests upon immutable principles, with the advantage of being perpetually enriched by new discoveries; in addition to the acquisition of gradual lights and improvements, its future practice is constantly aided by experience. But the objects to be acquired and the labours to be gone through by staff officers, are of a more extensive and more variable kind; they comprehend, in fact, no less than the whole science of war; so that, in proportion as the views of individuals belonging to that service extend, its theory becomes vague, and the application of its rules less fixed and determinate. The very idea of an established doctrine in this branch, yields to its desultory nature, and after all our researches, we conclude with this melancholy truth, That there is not any fixed art in that part of the science of war, which, above all others, requires specific knowledge and information."

"If, in addition to these reflections, we take a cursory view of the man-
ner in which staffs are generally composed, and of the incessant changes to which they are exposed, from military movements, we shall perhaps be able to account for the uncertainty and for the indifference to which this important branch of public service is exposed. The greater scope it affords to the natural ambition of individuals, who by favour or personal merit obtain employment, and are thereby enabled to distinguish themselves out of the regular line of promotion, the more readily do they believe, that a certain degree of knowledge, with extreme activity, will be sufficient to answer all the duties it imposes. The uncontrolled and uninfluenced privilege which every Commander in Chief of an army must invariably possess, of selecting from the different corps, such persons as he judges best calculated for his staff, precludes the possibility of a regular school, and of having officers properly instructed in that particular branch of service. It even happens, that when individuals, by intense study, have acquired a considerable degree of knowledge in all the different parts of this intricate service, the application of their talents is only considered as the natural effect of genius, without any allowance being made for the regular method they have pursued; a method, in fact, which is too often looked upon, even by able officers, as superfluous and unnecessary.

"At the conclusion of a war *, which, of all others has been distinguished by the most extraordinary events, and by the multiplicity of which theory has been replaced by practical experiment, it naturally strikes every thinking man, that certain rules should be established for the preservation of a theory that has been so powerfully proved. It is to the improvement of military education, and to the diffusion of general knowledge during a long peace, but most especially to the spirit of rivalry which has existed between governments, and the consequent emulation which was kept up among the different corps, that Europe stands indebted for so many distinguished characters who rose from the ranks, and whose skill has been of a much more extensive nature, than ancient prejudice could possibly be aware of. Men of this cast discovered, the instant they got into commands, that however subordinate their original station might have been, their minds were elevated by notions of true military genius, and equal to the boldest enterprizes. Yet notwithstanding the acquisition of so much practical knowledge, (which can only be secured during the activity of a campaign) the possession of it is by no means permanent. The instant peace is proclaimed, the individuals, who have composed the staffs of the different armies, either retire from the service, or return to the

* The Author is here speaking of the last war.
several corps from which they had been taken. The various communications and documents, which must necessarily have been made during the several campaigns, though in some degree preserved, are so much scattered, that no clear system is established, and no regular plan is laid down for the ready government of future staffs. From a conviction of this sort, (continues the same author), we have endeavoured to collect all the various objects which may elucidate the subject, and fix, if possible, the principles by which this service may be governed. These observations, however, though perhaps the ground-work of a more enlarged undertaking, must be considered only as so many leading heads for a more ample discussion *.

Having given this copious extract from a foreign writer relative to staffs in general, I cannot conclude his observations more appropriately, than by referring the English reader to a small treatise which has lately been published for the specific purpose of introducing system and regularity into the British Commissariat on foreign service. This treatise is written by a gentleman whose whole theory has had the advantage of practice, and although its contents are confined to one specific branch only, namely the civil administration of an army as far as relates to the commissary's duty, it nevertheless comprehends so much useful detail, that persons employed upon that service, will do well to study the British Commissary.

The author justly observes in his introduction, that "there is not an article of expense in the contingencies of an army but must in some measure depend on the abilities and integrity of its commissaries. The Commander in Chief, occupied with the great movements and general plans, cannot stoop to the inspection of articles of running expense; neither can the military departments be taken off from the detail of their duty to examine and control them." It will strike the observant reader in this place, that the writer of the Exènemens Militaires does not exactly accord with the British Commissary, in as much at least as regards the union of civil and military talents in the same person. The position is notwithstanding correct in its general import, and particularly so with respect to the British army, whose civil administration materially differs from the plans laid down for the French. Commissaries in our service, to use the English writer's words, "although necessarily under the orders of the Commander in Chief, do nevertheless receive instructions from, and report

* To those persons who may wish to see the subject of French staffs treated more at large, we recommend the perusal of the Manuel des Adjudans-Généraux, & des Adjoints employés dans les États-Majors-Divisionnaires des Armées; par Paul Thébault, Adjutant-Général.—This work has been translated by an anonymous writer.
to the Lords of the Treasury, as being alone accountable to parliament for the expenditure of all grants. Experience shews, that notwithstanding commissariat expences have been commented upon, in and out of parliament, from the Duke of Marlborough's time to this day, no one has attempted to bring a system forward which may obviate the inconveniences of sending men abroad to exercise functions, that are perfectly new to them. The truth is, commissaries are only employed in time of war, and sought for at the moment of active operations; it should, however, be remembered, that the importance of their office is not to be estimated by the length of their services, but by the weight of its responsibility. For instance, continues the same writer, the assistant commissaries sent out to the continent during the late campaigns, received no other information from the treasury, than notice of their appointment, and verbal orders to join at head quarters. Had the nature of the service been previously known to those gentlemen, or at least had general instructions been delivered to them on their arrival, their minds would have been relieved from much anxiety, and their accounts would, from the beginning, have been regularly brought forward: now as the saving to the country must ever be proportionate to the punctuality of its agents, it may be fair to ask, how many millions would have been saved in the seven years war, the late American war, and the present numerous commissariat establishments, had an uniform system been adopted and followed?"

It must be manifest from these and the preceding observations, that, however superior to the rest of mankind an individual may prove, upon the large scale of military arrangements, however gifted with genius, and the faculties of command, it is, nevertheless, impossible without the assistance of auxiliary talents. From the persons with whom he communicates, in the most confidential manner, who serve immediately under him, and from whom the various branches of executive service take their spring and action, down to the most subordinate knowledge is more or less indispensably necessary.

Turpin observes, "that a general who would merit the title of a great man, ought to unite in himself all civil, military, and political excellencies; it is by this that he will easily acquire the means of making war without difficulty, without escape him; he will know; he will do well to reflect upon the following

- Commentez ces chevaux, ces soldats, ces canons,
  N'oubliez pas seuls l'honneur des nations:
  Apprenez leur usage, et par quelles maximes,
  Un guerrier peut atteindre à des exploits sublimes.

- the
the genius of every country, and of the nations which compose the enemy's army; the abilities of the generals who command, and the nature of the troops under them. Without these precautions, he would never think, that he could act upon sure grounds; he knows that he may venture a movement with some troops, which he would not dare to attempt with others that are equally brave. One nation is vehement, fiery and formidable in the first onset, as the French; another is not so hasty, but of more perseverance, as the British or German; with the former, a single instance determines success; with the latter, the action is not so rapid, but the event is less doubtful."

We must, however, acknowledge, that many natural qualifications are required to form the character of a perfect general. Mere industry and ambition will not suffice to make it up; there must be genius and an aptitude of mind, to anticipate and to square events; a solidity of judgment to regulate every impulse to enterprise, and a coolness of temper to guide this vast machinery of war, through all the natural and artificial difficulties by which it is surrounded*. Had Bonaparte been ignorant of the principles of mechanics, when he was serving at Toulon †, in the capacity of a subordinate officer, belonging to the engineer department, he would, probably, never have attracted the notice of the French general, Dugommier, who commanded in that quarter, or have been recommended to the minister at war for his ingenuity in getting some heavy pieces of ordnance up a height which overlooked the town and harbour; nor would he, previous to the battle of Marengo, have been able to astonish all Europe, by the conveyance of his artillery over Mount St. Bernard‡.

Let it not, however, be imagined, that a military dictionary ought exclusively to belong to a camp or barrack, or to be found only in the libraries, and on the tables of military men. The arts and sciences are so intimately connected together, that they mutually borrow terms from one another for illustration, and go hand in hand, from the senate to the field, from the pulpit to the bar, through all the vicissitudes of human intercourse and correspondence.

* Vast conception joined to prompt and resolute execution must constitute the principal features of a consummate chief. The late unexampled success of our lamented and immortal Nelson is the best illustration that can be offered on this head. If ever a grateful country owed an illustrious and uncommon tribute to the memory of departed worth, Great Britain owes it to this constellation in naval glory. God send we may see his like again!
† In consequence of the French having secured a commanding position and planted cannon upon it, the English and Spaniards evacuated Toulon on the 3d of January 1794.
‡ See Mountains.

Military
Military science, in which I include every species of tactics, and the interior economy of corps, is, in fact, of so extensive and comprehensive a cast, that there is not a single trade or profession, to which it may not be rendered more or less useful. To the gentleman, it gives an easy deportment, a frankness of manners; and, above all other qualities, the nicest sense of honour. For it is an abuse of the term to call any person, (let his standing, or occasional services in the army be what they may,) a real soldier, who does not unite calmness of mind and urbanity of conduct, with a knowledge of his profession. Brutal audacity may belong to the mere mechanical portion of fighting men; but unless it be governed, in the aggregate, by the superior genius of individuals, and in the individuals themselves by the higher notions of national fame and responsibility, the character will degenerate into a public nuisance and disgrace. A real soldier, on the contrary, is an ornament to society. After having fought the battles of his country abroad, or co-operated with those of general service, by guarding her coasts at home, the officer of experience, not only participates in the blessing of peace, but enlivens every scene by the most interesting communications.

Nor is it necessary to have been in actual service, to derive advantage from military knowledge; I have already observed, that there is not a single trade or profession, to which it may not be rendered more or less useful. The man of letters cannot, with any permanent satisfaction, read the histories of former times, nor even the ephemeral records of his own, without feeling the justness of this assertion. That a knowledge of military terms forms no inconsiderable part of a writer's qualifications, the following candid avowal of the ingenious translators of Plutarch's Lives, will sufficiently evince: "In the descriptions of battles, camps, and sieges, it is more than probable that we may be mistaken in the military terms. We have endeavoured, however, to be as accurate in this respect as possible, and to acquaint ourselves of this kind of knowledge, as well as our situations would permit; but we will not promise the reader, that we have always succeeded."

Mr. Gibbon, the historian, who was two years and a half, (from May 10th, 1769, to December 23d, 1762,) a captain in the Hampshire Militia, speaks thus of a military life, even within the limited sphere of that establishment. "My principal obligation to the militia was, the making me an Englishman and a soldier. After my foreign education, with my reserved temper, I should long have continued a stranger in my native country, had I not been shaken in this various scene of new faces and

* See Preface to Plutarch's Lives, by the two Langhorns.
and new friends; had not experience forced me to feel the characters of our leading men; the state of parties; the forms of office, and the operations of our civil and military system. In this peaceful service I imbibed the rudiments of the language and science of tactics, which opened a new field of study and observation. I diligently read and meditated the Mémoires Militaires of Quintus Julius (Mons. Guichard,) the only writer who has united the merits of a professor and a veteran. The discipline and evolutions of a modern battalion gave me a clearer notion of the phalanx and the legion;* and the captain of the Hampshire grenadiers (the

* As I have occasionally touched upon the manoeuvres and evolutions of the ancients, particularly under Phalanx,—the following additional extract from Sir Thomas Browne's *Hydrobiologia*, may not be superfluous.

The Roman† battle was ordered after this manner, whereof, as sufficiently known, Virgil hath left but an hint, and obscure intimation. For thus were the maeniples and cohorts of the *Hastati, Principes* and *Triarii* placed in their bodies, wherein consisteth the strength of the Roman battle. By this ordination they readily fell into each other.

| Hastati  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Principes| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Triarii  | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

The *Hastati* being pressed, handsomely retired into the intervals of the *Principes*, these into that of the *Triarii*; which making, as it were, a new body, might jointly renew the battle, wherein consisted the secret of their successes. And therefore it was remarkably singular in the battle of Africa, that Scipio, fearing a rout from the elephants of the enemy, left not the *Principes* in their distances, whereby the elephants passing the vacuities of the *Hastati*, might have run upon them, but drew his battle into right order, and leaving the passages bare, defeated the mischief intended by the elephants. Out of this figure were made two remarkable forms of battle, the *curacor* and *forceps*, or the shear and wedge battles, each made of half a *rhombus*, and but differed by position. The wedge invented to break or work into a body, the *forceps* to environ and defeat the power thereof, composed out of the selectest soldiery, and disposed into the form of an *V*, wherein receiving the wedge, it enclosed it on both sides. After this form the famous § *Namae* ordered his battle against the Franks, and by this figure the *Almains* were inclosed and cut in pieces.

The *rhombus*, or lozenge figure, so visible in this order, was also a remarkable form of battle in the Grecian cavalry, observed by the *Thessalians*, and *Philip*, king of *Macedon*, and frequently by the *Parthians*, as being must ready to turn every way, and best to be commanded, as having its ductors, or commanders, at each angle.

The Macedonian phalanx (a long time thought invincible) consisted of a long square. For though there might be sixteen in rank and file, yet, when they shut close,

† In the disposition of the legions in the wars of the republic, before the division of the legio into ten cohorts, by the emperors. *Sallus*. in his *Epis. de Hiereckium et de Re Mil- liari Ammianum.*

‡ *Polybium* Appianus.

§ *Achatius* Ammianus.

‖ *Elias*. *Tact.*
(the reader may smile) has not been useless to the historian of the Roman Empire.

Nor are the advantages of military science—considered as a part of education only—limited to the useful walks of literature; they extend into the familiar pleasures of the closet, and, as they add to the figurative language of the writer, contribute not a little to the instruction and satisfaction of the reader. Who, for instance, can peruse the beneficial records of history, the bright effusions of poetry, or, indeed, any species of writing, from Holy Writ to fable and romance, without meeting some military phrase or allusion? Or who can hear the debates of parliament without sensibly feeling the proper, or improper application of professional language. Who, for instance could advert to such a singular expression as killing-off, without being anxious to trace the source from whence it probably was derived? To a person acquainted with military terms, it might so far appear intelligible, that he would easily see into the meaning, although he could not help feeling the misapplication of the phrase. Having noticed this error of an individual, I hope I shall not be thought too trifling or minute in pointing out a passage, wherein a military term has been adopted with the most scrupulous propriety. I have already made use of the word in the first part of this discourse, but not having directed the attention of my reader to the felicity of its adaptation, I cannot omit referring him to Dr. Johnson’s learned and well written preface to his Dictionary. He will there find a military term, the full force of which cannot be thoroughly understood without some knowledge, at least, of the duties of a pioneer. Nor is it there only, that language has been heightened, and the meaning of the author powerfully assisted by military phraseology. In perusing Dr. Goldsmith’s Deserted Village, the following couplets naturally lead the mind to reflect upon the manner in which an individual soldier sustains his part in action,

close, so that the fixed pile advanced before the first; though the number might be square, the figure was oblong, answerable unto the quincunial quadrate of Curtius. According to this square, Thucydidies delivers, the Athenians disposed their battle against the Lacedemonians, (in tabac) [brickwise; and by the same word, the learned Guelli] expounded the quadrate of Virgil, after the form of a brick or tile.

Secto via limite quadret. In Virg.

*To this passage let me subjoin, by way of note, what Plutarch says in the opening of the Life of Paulus Emilius:—“By daily conversing with history, and filling my mind with the images of the best and greatest men, I escape the contagion of idleness and vice.”
PREFACE.

But if the reader be ignorant of the word, shoulder, and the figurative term, field, he will lose half their beauty.

The broken soldier, kindly bade to stay,
Sat by his fire, and talk'd the night away;
Wpt o'er his wounds, or, tales of sorrow done,
Shoulder'd his crutch, and shew'd how fields were won.

Having thus endeavoured cursorily to shew the advantages which are attached to a knowledge of military terms, independent of the profession, I shall hazard a few words respecting myself, and the manner in which I have endeavoured to execute this undertaking.

I know enough of mankind in general to be satisfied, that almost every work, but most especially a technical work, let its execution be what it may, receives or loses much of its credit, especially in the estimation of superficial readers, from the character and occupation of its author or compiler. After what I have said of myself in the notes to the dedication, little more, I presume, can be required on that subject, even by the inquisitive, than to add, that I have been honoured with the good opinion of a nobleman, whose ardour for military glory can be only equalled by his private virtues and political integrity; and that the greatest part of my life has been spent, either abroad or at home, in the society of military men.

I owe my acquaintance with his lordship to that laudable promptitude which guides him towards every object, by which the common weal may eventually be benefited. To him I ventured to inscribe a few loose hints on military subjects, upwards of twelve years back; and from that period until the present hour, it has been my good fortune to possess his countenance and encouragement. Of the plan of the work*, I think it barely necessary to say, that it was originally intended to be nothing

* Among other objections to the general cast of this work, it will probably be said, that the chief precedents and examples have been borrowed from French writers and French commanders; and that I might have found other instances and illustrations, if not in the History of England, at least in the annals of Germany. This observation is certainly correct. But when it is considered, that every species of military science has been sedulously cultivated by the French, from the earliest periods of their history, but, above all, that the application of their theory is principally directed against this country, I shall not, I trust, be blamed for having endeavoured to anticipate those means, and to put British officers in possession of what have been used, and will probably again be resorted to by their enemies.
more than an enlargement of Smith's Military Dictionary. But on examining that compilation, and comparing it with the French production on the same subject, I found our countryman's labours and researches so extremely limited, with regard to general service, and so wholly deficient in point of modern tactics, and modern terms*, that I dropped my first intention, and have occasionally referred to his collection for such matter only, as relates to the artillery; reserving to myself the arrangement and explanation of almost every other branch of the service. The selection of the French and Indian terms, and of the extracts from the Rules and Regulations, as well as the distribution of other matter, from the best ancient and modern authors that have written on military subjects, is entirely new.

Although in my selection of the different passages from the Rules and Regulations, I have scarcely, in any one instance, deviated from the strict letter of the original matter, I have by no means observed the same degree of fidelity towards the French. It will be found that I have frequently added observations of my own, and illustrated the remarks of former writers by modern examples.

Imperfect as the present compilation most unquestionably will prove, and unequal as it is to my own conception of what it ought to be, it will nevertheless be found the only work extant of the kind in this country, that can properly and exclusively be called a Military Dictionary. It is a pledge†, in fact, which under the manifest necessity of our having soldiers regularly

* Some persons—persons of reputed experience too, as far as mere service goes—will assert, that the ancient discipline of the British army was more effective, and, of course, better, than the present. We presume, however, to maintain the contrary; and we further venture to observe, that, in all probability, their assertion is grounded in prejudice, or, in less pardonable motives, in indolence and inaptitude to unlearn what they have acquired.

† I have heard it asserted by a man of excellent sentiments and great learning, that the character of a soldier and a citizen is incompatible. In the abstract sense of the term it may be so; but in its relative import, it is quite the reverse. No citizen, considering the distempered, and I fear the incorrigible, state of the human passions, can be secure in his property, &c. without the guardian aid of military vigilance. If all men were to remain at home, what would become of our possessions abroad? and as to the notion, that every man should be sufficiently acquainted with arms to defend his country, its fallacy is too manifest to require an answer. The science of war, like the study of the law of this country—is so vast and complicated, that, to use Mons. Nuckhorn De Schorn's words, (in his *Idées Raisonnées sur un Système Général,) the life of man is not sufficient for the acquisition and full possession of all its parts and branches.—La vie de l'homme ne suffit pas pour acquérir et posséder, dans un haut point de perfection, toutes les parties et sujets de la science.

Mr. Mackintosh, in a work to which he owes more than half his fame as a politician
regularly trained, I affectionately offer to the British army, of what I propose hereafter to accomplish, should I have health, and better opportunities of communication than I have hitherto possessed.

It may, perhaps, be a disparagement even to the present edition, to say, from the extreme hurry in which the greatest part of the work has been executed; from the large increase of additional matter and interpolations, whilst in the press; but above all, from the changes to which the greatest
tician and a writer, has remarked; that a domestic army cannot be increased without increasing the number of its ties with the people, and of the channels by which popular sentiment may enter it. Every man that is added to the army, is a new link that unites it to the nation. If all citizens were compelled to become soldiers, all soldiers must of necessity adopt the feelings of citizens. A small army may have sentiments different from the great body of the people, and no interest in common with them; but a numerous soldiery cannot. This is the barrier which nature has opposed to the increase of armies. They cannot be numerous enough to enslave the people, without becoming the people itself. See Vindiciae Gallicae.

I submit this passage to those sceptical gentlemen who conceive, that the military force of this country cannot be increased without the liberty of the subject being essentially endangered thereby; and who would rather see the coast infested by an invading enemy, than give up the visionary idea, that a well disciplined army is useless to Great Britain; and that real military science ought, of course, to be an exploded doctrine amongst us.

Difficult, however, and arduous as this science is, let it be remembered, as Mr. Locke very justly remarks, "that we are born ignorant of every thing." The superficiality of things that surround them, make impressions on the negligent, but nobody penetrates into the inside without labour, attention, and industry. Stones and timber grow of themselves; but yet there is no uniform pile with symmetry and convenience to lodge in, without toil and pains. God has made the intellectual world harmonious and beautiful without us; but it will never come into our heads all at once. We must bring it home piecemeal, and there set it up by our own industry, or else we shall have nothing but darkness and a chaos within, whatever order and light we be in things without us. The same learned writer observes, that no person ought to despond; for of the understanding one may truly say, that its force is greater generally than it thinks, until it is put out. Vires acquirit eundo.

And therefore the proper remedy here is but to set the mind to work and apply the thoughts vigorously to the business; for it holds in the struggles of the mind, as in those of war, dum putant se vincere; vincerè; a persuasion that we shall overcome any difficulties that we meet with in the sciences, seldom fails to carry us through them. Nobody knows the strength of his mind, and the force of steady, and regular application, until he has tried. This is certain, he that sets out upon weak legs, will not only go farther, but grow stronger too, than one who with a vigorous constitution and firm limbs, only sits still.

I think it fair to mention in this place, that on my applying for such communications as the gentlemen at Woolwich might be authorised to furnish respecting the artillery and engineer departments, I received for answer, that they were under specific instructions to withhold every sort of information from the public. The Little Bombardier, was however, shortly after compiled at the Warren; and was given to the world whilst the following work was in the press. This circumstance will account for the liberties I have taken with that publication.
part must necessarily be subjected, that much as it does contain, it can
only be looked upon as a repository of military terms, which require
to be scrupulously arranged according to the alphabetical succession of let-
ters, and likewise to be disposed in such a manner, as to lead the young
officer into an immediate knowledge of the first elements of his profession.
Such was my design; but events have, in some degree, thwarted my in-
tention.*

Under these circumstances, it will not, I trust, be expected, that I
should shield myself against the malignity of petty criticism, by giving a
list of typographical or mere literal errors. Of these many will be found,
which must strike the reader at first sight—the following ones have again
escaped me, to cut down, to out-manœuvre, &c. "So true it is," to use Dr.
Johnson's† words, "that care will sometimes betray to the appearance of
negligence. He that is catching opportunities which seldom occur, will
suffer those to pass by unregarded, which he expects hourly to return; he
that is searching for rare and remote things, will neglect those that are ob-
vious and familiar. Thus it happens, that in things difficult, there is dan-
ger from ignorance, and in things easy, from confidence; the mind,
afraid of greatness, and disdainful of littleness, hastily withdraws herself
from painful researches, and passes with scornful rapidity over tasks not
adequate to her powers; sometimes too secure for caution, again too anxious
for vigorous effort; sometimes idle in a plain path, and sometimes dis-
tracted in labyrinths, and dissipated by different intentions."

In some instances, I have omitted the word that expresses the specific
or literal act, in order to fix the attention of the reader on the subject or
matter to which it refers, in a more general sense, and which is more
immediately consonant to military operations. To Enter, or to Retire,

* Notwithstanding my hopes to the contrary, I am free to acknowledge that
the present edition, though corrected with much care, and considerably enlarged,
by the addition of upwards of 2000 words or phrases, with appropriate explanations,
is still inferior to my design, having been executed partly in sickness, and, wholly
so, under circumstances of soliciitude, and extraneous occupation. I am aware
that these are feeble excuses to the public, for palpable errors and imperfections.
Feeble as they are, they cannot, however, be without their weight; most espe-
cially when it is considered, that, instead of being master of my own time, I have
been obliged to keep pace with my Bookseller's eagerness to have it ready for sale,
and with my Printer's laudable and unwearied zeal to correspond with the
wishes of his employer.

† It is some sort of consolation, even to men of superior abilities, to find, that the
great Leviathan of British literature, Dr. Johnson, has not been able to escape
considerable censure with respect to omissions, and sometimes with regard to ety-
mology and explanation. A large quarto volume has been published to point
out his defects; which, to say the worst of them, are only like so many specks
in a noon-day sun.
for example, though applicable to other phrases, even of a military nature, (or to enter an enemy's country; to retire from a dangerous position,) yet being more forcibly expressed in the words, To invade, To retreat; they are on that account passed over. In other instances, I have designedly missed a word, for the purpose of conveying, under another term, not only the same act, but the method of effecting what it means, according to prescribed modes and regulations. Thus, to retire from the service, or to resign, is explained under the words, To Sell out, and Service.

Among the French terms, it will be found, that I have not only given such as immediately relate to military knowledge, technically considered, but likewise many which belong to the familiar intercourse of life. In some places the French word follows the English; but where it has been necessary to explain any particular regulation, and which exclusively belonged to the French service, I have always taken the leading word from that language. Sometimes, indeed, I have given an English word without coupling it with a French one; and have now and then omitted the French altogether. This has been owing to two causes; either to the word having totally escaped me, or because the term did not correspond with both languages. This has occurred in the cant-word To Quiz. I have not been able to find out a French term to express this absurd and unmanly practice; nor have I inserted the words Persiflage, Persifler, Persifleur, from a full knowledge that it is the extreme of bad breeding among Frenchmen, and indeed among other nations, to take the least liberty with the dress or appearance, &c. of individuals*; and that the puerile art of Quizzing was, of course unknown among them.

If, however, I have been guilty of omissions, with regard to a few familiar terms, I have made ample amends to the military reader by supplying him with copious information, &c. respecting the most important

* It is remarkable, that men addicted to the ignorant and boyish habit of quizzing, cannot bear the slightest humour, if it be levelled against themselves. Il est vraiment plus honteux de persifler, que d'être persiflé. Persifleur, A quizzer. Persiflé, A person quizzed—Persiflage, The act of quizzing—Are modern terms among the French. To Hoax—To Roux are cant terms amongst us which are unfortunately too much sanctioned. With respect to the etymology or origin of these terms, it will probably be found that they come from the noisy nurseries of some of our public schools, from whence they ought never to have wandered into familiar usage. Perhaps Quiz grew out of an impertinent curiosity, on the arrival of a new boy, and is a corruption of Quis est? Who is he?—I leave this important question to be determined by the learned etymologists of Eton, Westminster, and Harrow! Mistifier, among the French, in some degree corresponds with our motion on this head.
branch of the profession. It will be found, that many pages in the following work have been devoted to the terms which are generally used in the study and practice of fortification. Nor can these pages be thought superfluous, or too much extended, when it is recollected (according to Belair, in his Elémens de Fortification, and according to the experience of the best informed officers) that the science of fortification is by no means confined to students in the artillery and engineer departments.

Frederick the Second, King of Prussia, whose whole reign was distinguished by so many military exploits, and who stood more indebted for success to his acquirements, than to his powerful genius, looked upon the knowledge of fortification as the ground-work of tactics. From this conviction he constantly recommended the study of it to all descriptions of officers.

It has been very justly remarked by a modern writer, that an engineer could never arrive at any excellency in his profession, unless he added a knowledge of general tactics and manœuvres to his own immediate art; we may say, with equal propriety, that no tactician will ever become thoroughly master of his profession, or, as the French justly term it—de son métier—will ever be sufficiently instructed in the art of war to bid defiance to the infinite vicissitudes of chance, and to be equal to some glorious and enterprising plan, unless he know the various duties of the engineer department, be well acquainted with the elementary principles of fortification, and adapt his mind to the true spirit of them all." See Page 10.

Observations Prélminaires des Éléments de Fortification*.

If it should be observed, that I have been occasionally betrayed into gallicisms, I can only say with Dr. Johnson—"That he who has long cultivated another language, will find words and combinations crowd upon his memory; and haste and negligence, and refiment (I cannot add affectation, for I am not conscious of having wittingly done so) will obtrude borrowed terms and exotick expressions. Let it also be remembered, that no book was ever turned from one language into another, without imparting something of its native idiom."

* How would a handful of men have been able to check Bonaparte at Acre, had not the talents of Phillippeaux, the engineer, afforded the best means of defence, and seconded the vigour and intrepidity of Sir Sidney Smith?

It is somewhat remarkable, that this memorable spot should stand recorded in the superiority of British troops over the French, in these attempts on one side of the town, our Lion-hearted Richard stormed and took
With respect to the introduction of French terms at all, beyond what were found absolutely necessary for the explanation of technical phrases which have been adopted among us, I can only say, that some knowledge of the French is not only useful, but absolutely necessary to military men.*

So true in this science, at least, if not in all others, (to use Mr. Tooke's words in his Introduction to the *Diversions of Purley*), is that saying of Roger Ascham, "Even as a hawke fleeth not his with one wing, even so a man reacheth not to excellency with one tongue." †

And if it should be said, that I have been tediously minute in explaining some terms which appear trifling in themselves, let it be recollected, as the editor of the *Rudiments of War* has justly remarked, that "Trifles are usually the first things forgotten in a period of inactivity and repose; that the elements of every science, however trivial in detail, become collectively of importance; that it is an assemblage of units which compose a million, and of points that forms the most valuable theorems of mathematical demonstration."

In the hurry and confusion of a battle, the simplicity of the two grand principles of extension and compression, must be so unavoidably lost, that the safety of the line of action depends wholly upon the quick restoration of the most subordinate parts. This restoration can only be effected by a thorough knowledge of military mechanism, in every part of a battalion. Hence the necessity of those minute manoeuvres and evolutions which Frederick the Great, of Prussia, is said to have first introduced, and to which the best disciplined armies in Europe have thought it prudent to subscribe.

As to those parts of the work, which are not necessarily connected with the mere explanation of technical terms, &c. but grow out of its subject matter into general remarks, I may with safety say, that there is not one observation or suggestion which does not tend to promote the morality of individuals, the advancement of military science, or the important objects of discipline and good order. I have, with some degree of earnestness,

* It will also be observed, that, in many instances, I may appear to have unnecessarily swelled the work by a repetition of terms, signifying the same thing in both languages. The reader, however, will be pleased to remark, that the explanation of the same terms, or of terms with few or no shades of difference between them, is so variously given by my French authorities, that I have often thought it best to submit them, as they have come to me, rather than hazard a misconstruction on my own judgment.

† With respect to the insertion of Indian terms, I feel myself justified in having done so, whenever I cast my eyes on the official Gazette, and see the returns of the killed and wounded in our battles with the rebellious chiefs of that our try.
excited the attention of the army, and of course the judgment of the Commander in Chief, to the mischievous practice of buying, selling and exchanging commissions. A general Agency Board, subject to the Commander in Chief, &c. in time of war, and to the Secretary at War in time of peace, naturally forms the jet and ultimate object of these suggestions.

In concluding this Preface (the subject matter of which cannot be deemed wholly superfluous, although some parts may be thought tedious and uninteresting), I must advert to that passage in Dr. Johnson’s laborious work, wherein he says, “a large work is difficult, because it is large, even though all its parts might singly be performed with facility; where there are many things to be done, each must be allowed its share of time and labour, in the proportion only which it bears to the whole; nor can it be expected, that the stones which form the dome of a temple, should be squared and polished like the diamond of a ring.”

“That it will immediately become popular,” to use the same writer’s words, even among those military men who may perhaps stand in considerable need of theoretical aid, “I have not promised to myself. A few wild blunders and risible absurdities, from which no work of such multiplicity was ever free, may for a time furnish folly with laughter, and harden ignorance in contempt; but useful diligence will at last prevail, and there never can be wanting some who distinguish desert; who will consider that no dictionary of a living tongue (most especially a military dictionary in our language, which is hourly borrowing fresh terms from the French and German) can ever be perfect; since, while it is hastening to publication, some words are budding, and some falling away;* that a whole life cannot be spent upon syntax and etymology, and that even a whole life would not be sufficient; that he whose design includes whatever language can express, must often speak of what he does not understand; that a writer will sometimes be hurried by eagerness to the end, and sometimes faint with weariness under a task which Scaliger compares to the labours of the anvil and the mine; that what is obvious is not always known, and what is known is not always present; that sudden fits of inadvertency will surprize vigilance,† slight avocations will seduce attention, and

* Multa renascentur quae jam cecidere, cadentque
Quae nunc in honore vocabula; si volet Usus. Hor.

† Some words, having been omitted in their alphabetical arrangement, are found incorporated with other articles, to which they have an affinity. Of this description is Avencurier under Soldat; to which I might add several others that will naturally strike the judicious reader. In the same manner I have been obliged
and casual eclipses of the mind will darken learning; and that the writer shall often in vain trace his memory at the moment of need, for that which yesterday he knew with intuitive readiness, and which will come uncalled into his thoughts to-morrow."

In dismissing this work, which I am free to confess I cannot do with the frigid tranquillity our learned lexicographer experienced at the close of his labours, I think it necessary to observe, that the books from which I have principally made extracts consist of *Dictionnaire Militaire, en trois Tomes*; ditto in two volumes, and the last printed work of that description, entitled, *Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire*, published in 1802; *Les Éléments de Fortification*, par Bélier; *Manuel de l'Artilleur*; *Essai général sur l'Attaque & Défense des Places*; *Instructions pour tracer & construire toutes Sortes d'Outrages de Campagne*, par P. Gaudi, augmentée par A. P. J. Bélier; *Vauban's Fortification*; *Aide Mémoire*; *Tactique et Discipline de Prusse*; *Dictionnaire de l'Academie Francoise, cinquième edition*; *Saldern's Tactus*; *Précis des Evénements Militaires*; *Rules and Regulations published by Authority*; *Roberts's Indian Glossary*; *Orme's History of the Carnatic*; *Bombardier Francois*; *Potter's Antiquities*; *Kennett's Roman Antiquities*; *Little Bombardier*; *Articles of War*; *Tytler on Courts-Martial*; *M'Arthur's Treatise on Courts-Martial*; *The Life of Gustavus Adolphus*; *Smith's Dictionary*, as far as regards the artillery; and various small treatises which have occasionally appeared.

With respect to any collateral aid, which might have been afforded me, during the collection and subsequent distribution of the materials, I shall not be thought unkind or ungenerous—I certainly am not unjust—when I assert, that the little assistance which I did apparently receive, upwards of twelve months before the completion of the first edition, rather impeded than forwarded its progress; rather perplexed than cleared the way, and exposed me to the revision of words, and the re-writing of articles, during which interruption, I might have collected the same terms myself, and have added appropriate illustrations. So that all the praise—if the most trifling praise be given—and all the blame—of which I can easily anticipate no inconsiderable portion—that may be attached to this work, must be my own. It would however be an injustice done to real industry, were I to omit acknowledging in this place my obligations to my printer. To him, and to him only, I stand indebted not only for some acute and sensible queries obliged to divide the explanation and the use of Mortello Tower. Under Mortello will be found the derivation, &c. and under Tower, the description of that which is in Jersey; the latter article having reached me after the other had been worked of.
relative to the general matter, but considerably so for great attention to the arrangement of the words, according to their alphabetical succession.

Looking, as I confidently do, to the candour and consideration of that respectable class of military individuals, whose disposition to promote the general good of the service is at least equal to their personal toil and glory in it, I should finally close this long Preface with little courtesy to them, and less advantage to myself, were I to omit soliciting on this occasion, their friendly communications. Hints, suggestions, and corrections, for the improvement of this Dictionary, and of the "Regimental Companion," will be thankfully acknowledged by me, addressed to the Military Library, Whitehall; observing to every reader that may do me the honour to peruse either of these publications,

—— Si quid novisti rectius istis,
Candidus imperti: Si non, his utero mecum. Hor.

POSTSCRIPT.

It will not, I am persuaded, be deemed presumptuous in me to point out specific articles (to which the attention of young officers is principally invited), when I observe, that some of the chief ones have been kindly supplied by gentlemen of acknowledged learning and reputation. I shall, therefore, not scruple to recommend to their occasional perusal the following terms; and in so doing, I beg to be understood by those persons, who have done me the friendship to contribute to the undertaking, that I have a due sense of the service they have rendered me. I only wish (for the benefit of the army at large) that I had been fortunate enough to merit the countenance of those in power, so far as to have secured the contribution of the different offices, and established institutions of the country. Perhaps I may not be too vain when I say, that I have laid the groundwork of a valuable compilation. To render it what it ought to be, a national Military Encyclopædia, the professors at Woolwich and High Wycombe should not only lend their theoretical aid, but officers of known ability and experience who are provided for in the several departments, should add their practical observations.

An office, or circumscribed department, at a moderate expense to the public, ought, indeed, to be established for the purpose of receiving communications, of translating foreign military works, and of digesting the different
different acts of parliament which relate to the army. This office, or literary board, might be subordinate to the commander in chief and to the secretary at war; under whose immediate sanction and direction, works of a military tendency, as well as official rules and regulations, would be arranged in a clear and short manner. But I am insensibly digressing from the immediate object of this Postscript. I shall therefore take my leave of this new edition of a work, which has been executed by me amidst the hurry of a capital, and, as I have already stated in the Preface, under circumstances of peculiar care, and extraneous occupation. For the errors it contains, and for some palpable omissions, I must trust to the indulgence of those men, who can make allowances for the situation of the Author, and for the unavoidable imperfections to which every work must be subjected, which has been completed with scarcely any assistance, but that of his Printer. The words which are marked with asterisks have been chiefly given by others.

Animate.
Golden Rock.
Honour.
Infantry.*
March.
Military Mind.*
Money Matters.
Montagnes.
Nager.*
Nati.ation.
Neutrality.
Officer.*
British Pay.*
Pharsalia.
Poltroon.
Population.
Presumption.
Reconnoitring.*

Retirade.
Retreat.
Riot.
River.
Représaille.
Religion.*
Military Rewards.
Salutatores.
Secrecy.
Science of War.
Serjeant.
Military Secretary.
Servants.
Signal by Colours.
Soldier.*
Superiority.
Suspension.
Surprises.

Sword.
Swimming.*
Table des Officiers.
Tactics.
Target.*
Telegraph.*
Turcoplier.*
Turcoplier.
Valour.
Vivres.
Ulan.
Volunteers.
Wheeling.
Wrongs.
Yeomen.
York Asylum.

I must here generally observe, that as I have collected materials from established authorities, or at least from books which have been published under the apparent sanction of military institutions, such as Woolwich, &c. I can only refer the scientific reader to the same sources; claiming indulgence for such errors as I may inadvertently have copied, and which might possibly have been avoided, had I possessed the leisure which every undertaking of this description requires: I trust, however, that few or none will be found in this edition, which are likely to mislead any officer on service.

I cannot conclude this article without expressing my acknowledgments to the several gentlemen from whom I have received suggestions; and I beg
beg leave to repeat, that every communication, for the improvement of this work, or of the Regimental Companion, will be thankfully acknowledged.

It is also necessary to say something more regarding the French terms which are interspersed, and in some instances, apparently out of place. The rule, which I have generally gone by, has been to select not only such words as might be found useful on service, but also those which tend to the elucidation of French military works, or communications. The mere technical ones are attached to their English leaders; and when the phrase has been used amongst us, the English term has followed. In some instances, the leading word has not been succeeded by its French or English adjunct; and where this occurs it will be found, that the term was not used in both languages to signify the same thing. Thus under Officer in waiting (literally Officier en attendant), which is found in our orderly books, I have not affixed a French term, because the same form is not observed among the French. They have certainly a phrase that corresponds; which is, Le Premier à prendre, and the Le Suppléant.

To those, who may peruse the different articles which are occasionally extended beyond the mere etymological or technical explanation of terms, it will not, perhaps, be presumption in me to say, that they will not lay down this volume with sentiments or impressions, which can make them worse men, worse Christians, or worse soldiers than they were, when they took it up; too happy should I be, if, without the imputation of flattery to myself, I could add, they may be better.
**MILITARY DICTIONARY.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABO</th>
<th>ABR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABANDON</strong>, abandonner, Fr. to leave a place to the mercy of an enemy, by suddenly retiring from it. Hence to abandon a fortress, &amp;c.</td>
<td><strong>ABOLLA</strong>, in military antiquity, a warm kind of garment, generally lined or doubled, used both by the Greeks and Romans, chiefly out of the city, in following the camp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABATIS</strong>, Fr. Trees cut down, and laid with their branches, &amp;c. turned towards the enemy, as to form a sort of defence for troops stationed behind them. They are made either before redoubts, or other works, to render the attacks difficult, or sometimes along the skirts of a wood, to prevent the enemy from getting possession of it. In this case the trunks serve as a breast-work, behind which the troops are posted, and for that reason should be so disposed, that the parts may, if possible, flank each other.</td>
<td><strong>ABONNEMENT</strong>, Fr. an engagement entered into by a country, town, corporation, &amp;c. for the purpose of supplying the exigencies of the state in time of war, or of granting provisions, &amp;c. to an army.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To <strong>ABDICATE</strong>, abdiquer, Fr. to give up voluntarily any place of trust, as to abdicate the crown. The French use the word abdiquer in the same manner that we do to resign; hence abdiquer le commandement d'une armée, une compagnie, to resign the command of an army, of a company.</td>
<td><strong>ABORD</strong>, Fr. attack, onset.</td>
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<td><strong>ABLECTI</strong>, in military antiquity, a choice or select part of the soldiers in the Roman armies, picked out of those called extraordinarii.</td>
<td><strong>S'ABOUCHE</strong>, Fr. to parley.</td>
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<td><strong>ABOIS</strong>, Fr. a term used among the French to signify extreme distress. Thus an army, which is hemmed in on all sides in a fortress or camp, and is in want of provisions, &amp;c. is said to be our aboi. The word comes from aboyer, to bark; perhaps the term at bay is derived from it, as the stag at bay.</td>
<td><strong>ABOUT</strong>, a technical word to express the movement, by which a body of troops changes its front or aspect, by facing according to any given word of command.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ABOI-VENTS</strong>, Fr. In fortification, small lodgments constructed in a covert way, or in any other part of a fortified place, to protect soldiers from the inclemency of the weather.</td>
<td><strong>Right-About</strong>, is when the soldier by placing the toe of the right foot on a line in contact with the heel of the left, makes a pivot of the latter, and completely changes the situation of his person, by a semi-circular movement to the right.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Left-About</strong>, is when the soldier by placing the heel of his right foot on a line with the great toe of the left, changes the situation of his person, by a semi-circular movement to the left. When troops are under arms, they are sometimes put to the left-about, in order to prevent the clashing of the pouches, which frequently occurs in the semi-circular movement to the right.</td>
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<td><strong>ABREAST</strong>, a term formerly used to express any number of men in front. At present they are determined by files.</td>
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<td><strong>ABREUVOIR</strong>, Fr. a reservoir for A water;</td>
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water; any spot dug for the purpose of retaining water. This must always be attended to when a regular camp is first formed.

ABRI, Fr. shelter, cover. Étre à l'abri, to be under cover, as of a wood, hillock, &c.

ABRIS, Fr. Places of shelter.

ABSCISSA, in military mathematics, signifies any part of the diameter or axis of a curve, contained between its vertex or some other fixed point, and the intersection of the ordinate.

In the parabola, the abscissa is a third proportional to the parameter and the ordinate.

In the ellipse, the square of the ordinate is equal to the rectangle under the parameter and abscissa, lessened by another rectangle under the said abscissa, and a fourth proportional to the axis, the parameter, and the abscissa.

In the hyperbola, the squares of the ordinates are as the rectangles of the abscissa by another line, compounded of the abscissa and the transverse axis.

But it must be remembered, that the two proportions relating to the ellipse and hyperbola, the origin of the abscissa, or point from whence they began to be reckoned, is supposed to be the vertex of the curve, or, which amounts to the same thing, the point where the axis meets it; for if the origin of the abscissa be taken from the centre, as is often done, the above proportions will not be true.

ABSENT, a term used in the British army. It forms a part of regimental reports and general returns, to account for the deficiency of any given number of officers or soldiers; and is usually distinguished under two principal heads, viz.

ABSENT WITH LEAVE, officers with permission, or non-commissioned officers and soldiers on furlough; excused parade or field duty.

ABSENT WITHOUT LEAVE. Men who desert are frequently reported absent without leave, for the specific purpose of bringing their crime under regimental cognizance, and to prevent them from being tried capitally for desertion, according to the Mutiny Act.

ABSOLUTE GRAVITY, in philosophy, is the whole force by which a body, shell, or shot, is impelled towards the center. See Gravity.

ABSOLUTE NUMBER, in Algebra, is the known quantity which possesses entirely one side of the equation. Thus, in the equation, \( xx - 10x = 64 \), the number 64, possessing entirely one side of the equation, is called the absolute number, and is equal to the square of the unknown root \( x \), added to \( 10x \), or to 10 times \( x \).

ABUTMENT. See Bridges.

ACADEMY, in antiquity, the name of a villa situated about a mile from the city of Athens, where Plato and his followers assembled for conversing on philosophical subjects; and hence they acquired the name of Academicians.

The term Academy is frequently used among the moderns for a regular society, or company, of learned persons, instituted under the protection of a prince, for the cultivation and improvement of arts or sciences. Some authors confound academy with university; but, though much the same in Latin, they are very different things in English. An university is, properly, a body composed of graduates in the several faculties; of professors, who teach in the public schools; of regents or tutors, and students who learn under them, and aspire likewise to degrees: whereas an academy was originally not intended for teaching, or to profess any art, but to improve it; it was not for novices to be instructed in, but for those who were more knowing, for persons of distinguished abilities to confer in, and communicate their lights and discoveries to each other, for their mutual benefit and improvement. The first academy we read of, was established by Charlemagne, at the motion of Alcuin; it was composed of the chief wits of the court, the emperor himself being a member.

Military Academy. We have in England two royal military academies, one at Woolwich, and one at Portsmouth. The first was established by his late Majesty King George II. by warrants bearing date the 30th day of April, and the 18th day of November, 1741, endowed and supported, for the instructing of the people belonging to the military branch of ordnance, in the several
veral parts of mathematics necessary to qualify them for the service of the artillery, and the business of engineers. The lectures of the masters in theory were then duly attended by the practitioner-engineers, officers, serjeants, corporals, private men, and cadets. At present the gentlemen educated at this academy are the sons of the nobility and military officers. They are called gentleman cadets, and are not admitted under 14, and not above 16 years of age. They are taught writing, arithmetic, algebra, Latin, French, mathematics, mechanics, surveying, levelling, and fortification, together with the attack and defence; gunnery, mining, laboratory-works, geography, perspective, fencing, dancing, &c. The master-general of the ordnance is always captain of the company of gentleman cadets, and some officer of merit is always captain-lieutenant. There is, besides, a first lieutenant, and two second lieutenants. They are further under the immediate care of a lieutenant-governor, and an inspector, who are officers of great abilities and experience; and the professors and masters are men of known talents and capacity. That at Portsmouth was founded by George I. in 1722, for teaching of the branches of the mathematics which more immediately relate to navigation.

ACANZI, in military history, the name of the Turkish light-horse that form the van-guard of the Grand Signor's army on a march.

ACCELERATED Motion on oblique or inclined planes. See Motion.

ACCELERATED Motion of Pendulums. See Pendulums.

ACCELERATED Motion of Projectiles. See Projectiles.

ACCELERER, Fr.; to hasten on; to press forward.

ACCELERER we SicGe, Fr. to carry the trench under the main body of a fortified place, in order to take it by a prompt assault.

ACCELERER we MArche, Fr. to make extraordinary exertions in advancing against an enemy with rapidity; to make a forced march.

ACCENDONES, in military antiquity, a kind of gladiators, or supernumeraries, whose office was to excite and animate the combatants during the engagement.

ACCENSI, in antiquity, were officers attending the Roman magistrates; their business was to summon the people to the public games, and to assist the prator when he sat on the bench.

ACCENSI, in military antiquity, was also an appellation given to a kind of adjutants appointed by the tribune to assist each centurion and decurion. According to Festus, they were supernumerary soldiers, whose duty it was to attend their leaders, and supply the places of those who were either killed or wounded. Livy mentions them as irregular troops, but little esteemed. Salmassius tells us, they were taken out of the fifth class of the poor citizens of Rome.

ACCESSIBLE, (accessible, Fr.) that which may be approached. We say, in a military stile, that place, or that fortress, is accessible from the sea, or land, i.e. it may be entered on those sides.

ACCLAMATIONS, Fr. shouts of joy, &c. usually given by troops under arms, admist the discharge of cannon, &c. on the surrender of a place; or in testimony of some great event: we use the term cheers.

ACCLIVITY, in a military sense, is the steepness or slope of any work, inclined to the horizon, reckoned upwards. Some writers on fortification use acclivity as synonymous to talus; though talus is commonly used to denote all manner of slopes, either in its ascendant or descendant state.

ACCONTIUM, in ancient military writers, a kind of Grecian dart or javelin, somewhat resembling the Roman pilum.

ACCOUNTREMENTS, in a military sense, signify habits, equipage, or furniture, of a soldier, such as buffks, belts, pouches, cartridge-boxes, &c. Accoutrements should be made of stout, smooth buff, as well for the service to be expected from them, as for their superior look above the spongy kind, which is always stretching, and difficult to clean. The buff belts are about 2½ inches broad, with two buckles to fix them to the pouch. Pouches are made of the stoutest blackened calf-skin, especially the out-
side flaps, which are of such a substance as to turn the severest rain. Cartridge-boxes are made as light as possible, with 36 holes in each, to hold so many cartridges. The bayonet-belt is also 2½ inches broad, and better worn over the shoulder than about the waist.

**ACCULER** une armée une troupe, Fr. to drive an army or body of men into such a situation that they must either fight or surrender.

**ACHERNEMENT**, Fr. the rage and frenzy to which soldiers are subjected in the heat of an engagement; a thirst for blood and carnage.

**ACLIDES**, in Roman antiquity, a kind of missive weapon, with a thong fixed to it, whereby it might be drawn back again. Most authors describe the acliades as a sort of dart or javelin; but Scaliger makes it somewhat of a round and globular shape, with a wooden stem to poise it by.

**ACOLITHI**, in military antiquity, was a title in the Grecian empire, given to the captain or commander of the **parangi**, or body guards, appointed for the security of the emperor's palace.

**ACTIAN** games, in antiquity, were games instituted, or at least restored, by Augustus, in memory of the famous victory, at Actium, over Mark Anthony.

**ACTIAN years**, in chronology, a series of years, commencing with the epocha of the battle of Actium, otherwise called the era of Augustus.

**ACTION**, action, Fr. in the military art, is an engagement between two armies, or any smaller body of troops, or between different bodies belonging thereto. The word is likewise used to signify some memorable act done by an officer, soldier, detachment, or party.

**ACTIVITE**, Fr. See **ACTIVITY**.

Etri en Activité, Fr. to be in force, or have existence, as a law, rule, or order. Cette ordonnance est en activité.

**ACTIVITY**, in a military sense, denotes laboriousness, attention, labour, diligence, and study.

**ACTS of Hostility**, Actes d'Hostilités, Fr. Certain overt acts by sea or land, which tend to a declaration of war between two countries; or to a renewal of it, after a truce had been agreed upon.

**ACUTE angle**. See **ANGLE**.

**ADACTED**, applies to stakes, or piles, driven into the earth by large mauls shod with iron, as in securing ramparts or pontoons.

**ADDICE**, a sort of axe which cuts horizontally. It is commonly or corruptly called an adze.

**ADDOSER**, Fr. to place one thing behind another, as a tent, &c. The French also say, **Addoser une compagnie**, to post one company in the rear of another.

**ADIT**, a passage under ground, by which miners approach the part they intend to sap. See **GALLERY**.

**ADJUTANT-GENERAL**, an officer of distinction, who aids and assists the general in his laborious duty: he forms the several details of duty of the army, with the brigade majors, and keeps an exact state of each brigade and regiment, with a roll of the lieutenant-generals, major-generals, colonels, lieutenant-colonels, and majors. He every day at head quarters receives orders from the general officer of the day, and distributes them to the majors of brigades, from whom he receives the number of men they are to furnish for the duty of the army, and informs them of any detail which may concern them. On marching days he accompanies the general to the ground of the camp. He makes a daily report of the situation of all the posts placed for the safety of the army, and of any changes made in their posts. In a day of battle the adjutant-general sees the infantry drawn up, after which he places himself by the general to receive orders. In a siege he visits the several posts and guards of the trenches, and reports their situation, and how circumstanced: he gives and signs all orders for skirmishing parties (if time permit) and has a sergeant from each brigade to carry any orders which he may have to send.

**ADJUTANT**, an officer who eases the major of part of the burthen of his duty, and performs it in his absence. He receives orders from the brigade major, if in camp; and when in garrison, from the town major: after he has carried them to his colonel or officer commanding the regiment, he then assembles the sergeant major, drum-major, and file major, with a sergeant and corporal of each company, who write the orders to shew
AFFAMER une armée, Fr. to prevent an army from receiving provisions, &c. and thereby starve it out.

AFFAMER une place, Fr. to besiege a place so closely as to starve the garrison and inhabitants. See Blockade.

AFFIDAVIT, in military law, signifies an oath taken before some person who is properly authorized to administer it; as first, when a soldier is enlisted, when it is stiled an attestation; secondly, by all officers appointed for a court-martial; thirdly, by the commissaries, or muster-masters, &c.

AFFIDE, Fr. a man that is trusted; one in the confidence of another.

AFFOIBLIR, Fr. to weaken; hence affoiblir un ennemi, to weaken an enemy.

AFFRONTER les perils, Fr. to face all dangers; not to be intimidated by the sword, ball, or even death itself.

S'AFFRONTER, Fr. to engage one another rudely; les deux armées s'affrontèrent, the two armies came to close action, and fought hand to hand.

AFFRONTER, Fr. to encounter or attack boldly.

AFFUT, the French name for a gun carriage, and for which we have no proper name; the only distinction from all other carriages is, that it belongs to a gun. See Carriage.

AGA, in the Turkish army, is the same as a general with us.

AGE. A young man must be 14 years old before he can become an officer in the line, or be entered as a cadet at Woolwich.

Persons may be enlisted for soldiers from 17 to 45. After the latter age, every inhabitant is exempted from serving in the British militia.

By a late regulation, growing boys may be enlisted under 16 years of age. These recruits are chiefly intended for the East-India service.

The Romans were obliged to enter themselves in the army at the age of 17 years; at 45 they might demand their dismissal. Amongst the Lombards, the age of entry was between 18 and 19; among the Saxons, at 13.

AGEMA, in the ancient military art, a kind of soldierly chiefly in the Macedonian armies. The word is Greek, and literally denotes vehemence, to express the strength and eagerness of this corps,
corps. Some authors will have agema to denote a certain number of picked men, answering to a legion among the Romans.

AGENCY, a certain proportion of money which is ordered to be subtracted from all the pay and allowances of the British army, for transacting the business of the several regiments composing it.

AGENDA, Fr. a term used among the French, signifying a minute detail of every thing that is required in the interior economy of a regiment, troop, or company.

AGENT, a person in the civil department of the army, between the paymaster-general and the paymaster of the regiment, through whom every regimental concern of a pecuniary nature must be transacted. He gives security to government for all monies which may pass through his hands in the capacity of an Agent—and by the Mutiny Act it is provided, That if an Agent shall withhold the Pay of Officers or Soldiers for the Space of one Month, he shall be dismissed from his Office, and forfeit 100l. (39th Geo. III. Sect. 99.)

AGENT, Fr. the person who is entrusted with the interior economy of a regiment, troop, or company.

AGGER, in ancient military writers, denotes the middle part of a military road, raised into a ridge, with a gentle slope on each side, to make a drain for the water, and keep the way dry.

AGGER is also used for the whole road, or military way. Where highways were to be made in low grounds, as between two hills, the Romans used to raise them above the adjacent land, so as to make them of a level with the hills. These banks they called aggeres. Bergier mentions several in the Gallia Belgica, which were thus raised 10, 15, or 20 feet above ground, and 5 or 6 leagues long. They are sometimes called aggeres calcinati, or causeways, as with us.

AGGER, also, denotes a work of fortification, used both for the defence and the attack of towns, camps, &c. in which sense agger is the same with what was otherwise called vallum, and in later times, agetum; and among the moderns, lines; sometimes, cavaliers, terrasses, &c.

The agger was usually a bank, or elevation of earth, or other matter, bounded and supported with timber; having sometimes turrets on the top, wherein the workmen, engineers, and soldiers were placed. It was also accompanied with a ditch, which served as its chief defence. The height of the agger was frequently equal to that of the wall of the place. Caesar tells us of one he made, which was 30 feet high, and 380 feet broad. Besides the use of aggers before towns, they generally used to fortify their camps with the same, for want of which precaution, divers armies have been surprized and ruined.

There were vast aggers made in towns and places on the sea-side, fortified with towers, castles, &c. Those made by Cæsar and Pompey, at Brundusium, are famous. Sometimes aggers were even built across arms of the sea, lakes, and morasses; as was done by Alexander before Tyre, and by M. Antony and Cassius.

The wall of Severus, in the north of England, may be considered as a grand agger, to which belong several lesser ones. Besides, the principal agger or vallum, on the brink of the ditch, Mr. Horsley describes another on the south side of the former, about 5 paces distant from it, which he calls the south agger; and another larger one, on the north side of the ditch, called the north agger. This latter he conjectures to have served as a military way; the former, probably, was made for the inner defence, in case the enemy should beat them from any part of the principal vallum, or to protect the soldiers against any sudden attack from the provincial Britons.

Agger Tarquinius, was a famous fence built by Tarquinius Superbus, on the east side of Rome, to stop the incursions of the Latins, and other enemies, whereby the city might be invested.

Agger is also used for the earth dug out of a ditch or trench, and thrown up on the brink of it: in which sense, the Chevalier Folard thinks the word to be understood, when used in the plural number, since we can hardly suppose they would raise a number of cavaliers or terrasses.

Agger is also used for a bank or wall, erected against the sea, or some great river, to confine or keep it within bounds;
bound; in which sense, **agger** amounts to the same with what the ancients called **tumulus** and **moles**; the Dutch, **dyke**; and we, **dam**, **sea-wall**, &c.

**AGIADES**, in the Turkish armies, are a kind of pioneer, or rather field engineers, employed in fortifying the camp, &c.

**AGIR**, Fr. to act; hence *agit en défense*; *agit en défensive*; to act offensively; to act defensively, or on the defensive.

**AGITATOR** **Assidé**, Fr. a person in the confidence of a superior, who mixes with his fellow subjects or comrades, and discusses various matters for the purpose of discovering their views and principles. This character was first created by Oliver Cromwell; and a similar one exists at this moment among the French, in order to preserve the military ascendency of Bonaparte.

**AGUERRI**, Fr. an officer or soldier experienced in war; a veteran.

**AIDE-DE-CAMP**, an officer appointed to attend a general officer, in the field, in winter quarters, and in garrison; he receives and carries the orders, as occasion requires. He is seldom under the degree of a captain, and all aides-de-camp have 10s. a day allowed for their duty. This employment is of greater importance than is generally believed; it is, however, often entrusted to young officers of little experience, and of as little capacity; but in most foreign services they give great attention to this article. Marshal de Puysegur mentions the loss of a battle through the incapacitation of an aide-de-camp. The king may appoint for himself as many as he pleases, which appointment gives the rank of colonel in the army. Generals, being field marshals, have four, lieutenant generals two, major generals one, and brigadier generals one brigade major.

**AIDE du Parc des Vivres**, Fr. an officer in France, acting immediately under the commissary of stores and provisions.

**AID-MAJOR.** See **AID-IJANT.**

**AIGREMORE**, a term used by the artificers in the laboratory, to express the charcoal in a state fitted for the making of powder.

**AIGUILLE**, an instrument used by engineers to pierce a rock for the lodge-

**AIGE**

**AIR**

ment of powder, as in a mine; or to mine a rock, so as to excavate and make roads.

**AILLE**, Fr. a wing or flank of an army or fortification.

**AIM**, the act of bringing the musquet, piece of ordnance, or any other missive weapon, to its proper line of direction with the object intended to be struck.

**AIM-FRONTLET**, a piece of wood hollowed out to fit the muzzle of a gun, to make it of an equal height with the breech, formerly made use of by the gunners, to level and direct their pieces. It is not used at present.

**AIR-GUN**, a pneumatic machine for exploding bullets, &c. with great violence.

The common air-gun is made of brass, and has two barrels: the inside barrel is of a small bore, from whence the bullets are exploded; and a large barrel on the outside of it. There is likewise a syringe fixed in the stock of the gun, by which the air is injected into the cavity between the two barrels through a valve. The ball is put down into its place in the small barrel with the rammer, as in any other gun. Another valve, being opened by the trigger, permits the air to come behind the bullet, so as to drive it out with great force. If this valve be opened and shut suddenly, one charge of condensed air may be sufficient for several discharges of bullets; but if the whole air be discharged on one single bullet, it will drive it out with uncommon force. This discharge is effected by means of a lock placed here, as usual in other guns; for the trigger being pulled, the cock will go down and drive the lever, which will open the valve, and let in the air upon the bullet: but as the expansive power of the condensed air diminishes at each discharge, its force is not determined with sufficient precision for the purposes of war. Hence it has been long out of use among military men.

In the air-gun, and all other cases where the air is required to be condensed to a very great degree, it will be necessary to have the syringe of a small bore, viz. not exceeding half an inch in diameter; because the pressure against every square inch is about 15 pounds, and therefore against every circular inch about
about 12 pounds. If therefore the syringe be one inch in diameter, when one atmosphere is injected, there will be a resistance of 12 pounds against the piston; and when 10 are injected, there will be a force of 120 pounds to be overcome; whereas ten atmospheres act against the circular half-inch piston (whose area is only 1/4 part so big) with only a force equal to 30 pounds; or 40 atmospheres may be injected with such a syringe, as well as 10 with the other. In short, the facility of working will be inversely as the squares of the diameter of the syringe.

AIR-SHAFTS, in mining. See MINING.

ALARM, is a sudden apprehension upon some report, which makes men run to their arms to stand upon their guard; it implies either the apprehension of being suddenly attacked, or the notice given of such an attack being actually made; generally signified by the firing of a cannon, the beat of a drum, &c.

ALARM-Post, in the field, is the ground appointed by the quarter-master general for each regiment to march to, in case of an alarm.

ALARM-Post, in a garrison, is the place allotted by the governor for the troops to draw up in, on any sudden alarm.

False-ALARMS, are stratagems of war, frequently made use of to harrass an enemy, by keeping them perpetually under arms. They are often conveyed by false reports, occasioned by a fearful or negligent sentinel. A vigilant officer will sometimes make a false alarm, to try if his guards are strict upon duty.

ALARM-Bell, the bell rung upon any sudden emergency, as a fire, mutiny, approach of an enemy, or the like, called by the French, Tocsin.

ALCANTARA, knights of a Spanish military order, who gained great honour during the wars with the Moors.

ALERT, originally derived from the French word alerte, which is formed of a and airt. The French formerly said airt for air; so that alerte means something continually in the air, and always ready to be put in action. A general is said to be alert when he is particularly vigilant.

To be kept upon the alert, is to be in continual apprehension of being surprized. Alert, among the French, is an expression which is used to put soldiers upon their guard. It is likewise used by a post that may be attacked in the night, to give notice to the one that is destined to support it; and by a sentry to give warning when any part of the enemy is approaching. We have had an alert, is a military phrase.

ALGEBRA, the science of numbers in general, in which, by general marks for numbers and others for operations with them, the properties of numbers are demonstrated, and questions relative to them are solved in an easy and concise manner. This science has been rendered obscure by an affection of mystery, and the supposition, that numbers might be less than nothing, and impossible. But as number is definite in itself, and one of the clearest ideas, whenever such a mysterious expression occurs, it must be owing to the negligence of the person using it, not to any fault in the science. The study of this easy branch of knowledge might be recommended to officers in general, from the example set them by Descartes, the great philosopher of France, who when a young man, and encamped near an university, solved a difficult problem, which exercised the talents of their deepest students. To officers in the ordnance department the knowledge of Algebra is indispensably necessary. See Mr. Frend's very able publication on this science.

ALIEN, in law, implies a person born in a foreign country, not within the king's dominions, in contradistinction to a denizen, or natural-born subject.

ALIGNEMENT, implies any thing straight—For instance, the alignement of a battalion means the situation of a body of men when drawn up in line. The alignement of a camp signifies the relative position of the tents, &c. so as to form a straight line, from given points.

AILAY. See ALLOY.

ALLE, in the ancient military art, the two wings or extremes of an army ranged in order of battle.

ALLEGANCE, in law, implies the obedience which every subject ought to pay to his lawful sovereign.

Oath of Allegiance, is that taken by the subject, by which he acknowledges
ALLOY, is the mixture of metals that enter into the composition of the metal proper for cannon and mortars.

ALLY, in a military sense, implies any nation united to another, under a treaty, either offensive or defensive, or both.

ALMADE, a kind of military canoe, or small vessel, about 24 feet long, made of the bark of a tree, and used by the negroes of Africa.

ALAMADIE, is also the name of a longboat used at Calcutta, near 80 feet long, and generally six or seven broad.

ALTIMETRY, the taking or measuring altitude, or heights.

ALTITUDE, height or distance from the ground, measured upwards, and may be both accessible, and inaccessible.

Altitude of a figure, is the distance of its vertex from its base, or the length of a perpendicular let fall from the vertex to the base.

Altitude of a shot or shell, is the perpendicular height of the vertex of the curve in which it moves above the horizon. See Gunnyery and Projectiles.

Altitude, in optics, is usually considered as the angle subtended between a line drawn through the eye, parallel to the horizon, and a visual ray emitted from an object to the eye.

Altitude, in cosmography, is the perpendicular height of an object, or its distance from the horizon upwards.

Altitudes are divided into accessible and inaccessible.

Accessible altitude of an object, is that whose base you can have access to, i.e. measure the nearest distance between your station and the foot of the object on the ground.

Inaccessible altitude of an object, is that when the foot or bottom of it cannot be approached, by reason of some impediment; such as water, or the like. The instruments chiefly used in measuring of altitudes, are the quadrant, theodolite, geometric quadrant, or line of shadows, &c.

Altitude of the eye, in perspective, is a right line let fall from the eye, perpendicular to the geometrical plane.

Altitude of motion, a term used by some writers, to express the measure of
any motion, computed according to the line of direction of the moving force.

**AMARRER** sur la culasse d'un canon, Fr. to tie or lash to the breech of a gun, in order to inflict bodily chastisement.

**AMAS**, Fr. stores.

**AMAZON**, one of those women who inhabited the country so called. They are said to have composed a nation of themselves, exclusive of males, and to have derived their name from their cutting off one of their breasts, that it might not hinder or impede the exercise of their arms. This term has often by modern writers been used to signify a bold daring woman, whom the delicacy of her sex does not hinder from engaging in the most hazardous attempts. The last and former wars with France have furnished us with several instances of females who have undergone the fatigue of a campaign with alacrity, and run the hazards of a battle with the greatest intrepidity.

**AMBIT**, the compass or circuit of any work or place, as of a fortification or encampment, &c.

**AMBITION**, in a military sense, signifies a desire of greater posts, or preferment. Every gentleman in the army or navy ought to have a spirit of ambition to arrive at the very summit of the profession.

**AMBULANT**, Fr. changing situation according to circumstances; hence **Hospital ambulant**, an hospital which follows the army; **Chirurgical ambulant**, a surgeon who follows the line of action.

**AMBUSCADE**, a snare set for the enemy, either to surprise him when marching without precaution; or by posting yourself advantageously, and drawing him on by different stratagems, to attack him with superior force.

**AMBUSH**, a place of concealment for soldiers to surprise an enemy, by falling suddenly upon him.

**AME**, a French term, similar in its import to the word chamber, as applied to cannon, &c.

**AMENDE Honourable**, among the French, signifies an apology for some injury done to another, or satisfaction given for an offence committed against the rules of honour or military etiquette, and was also applied to an infamous kind of punishment inflicted upon traitors, parricides, or sacrilegious persons, in the following manner: the offender being delivered into the hands of the hangman, his shirt is stripped off, a rope put about his neck, and a taper in his hand; then he is led into court, where he must beg pardon of God, the king, the court, and his country. Sometimes the punishment ends here; but sometimes it is only a prelude to death, or banishment to the galleys.

**AMMUNITION**, implies all sorts of powder and ball, shells, bullets, cartridges, grape-shot, tin and case-shot, carcasses, grenades, &c.

**AMMUNITION**, or gun-powder, may be prohibited to be exported at the king's pleasure, by Car II. cap. 4, sect. 13.

Arms, utensils of war, or gun-powder, imported without licence from his majesty, are to be forfeited with treble the value. Such licence obtained, except for the furnishing his majesty's public stores, is to be void, and the offender to incur a premunire, and be disabled to hold any office from the crown.

**AMMUNITION** bread, such as is contracted for by government, and served in camp, garrison, and barracks.

**AMMUNITION** shoes, stockings, shirts, stocks, &c. such of those articles as are served out to the private soldiers by government. See Half Mountings.

**AMMUNITION-wagon**, is generally a four-wheel carriage with shafts; the sides are ruled in with staves and raves, and lined with wicker work, so as to carry bread and all sorts of tools. It is drawn by four horses, and loaded with 1200 pound weight. See Wagon.

**AMMUNITION-cart**, a two-wheel carriage with shafts; the sides of which, as well as the fore and hind parts, are inclosed with boards instead of wicker work.

'**AMNESTY**, in a military or political sense, is an act by which two belligerent powers at variance promise to forget and bury in oblivion all that is past. **AMNESTY** is either general and unlimited, or particular and restrained, though most commonly universal, without conditions or exceptions; such as that which passed in Germany at the peace of Osnaburg in the year 1648.

**AMNESTY**, in a more limited sense, denotes
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were made so like it, as not to be distinguished from the sacred one. These Ancilia were carried in procession every year round the city of Rome.

ANDAIATE, in military antiquity, a kind of gladiators, who fought hoodwinked, having a sort of helmet that covered the eyes and face. They fought mounted on horseback, or out of chariots.

St. ANDREW, or the Thistle, a military order of knighthood in Scotland; the motto is Nemo me impune lacessit. The occasion of instituting this order is variously related by different authors. John Lesley, bishop of Ross, reports, that the night before the battle betwixt Athelstan, king of England, or rather Northumberland, and Hunugus, king of the Picts, a bright cross, in the fashion of that wherein St. Andrew suffered martyrdom, appeared in the air to Hunugus; he having gained the victory, bore the figure of that cross at all times after in his ensigns and banners; from which time all succeeding kings of Scotland have religiously observed the same bearing. Others assert, that this extraordinary appearance was not to Hunugus, but to the Scots, whom Achaibus, king of Scotland, sent to his assistance. This victory is said to have been obtained in the year 819 (though, according to Buchanan, Achaibus died nine years before) and that Hunugus and Achaibus went bare-footed in solemn procession to the kirk of St. Andrew, to return thanks to God and his apostle, promising, that they and their posterity would ever use in their ensigns the cross of St. Andrew, which custom prevailed among the Picts, and continues among the Scots unto this day; and that both these kings instituted an order, which they named the order of St. Andrew.

Others, who allow that Achaibus instituted this order, give the following account of its origin: Achaibus having formed that famous league, offensive and defensive, with Charlemagne, against all other princes, found himself thereby so strong, that he took for his device the Thistle and the Rue, which he composed into a collar of his order, and for its motto, Pour ma defense, intimating thereby, that he feared not the powers of foreign princes, seeing he leaned on the succour and alliance of the French.

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And though from hence may be inferred, that these two plants, the Thistle and the Rue, were the united symbols of one order of knighthood, yet Menenius divides them into two, making one whose badge was the thistle, whence the knights were so called, and the motto, Nemo me impune lacessit; another vulgarly called Sertum rute, or the garland of rue; the collar of which was composed of two branches or sprigs thereof, or else of several of its leaves: at both these collars hung one and the same jewel, to wit, the figure of St. Andrew, bearing before him the cross of his martyrdom.

But though the thistle has been acknowledged for the badge and symbol of the kingdom of Scotland, even from the reign of Achaisius, as the rose was of England, and the lily of France, the pomegranate of Spain, &c. yet there are some who refer the order of the thistle to later times, in the reign of Charles VII. of France, when the league of amity was renewed between that kingdom and Scotland, by which the former received great succour from the latter, at a period of extraordinary distress. Others again place the foundation still later, even as low as the year 1500; but without any degree of certainty.

The chief and principal ensign of this order is a gold collar, composed of thistles, interlinked with annulets of gold, having pendent thereto the image of St. Andrew with his cross, and this motto, Nemo me impune lacessit.

Knights of St. Andrew, is also an order instituted by Peter the Great, of Muscovy, in 1698; the badge of which is a golden medal, on one side whereof is represented St. Andrew’s cross; and on the other are these words, Czar Pierre monarque de toute la Russie. This medal, being fastened to a blue ribbon, is suspended from the right shoulder.

ANGARIA, in ancient military writers, means a guard of soldiers posted in any place for the security of it. Vide Vegetius, lib. i. c. 3. lib. ii. c. 19. lib. iii. c. 8.

ANGARIA, in civil law, implies a service by compulsion, as furnishing horses and carriages for conveying corn or other stores for the army.

ANGE, a term used by the French to express chain shot.

ANGEL Shot. See Chain Shot.

ANGELOT, a gold coin, which was struck at Paris when that capital was in the hands of the English; and so called from its representing the figure of an angel, supporting the arms of England and France.

ANGLE, in geometry, is the inclination of two lines meeting one another in a point.

The measure of an angle is the arch of a circle whose center is the angular point, and radius any distance in the lines forming the angle, and by which the arc is intercepted. As many degrees, &c. as are contained in that arch, so many degrees, &c. the angle is said to consist of.

Angles are either right, acute, or obtuse.

A Right Angle is when a straight line meeting another straight line has the same inclination on each side, and consequently the arches intercepted either way are equal to 90°, or the quarter of a circle.

An Acute Angle, is that which is less than a right angle, or 90°.

An Obtuse Angle, is that which is greater than a right angle.

Adjacent Angles, are such as have the same vertex, and one common side. The sum of the adjacent angles is always equal to two right angles (13 Eucl. 1.) and therefore, if one of them be acute, the other will be obtuse; and the contrary: whence, if either of them be given, the other is also given, it being the complement of the former to 180°.

Homologous Angles in similar figures are such as retain the same order, reckoning from the first in both figures.

Vertical Angles, are the opposite angles made by two lines cutting or crossing each other. When two lines cut or cross each other, the vertical angles are equal (15 Eucl. 1.)

Alternate Angles are the angles formed by a straight line falling on two parallel straight lines, so that each angle shall have a common leg, but the other legs are on opposite sides of this common leg. These alternate angles are always equal (29 Eucl. 1.)

A Rectilinear or right-lined Angle, is made by straight lines, to distinguish it from the spherical or curvilinear angle.

Angles of Contact, are angles formed
ed by a curve with its tangent, which may be considered as true angles, and should be compared with one another, though not with right lined angles, as being infinitely smaller.

Angle of elevation, in gunnery, is that which the axis of the hollow cylin-
der, or barrel of the gun, makes with a horizontal line. See Elevation.

Angles oblique are those which are greater than right angles.

Spherical Angle is an angle formed by the intersection of two great circles of the sphere. A spherical angle is measured by the arc of a great circle, intercepted between the legs, or the legs produced, whose pole is in the vertex of the angle.

Angle Insular is an angle formed by the intersection of two curves, the one concave and the other convex.

Mixed-line Angle is that comprehended between a right line and a curved line.

Crescent-line Angle is that intercepted between two curved lines meeting each other in one point, in the same plane.

Angle of a semi-circle is that which the diameter of a circle makes with the circumference.

Angle of Incidence is that which the line of direction of a ray of light, &c. makes at the point where it first touches the body it strikes against, with a line erected perpendicular to the surface of that body.

Angle of Interval between two places is that formed by two lines directed from the eye to those places.

Angle of Reflection is the angle intercepted between the line of direction of a body rebounding, after it has struck against another body, and a perpendicular erected at the point of contact.

Angle at the Center, in fortification, is the angle formed at the middle of the polygon, by lines drawn from thence to the points of the two adjacent bastions.

Angle of the Curtain, that which Angle of the Flank, is made by, and contained between the curtain and the flank.

Angle of the Polygon, that which is made by the meeting of the two sides of the polygon, or figure in the center of the bastion. See Fortification.

Angle of the triangle is half the angle of the polygon.

Angle of the bastion, or that which Flanked Angle, is made by the two faces, being the utmost part of the bastion most exposed to the enemy's batteries, frequently called the point of the bastion. See Fortification.

Diminished Angle, only used by some foreign engineers, and more especially the Dutch, is composed of the face of the bastion, and the exterior side of the polygon.

Angle of the shoulder, or that formed Angle of the Gable, by one face, and one flank of the bastion. See Fortification.

Angle of the tenaille, is made by Angle rentrant, two lines rivan, that is, the faces of the two bastions extended till they meet in an angle towards the curtain, and is that which always carries its point towards the outworks. See Fortification.

Angle of the flank exterior, is that which is before the center of the curtain, formed by the prolongation of the faces of the bastion, or by both the rivan lines of defence, intersecting each other on planning a fortification.

Angle of the flank interior, is formed by the flanked line of defence and the curtain; being that point where the line of defence falls upon the curtain.

Angle of the line of defence, is that angle made by the flank, and the line of defence.

Angle of the face, is formed by the angle of the face and the line of defence produced till they intersect each other.

Angle of the base interior, is the half of the figure, which the interior polygon makes with the radius, when they join each other in the center; intersecting the center of the gorges of each bastion.

Angle of the base interior, is an angle formed by lines drawn from the center of the figure, to the angle of the exterior polygon, cutting the center of the gorges of each bastion.

Angle of the gorge, is that angle formed by the prolongation of the curtains, intersecting each other, in the center of the gorge, through which the capital line passes.
Angle of the ditch, is formed before the center of the curtain, by the outward line of the ditch.

Angle of the mole, is that which is made before the curtain where it is intersected.

Flanked Angle. See Angle of the bastion.

Salient Angle, is that angle which points outwards, or towards the country. Such is the angle of the counterscarp before the point of a bastion.

Entering Angle, or an angle pointing inwards, as the salient angle points outwards. Such is the angle of the counterscarp before the curtain.

Angle of the counterscarp, made by two sides of the counterscarp meeting before the center of the curtain.

Angle at the circumference of a circle, is an angle formed by two chords in the circumference of a circle.

Angle of the circumference, is the mixed angle formed by an arch, drawn from one gorge to another.

Re-entering Angle. See Entering Angle.

Angle of the complement of the line of defence, is the angle formed by the intersection of the two complements with each other.

Angles of a battalion, are made by the last men at the extremity of the ranks and files.

Front Angles, the two last men of the front rank.

Rear Angles, the two last men of the rear rank.

Dead Angle, is a re-entering angle, consequently not defended.

Angon, in ancient military history, was a kind of dart of a moderate length, having an iron bearded head and cheeks; in use about the fifth century. This sort of javelin was much used by the French. The iron head of it resembles a fleur-de-lys; and it is the opinion of some writers, that the arms of France are not fleurs-de-lys, but the iron point of the angon or javelin of the ancient French.

Angular, in a general sense, denotes something relating to, or that liath angles.

To animate, in a military sense, is to encourage, to incite, to add fresh impulse to any body of men who are advancing against an enemy, or to prevent them from shamefully abandoning their colours in critical situations. Soldiers may be encouraged and incited to gallant actions not only by words, but by the looks and gestures of the officers, particularly of their commanding one. It is by the latter alone, indeed, that any of these artificial means should be resorted to; for silence, steadiness, and calmness are the peculiar requisites in the characters of subordinate officers. Whatever their private feelings may be, a superior sense of duty should always prevent them from discovering the slightest symptom of personal fear or perturbation. The best effects, however, may be sometimes produced by a sort of electrical shock which is communicated to the soldiery: as, when officers, being themselves animated and full of fire, give a sudden and unexpected utterance to their sentiments; make use of some particular expression by which the national ear is captivated, or by a happy waving of the hand, hat, or sword, cause the most timid to become careless of danger, and keep up the enthusiasm of the bravest. Many battles, both in ancient and modern times, have taken a sudden turn from the most trivial circumstance of this nature. During last war, a large body of French troopers, who landed at St. Lucie, were defeated by a handful of British soldiers who had retired to an eminence called St. Vigie, under the present Sir William Medows. This brave and gallant officer, after having been wounded in his right arm, rallied the 5th regiment of foot in front of the colours, and waving his sword in the left hand, enthusiastically exclaimed, Soldiers! as long as you have a bayonet left to point against the breasts of your enemies, defend these colours!

The French are more susceptible of this species of animation than any other nation. The difference indeed, which is manifest, between French and English valour, requires a different application of these artificial means. English soldiers will always advance with cool, deliberate resolution, provided they are well led on. French soldiers, on the contrary, spring as it were into action with a vanity congenial to the country, and as precipitately shrink from it under circum-
circumstances of discomfiture. During the present war, they have furnished several instances of the power of military animation. The success at Arcoli, to which Bonaparte owes more than half his reputation, was the consequence of a bold and individual exertion, when he matched the standard, and personally led the grenadiers across the bridge. A variety of instances might be enumerated wherein words and gestures have had the most happy result. As far back as the days of Caesar there are examples that stand fresh upon record; and nothing proves more forcibly the influence which a great reputation has upon common minds, than the exclamation which Caesar used when he was crossing a branch of the sea, between Brundusium and Dyrrachium. He embarked by night in the habit of a slave, and lay on the boards like an ordinary passenger. As they were sailing down the river Anius, a violent storm arose, which quite overcame the art of the pilot, who gave orders to put back; but this, Caesar would not permit, who discovering himself, and taking the astonished pilot by the hand, bade him boldly go on, and fear nothing; for, cried he, thus curriest Caesar and Caesar's fortune. "Caesar hic fortunamque ejus."

ANNALS, a species of military history, wherein events are related in the chronological order they happened. They differ from a perfect history, in being only a mere relation of what passes every year, as a journal is of what passes every day.

ANNUNCIADA, an order of military knighthood in Savoy, first instituted by Amadeus I. in the year 1409; their collar was of 15 links, interwoven one with another, and the motto F. E. R. T. signifying fortitudo ejus Rhodum transt. Amadeus VIII. changed the image of St. Maurice, patron of Savoy, which hung at the collar, for that of the Virgin Mary; and instead of the motto above mentioned, substituted the words of the angel's salutation.

ANOLYMPIADES. See OLYMPIAD.

ANSE des Pièces, a French term for the handles of cannon. Those of brass here two—Those of iron seldom any—these handles serve to pass cords, handspikes, or levers, the more easily to move so heavy a body, and are made to represent dolphins, serpents, &c.

ANSPESADE. See LANCECORPORAL.

ANTEMURAILLE, Fr. in the ancient military art, denoted what now the moderns generally call the out-works.

ANTESTATURE, in ancient fortification, signifies an intrenchment of palisades or sacks of earth thrown up in order to dispute the remainder of a piece of ground.

ANTHONY, or Knights of St. Anthony, a military order instituted by Albert, duke of Bavaria, Holland, and Zealand, when he designed to make war against the Turks in 1382. The knights wore a collar of gold made in the form of a hermit's girdle, from which hung a stick like a crutch, with a little bell, as they are represented in St. Anthony's pictures.

APPAREILLES, Fr. are those slopes that lead to the platform of the bastion. See FORTIFICATION.

APPAREILLEUR, Fr. an architect who superintends the workmen in the construction of fortifications, sluices, &c.

APPEAL, might formerly have been made, by the prosecutor or prisoner, from the sentence or jurisdiction of a regimental to a general court-martial. At present no soldier has a right to appeal, except in cases where his immediate subsistence is concerned.

APPEL, Fr. a roll call; a beat of drum for assembling; a challenge.

APPEL, in fencing, a smart beat with your blade on that of your antagonist on the contrary side to that you have engaged, generally accompanied with a stamp of the foot, and used for the purpose of procuring an opening.

APPOINTÉ. This word was applicable to French soldiers only, during the monarchy of France, and meant a man who for his long service and extraordinary bravery received more than common pay. There were likewise instances in which officers were distinguished by being stiled officiers appointés. They were usually rewarded by the king.

The word appointé was originally derived from it being said, that a soldier was appointed among those who were to do some singular act of courage, as by going upon a forlorn hope, &c. &c.

APPOINTMENT, in a military sense, is the pay of the army; it likewise apply
APPLIES to warlike habiliments, accoutrements, &c.

APPREHEND, in a military sense, implies the seizing or confining of any person. According to the articles of war, every person who apprehends a deserter, and attests the fact duly before a magistrate, is entitled to receive twenty shillings.

APPROACHES. All the works are generally so called that are carried on towards a place which is besieged; such as the first, second, and third parallels, the trenches, epaulements with and without trenches, redoubts, places of arms, saps, galleries, and lodgments. See these words more particularly under the head Fortification.

This is the most difficult part of a siege, and where most lives are lost. The ground is disputed inch by inch, and neither gained nor maintained without the loss of men. It is of the utmost importance to make your approaches with great caution, and to secure them as much as possible, that you may not throw away the lives of your soldiers. The besieged neglect nothing to hinder the approaches; the besiegers do everything to carry them on; and on this depends the taking or defending of the place.

The trenches being carried to their glacis, you attack and make yourself master of their covered way, establish a lodgment on the counterscarp, and effect a breach by the sap, or by mines with several chambers, which blow up their intrenchments and fossadges, or small mines, if they have any.

You cover yourselves with gabions, fascines, barrels, or sacks; and if these are wanting, you sink a trench.

You open the counterscarp by saps to make yourself master of it; but, before you open it, you must mine the flanks that defend it. The best attack of the place is the face of the bastion, when by its regularity it permits regular approaches and attacks according to art. If the place be irregular, you must not observe regular approaches, but proceed according to the irregularity of it; observing to humour the ground, which permits you to attack it in such a manner at one place, as would be useless or dangerous at another; so that the engineer who directs the attack ought exactly to know the part he would attack, its proportions, its force and solidity, in the most geometrical manner.

APPROACHES, in a more confined sense, signify attacks.

Counter APPROACHES, are such trenches as are carried on by the besieged, against those of the besiegers.

APPRENTI, Fr. Apprentice.

In France they had apprentices or soldiers among the artillery, who served for less pay than the regular artillery men, until they became perfect in their profession; when they were admitted to such vacancies as occurred in their respective branches.

APRON, in gunnery, a square plate of lead that covers the vent of a cannon, to keep the charge dry, and the vent clean and open.

Their dimensions are as follows, viz. for a 42, 32, and a 24 pounder, 15 inches by 13; for an 18, 12, and a 9 pounder, 12 inches by 10; for a 6, 5, 3, and 1 pounder, 10 inches by 8.

They are tied fast by two strings of white marble, the length of which, for a 42 to a 12 pounder inclusive, is 18 feet, 9 feet each string; for a 9 to a 1 pounder, 12 feet, 6 feet for each.

APPUI—Point d'appui, Fr. any particular given point or body, upon which troops are formed, or by which they are marched in line or column.

Aller à l'APPUI, Fr. to go to the assistance of any body, to second, to back.

Hauteur d'APPUI, Fr. breast-height.

AQUEDUCT, a channel to convey water from one place to another. Aqueducts, in military architecture, are generally made to bring water from a spring or river to a fortress, &c. they are likewise used to carry canals over low grounds, and over brooks or small rivers: they are built with arches like a bridge, only not so wide, and are covered above by an arch, to prevent dust or dirt from being thrown into the water. See Muller's Practical Fortification.

The Romans had aqueducts which extended 100 miles. That of Louis XIV. near Maintenon, which carries the river Bute to Versailles, is 7000 toises long.

ARAIGNÉE, Fr. in fortification. See Gallery.

ARBALET, in the ancient art of war, a cross-bow, made of steel, set in a shaft of wood, with a string and trigger, bent with
with a piece of iron fitted for that purpose, and used to throw bullets, large arrows, darts, &c. Also a mathematical instrument called a Jacob's Staff, to measure the height of the stars upon the horizon.

**ARBALETE à jilet, Fr. a stone bow.**

**ARBALETRIER, Fr. a cross-bow man.**

**ARBALETRIER d'une Galère, Fr. that part of a galley where the crossbowmen were placed during an engagement.**

**ARBORER, Fr. to plant. Arborer Itrondart, to plant the standard.**

**ARC, Fr. a bow; an arch in building.**

**ARCH, in military architecture, is a vault or concave building, in form of a curve, erected to support some heavy structure, or passage.**

**Triumphal Arch, in military history, is a stately erection generally of a semicircular form, adorned with sculpture, inscriptions, &c. in honour of those heroes who have deserved a triumph. For a very treatise on Arches see Mr. Atwood's late publication; and under PARABOLA see Parabolic Arches.**

**ARCHERS, in military history, a kind of militia or soldierly, armed with bows and arrows. They were much used in former times, but are now laid aside, excepting in Turkey, and in some of the eastern countries.**

**ARCHERY, the art of shooting with a bow and arrow. Our ancestors were famous for being the best archers in Europe, and most of our victories in France were the purchase of the long-bow. The statutes made in 33 Hen. VIII. relative to this exercise, are worth perusal. It is forbidden, by statute, to shoot at a standing mark, unless it be for a rover, where the archer is to change his mark at every shot. Any person above 24 years old is also forbidden to shoot with any prick-shaft, or flight, at a mark of eleven score yards or under. 33 Hen. VIII. chap. 9. The former was a provision for making good marksmen at night; the latter for giving strength and means.**

**ARCHITRAVE, the master-beam, or chief supporter, in any part of a subterraneous fortification.**

**AREA, the superficial content of any rampart, or other work of a fortification.**

**ARIGOT, Fr. a fife or flute.**

**ARM, in geography, denotes a branch of the sea, or of a river.**

**ARM is also used figuratively to denote power.**

**To ARM, to take arms, to be provided against an enemy.**

**ARMADA, a Spanish term, signifying a fleet of men of war, applied particularly to that great one fitted out by the Spaniards, with an intention to conquer this island in 1588, and which was defeated by the English fleet, under admirals Lord Howard and Sir Francis Drake.**

**C**

**ARMA-**
ARMADILLA, a Spanish term, signifying a small squadron.

ARMATURA, in ancient military history, signifies the fixed and established military exercise of the Romans, nearly in the sense we use the word exercise. Under this word is understood the throwing of the spear, javelin, shooting with bows and arrows, &c.

Armatura is also an appellation given to the soldiers who were light-armed. Aquinus seems, without reason, to restrain armatura to the tyrants, or young soldiers, in it.

Armatura is also a denomination given to the soldiers in the emperor's retinue.

ARMED, in a general sense, denotes something provided with, or carrying arms.

An Armed body of men, denotes a military detachment, provided with arms and ammunition, ready for an engagement.

Armed, in the sea language. A cross-bar-shot is said to be armed, when some rope-yarn, or the like, is rolled about the end of the iron bar which runs through the shot.

Armed ship, is a vessel taken into the government's service, and equipped by them, in time of war, with artillery, ammunition, and warlike instruments: it is commanded by an officer who has the rank of master and commander in the navy, and upon the same establishment with sloops of war, having a lieutenant, master, purser, surgeon, &c.

ARMÉ, Fr. This word is used among the French to express a body of armed men.

Arme blanche, Fr. This term is used among the French to signify sword or bayonet.

Attaquer à l'Arme blanche, Fr. to attack sword in hand, or with fixed bayonets.

ARMÉE, Fr. See Army.

ARMEMENT, Fr. a levy of troops, equipment of war, either by land or sea.

Armées à l'Epreuve, a French term for armure of polished steel, which was proof against the sword or small arms: but its weight so encumbered the wearer, that modern tacticians have wholly rejected its use.

Armées à la ligère, Fr. light-armed troops, who were employed to attack in small bodies, as opportunity occurred. See Riflemen, &c.

Armes des Pieces de Canon, the French term for the tools used in practical gunnery, as the scoop, rammer, sponge, &c.

ARMET, Fr. a casque or helmet.

ARMIGER, an esquire or armour-bearer, who formerly attended his knight or chieftain in war, combat, or tournament, and who carried his lance, shield, or other weapons with which he fought.

ARMILUSTRIUM, in Roman antiquity, a feast observed among the Roman generals, in which they sacrificed, armed, to the sound of trumpets, and other warlike instruments.

ARMISTICE, a temporary truce, or cessation of arms for a very short space of time only.

ARMORY, a warehouse of arms, or a place where the military habitaments are kept, to be ready for use.

ARMOUR, denotes all such habitaments as serve to defend the body from wounds, especially darts, a sword, a lance, &c. A complete suit of armour formerly consisted of a helmet, a shield, a cuirass, a coat of mail, a gantlet, &c. Now almost universally laid aside.

ARMOUR-BEARER, he that carries the armure of another.

ARMOURER, a person who makes or deals in armour, or arms; also a person who keeps them clean.

ARMS, (Armes, Fr.) in a general sense, signify all kinds of weapons, whether used for offence or defence.

Arms may properly be classed under two specific heads—

Arms of offence, which include musquet, bayonet, sword, pistol, &c.

Arms of defence, which are shields, helmets, coats of mail, or any species of repulsive or impenetrable covering, by which the body of a man is protected.

In a legal sense, arms may extend to anything that a man wears for his own defence, or takes in his hand, and uses in anger, to strike, throw at, or wound another. It is supposed, that the first artificial arms were of wood, and only employed against beasts; and that Belus, the son of Ninrod, was the first that waged war: whence, according to some, cause the appellation belman. Diodorus Siculus.
Similes take Belus to be the same with
Men, who first trained soldiers up to
battle. Arms of stone, and even of
lawn, appear to have been used before
they came to iron and steel. Josephus
assures us, that the patriarch Joseph
first taught the use of iron arms in
Egypt, arming the troops of Pharaoh
with a casque and buckler.

The principal arms of the ancient
Romans were hatchets, scythes, lauces,
swords, and bucklers: the Saxons, &c.
bought in the bulbelt, bow, arrows,
cross-bows, &c. By the ancient laws of
England, every man was obliged to bear
arms, except the judges and clergy.
Under Henry VIII. it was expressly
enacted on all persons to be regularly
instructed even from their tender years,
in the exercise of the arms then in use,
the long bow and arrows, and to be
armed with a certain number of
them.

By the common law, it is an offence
for persons to go or ride armed with
dangerous weapons; but gentlemen, both
in and out of the army, may wear com-
mon armour, according to their quality.
The king may prohibit force of arms,
and punish offenders according to law;
and herein every subject is bound to be
serving. Stat. 7. Edward I. None shall
come with force and arms before the
king’s justices, or ride armed in array
of the peace, on pain to forfeit their
arms, and to suffer imprisonment,
t. 2 Edward III. c. 3. The importa-
tion of arms and ammunition is prohib-
it by 1 Jac. II. c. 8, and by Wil-
jamin and Mary, stat. 2. c. 2. So like-
wise arms, &c. shipped after prohibi-
tions, are forfeited, by 29 Geo. I.
c. 16. sec. 2.

Arms of parade, or courtesy, were
those used in the ancient justs and tour-
maments, which were commonly unshod
lances, swords without edges or point,
wooden swords, and even canes.

Balls of Axies, or Bell Tents, a kind
of tents in the shape of a cone, where
the company’s arms are lodged in the
field. They are generally painted with
the colour of the livery of the regiment,
and the king’s arms in front.

Pass of Axies, a kind of combat,
when anciently one or more cavaliers
undertook to defend a pass against all
attacks.

Place of Arms. See Fortification.
Stand of Arms, a complete set of
arms for one soldier.

Arms, in artillery are the two ends
of an axletree. See Axletree, under the
word Carriage.

Fire-Arms, are great guns, firelocks,
carbinets, guns and pistols; or any other
machine discharged by inflamed
powder.

ARMY, a large number of soldiers,
consisting of artillery, foot, horse, dra-
goons, and husseys or light horse, com-
pletely armed, and provided with engi-
neers, a train of artillery, ammunition,
provisions, commissariat, forage, &c.
and under the command of one general,
having lieutenant-generals, major-gene-
raI, brigadier-generals, colonels, lieu-
tenant-colonels, majors, captains, and
subalterns. An army is composed of
brigades, regiments, battalions, and
squadrons, and is generally divided into
three or more corps, and formed into
three lines; the first of which is called
the front line, a part of which forms
the van guard; the second, the main
body; and the third, the rear guard, or
corps of reserve. The center of each
line is generally possessed by the foot;
the cavalry form the right and left
wings of each line; and sometimes a
squadron of horse is posted in the inter-
vals between the battalions. When an
army is drawn up in order of battle,
the horse are frequently placed at five
feet from each other, and the foot at
three. In each line the battalions are
distant from each other about 180 feet,
which is nearly equal to the extent of
their front: and the same rule holds
good of the squadrons, which have
about 300 feet distance, being the ex-
tent of their own front. These inter-
vals are left for the squadrons and bat-
talions of the second line to range
themselves against the intervals of the
first, that both may more readily march
through those spaces to the enemy.
The front line is generally about 300
feet from the center line; and the cen-
ter line as much from the rear, or corps
of reserve, that there may be sufficient
room to rally when the squadrons or
battalions are broken. Our armies an-
ciently were a sort of militia, composed
chiefly of the vassals and tenants of the
lords. When each company had served
the number of days or months enjoined
C2 by
by their tenure, or the customs of the fees they held, they returned home.

Armies in general are distinguished by the following appellations—

A covering army.
A blockading army.
An army of observation.
An army of reserve.
A flying army.

An army is said to cover a place when it lies encamped or in cantonments for the protection of the different passes which lead to a principal object of defence.

An army is said to blockade a place, when, being well provided with heavy ordnance and other warlike means, it is employed to invest a town for the direct and immediate purpose of reducing it by assault or famine.

An Army of observation is so called because by its advanced positions and desultory movements it is constantly employed in watching the army.

An Army of reserve may not improperly be called a general depot of effective service. In cases of emergency the whole or detached parts of an army of reserve are generally employed to recover a lost day or to secure a victory. It is likewise sometimes made use of for the double purpose of secretly increasing the number of active forces, and rendering the aid necessary according to the exigency of the moment, and of deceiving the enemy with respect to its real strength.

Flying Army, a strong body of horse and foot, commanded for the most part by a lieutenant-general, which is always in motion, both to cover its own garrisons, and to keep the enemy in continual alarm.

A naval or sea Army, is a number of ships of war, equipped and manned with sailors, mariners, and marines, under the command of an admiral, with the requisite inferior officers under him.

ARNAUTS, Turkish light cavalry, whose only weapon was a sabre very much curved. Some are in the Russian service.

ARQUEBUSIE a Croc, an old piece of fire-arm, resembling a musket, but which is supported on a rest by a hook of iron, fastened to the barrel. It is longer than a musket, and of larger calibre, and was formerly used to fire through the loop-holes of antique fortifications.

ARQUEBUSIER, a French term, formerly applied to all the soldiery who fought with fire-arms, whether cavalry or infantry.

ARRAY, order of battle. See Battle Array.

ARRAYERS, officers who anciently had the charge of seeing the soldiers duly appointed in their armour.

ARREARS, in the army, were the difference between the full pay and subsistence of each officer, which was directed to be paid once a year by the agent. See PAY.

ARREST, a French phrase, similar in its import to the Latin word retinaculum. It consists in a small piece of steel or iron, which was formerly used in the construction of fire-arms, to prevent the piece from going off. Ce pistolet est en arrêt is a familiar phrase among military men in France. This pistol is in arrest, or is stopped.

ARREST, is the exercise of that part of military jurisdiction, by which an officer is noticed for misconduct, or put into a situation to prepare for his trial by a general court-martial.

ARRESTE of the gladius, is the junction of the talus which is formed at all the angles.

ARRIERE, Fr. the rear.

ARRIERE Ban, Fr. See Ban.

ARRIERE-garde, Fr. the rear-guard. En Arriere—marche! Fr. to the rear—march!

ARRONDISSEMENT, Fr. district.

ARROW, a missive weapon of offence, slender and pointed, made to be shot with a bow.

ARROW. See Fortification.

ARSENAL, in a large and well fortified town, is a large and spacious building, in which are deposited all kinds of arms, and other warlike implements, such as cannon, mortars, howitzers, small arms, and every other kind of warlike engines and instruments of death.

ART. Military art may be divided into two principal branches. The first branch relates to the order and arrangement which must be observed in the management of an army, when it is to fight, to march, or to be encamped. This
The branch derives its appellation from tactics, which signifies order.

The same appellation belongs to the other branch of military art, and includes the composition and the application of warlike machines.

ARTICLES OF WAR, are known rules and regulations for the better government of the army in the dominions of Great Britain and Ireland, dominions beyond the seas, and foreign parts dependent upon Great Britain. They may be altered and enlarged at the pleasure of the king. And in certain cases extend to civilians—as when by proclamation any place shall be put under martial law; or when people follow a camp or army for the sale of merchandise, or serve in any menial capacity.

It is ordained, that the articles of war shall be read in the circle of each regiment belonging to the British army every month, or oftener if the commanding officer thinks proper. A recruit or soldier is not liable to be tried by a military tribunal, unless it can be proved that the articles of war have been duly read to him.

ARTIFICE, among the French, is understood as comprehending every thing which enters the composition of fire-works; as the sulphur, saltpetre, charcoal, &c. See FIRE-WORKS.

ARTIFICER or ARTIFICER, he who makes fire-works, or works in the artillery laboratory, who prepares the fuses, bombs, grenades, &c. It is also applied to the military smiths, collar-makers, &c. &c. and to a particular corps.

ARTILLERY, in a general sense, signifies all sorts of great guns or cannon, mortars, howitzers, petards, and the like; together with all the apparatus and stores thereto belonging, which are not only taken into the field, but likewise to sieges, and made use of both to attack and defend fortified places. See ORDNANCE.

ARTILLERY, in a particular sense, signifies the science of artillery or gunnery, which art includes a knowledge of surveying, levelling; also that of geometry, trigonometry, conic sections, laws of motion, mechanics, fortification, and projectiles.

The TRAIN of ARTILLERY consists in an unlimited number of pieces of ordnance, such as 24 pounders, 18 pounders, 12, 9, 6; and 3 pounders; mortars from 13 to 8 inches diameter; besides royals and cohornes; howitzers of every denomination, mounted on their proper carriages and beds, &c.

There is moreover attached to the train a sufficient quantity of horses, spare carriages, spare mortar beds, block carriages, limbers, wagons for ammunition and stores, shells, round and grape shot, bullets, powder, cartridges, port fires, intrenching tools, artificers tools, miners tools, gins, capstans, forges, small stores, laboratory stores, pontoons, pontoon carriages, with their requisites; tumbrels, aprons of lead, budge barrels, chevaux de frise, pallisades, platforms, chandeliers, blinds, drag-ropes, flints, harness, powder measures, fuze engines, fuzes, tents, &c. The train of artillery is, or should be, divided into brigades, to which belong not only the officers of the regiments of artillery, but even the civil list, such as comptrollers, commissaries of stores, clerks of stores, artificers of all denominations, conductors, store-keepers, wagon masters, drivers, &c.

The increase of artillery clearly demonstrates its great utility; for in the year 1500, an army of 50,000 men had only 40 pieces of cannon in the field; and in the year 1757, the same number of troops brought 200 pieces into the field, including mortars and howitzers.

At the battle of Jemappes, which was fought between the French and Austrians on the 6th of November, 1799, the latter had 120 pieces of cannon disposed along the heights of Framery, whilst their effective force in men did not exceed 17000. The French on this occasion brought nearly the same quantity of ordnance, some indeed of extraordinary calibre, but their strength in men was considerably more formidable.

A Brigade of ARTILLERY generally consists of 8 or 10 pieces of cannon, with all the machinery, and officers to conduct them, and all the necessary apparatus thereto belonging.

The Park of ARTILLERY is that place appointed by the general of an army, to encamp the train of artillery, apparatus, ammunition, as well as the battalions of the artillery, appointed for its service and defence. The figure of
the park of artillery, is that of a parallelogram, unless the situation of the ground renders another necessary.

The park of artillery is generally placed in the center of the second line of encampment, and sometimes in the rear line, or corps of reserve. In both places the muzzles of the guns are in a line with the fronts of the serjeants tents of the regiments of artillery and infantry. Some generals choose to place the park about 300 paces before the center of the front line of the army. But let the situation be where it will, the manner of forming the park is almost every where the same, except that some artillery officers differ in the disposition of the carriages; others again divide the equipage as well as the guns into brigades, placing the first in the front line, the second in the next, and so on. However, the best, in our humble opinion, and the most approved method, is to divide the whole into brigades, placing the guns of the first to the right of the front line, and their ammunition behind them, in one or more lines. The different brigades should be all numbered, as well as every wagon belonging to them. Example, 1st brigade, front line, No. 1, 2, &c. 1st brigade, 2d line, No. 1, 2, &c. 2d brigade, front line, No. 1, 2, &c. and so of all the rest. This method will prevent confusion in the forming and breaking up of the park, as also on a march: besides, according to the numbers, the stores therein contained are known.

Artillery, in a military acceptance of the term, signifies every species of light or heavy ordnance. It is classed under specific heads; the most important of which are—

Field Artillery, which includes every requisite to forward the operations of an army, or of any part of an army acting offensively or defensively in the field. Field artillery may be divided into two distinct classes—Field Artillery, properly so called, and horse artillery.

Encampment of a Regiment of Artillery. Regiments of artillery are always encamped, half on the right, and half on the left of the park. The company of bombardiers (when they are formed into companies, which is the case in almost every nation excepting England) always takes the right of the whole, and the lieutenant colonel's company the left; next to the bombardiers, the colonels, the majors, &c. so that the two youngest are next but one to the center or park: the two companies next to the park, are the miners on the right, and the artificers on the left.

In the rear of, and 36 feet from the park, are encamped the civil list, all in one line.

The breadth between the front tent-pole of one company, and that of another, called the streets, is 36 feet to each interval.

From the front pole of officers' tent of the quarter-guard, or guard of the army, to the center of the bells of arms of ditto

To the parade of the quarter-guard

To the first line of the regimental parade

To the center of the bells of arms

From thence to the front poles of serjeants tents

For pitching 12 tents of artillery, with their proper intervals, at 9 feet each

From the rear of companies' tents, to the front of the subalterns' tents

From the front of the subalterns to that of the captains

From the front of the captains to that of the field officers

From the front of the field officers to that of the colonels

From the front of the colonels to that of the staff officers

From the front of the staff officers to the front row of båtmens tents

From thence to the first row of pickets for horses

From thence to the second row of båtmens tents

From thence to the front of the grand sutler's tent

From thence to the center of the kitchens

From
From thence to the front of } \{ 45
part-outter's tents
From thence to the center of } \{ 45
the belts of arms of the rear-
guard
---
Total depth 789
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The army guard is in the front of the park, opposite the alarm-guns, in a line with the artillery quarter-guards, that are placed on the right and left of the artillery companies.

The belts of arms front the poles of marquets tents.

The colours are placed in the center of the front line of guns, in the interval of the two alarm-guns, in a line with the belts of arms of the companies.

The lieutenant colonels and majors tents from the centers of the second streets from the right and left of the regiment.

The colonel's tent is in a line with the colours and guard of the army, facing the same.

The staff officers front the centers of the second streets, on the right and left of the angles of the park.

The batmen's tents front towards their horses.

The rear guard fronts outwards. The front poles are in a line with the center of the belts of arms, and each is 18 feet distant. The parade of the rear guard is 12 feet from the belts of arms.

In the rear of the rear guard, and 80 feet distant from their parade, the artillery horses and drivers tents are placed, as two or more lines, parallel with the line of guns, extending from the right and left of the whole.

It sometimes happens, that a very large train of artillery is in the field, with two or more regiments: in that case the oldest takes the right of the park; the next oldest the left, and the youngest the center: the center or grand street is 65 feet broad, opposite to which the tent of the commanding officer is placed. In the center of this street, the colours are placed in a line with the belts of arms, and the artillery quarter guard is in the front of the colours at the same distance as before mentioned.

Regiment of Artillery. The corps of artillery, with all its dependencies, is, as it were, the general instrument of the army, and without it nothing can be done. It is impossible to attack fortified places, or to defend them, without artillery; and an army in the field, which wants artillery, can never make head against one that is well provided with it. For this reason it is, that at all times sovereigns have taken great care to provide proper officers of learning and capacity to govern, repair and keep in order, this essential part of military force.

The strength of a regiment of artillery depends upon the choice of the prince, the quantity of troops he maintains, and more especially on the situation of the country, number of fortifications, and foreign establishments to be defended. It has always been a prevailing custom, to regulate the corps of artillery according to the French method; but, since the celebrated king of Prussia fixed his regiments of artillery on another plan, we conceive it proper in this place first to explain our own method, and afterwards that of the king of Prussia; leaving the candid reader to judge for himself, as to the superiority of either.

In 1628, and probably long before, the artillery had sundry privileges, from which the rest of the army were excluded, viz. of having the first rank and the best quarters; neither could any carriage or waggon presume to march before theirs, except that belonging to the treasurer.

In 1705, we find the first mention made of the royal artillery, before that time it was only called the train of artillery. It then consisted only of 4 companies, under the command of General Borgard. From that period it has gradually increased to 6 battalions, each battalion consisting of 10 companies, (exclusive of 1 invalid battalion), which is equal in its establishment with the other battalions, but confined in its duty to the home garrisons, or Jersey, Guernsey, and Bermuda. It is commanded by a colonel commandant, 1 colonel en second, 2 lieutenant colonels, 1 major, who have no companies. Each company in time of war generally consists of 120 men, commanded by 1 captain, 1 captain lieutenant, 2 first, and 1 second
cond lieutenant. In time of peace the
companies are reduced to 50 men each.
When Frederick the second, king of
Prussia, came to the crown, he found
the army in a very good condition, ex-
cepting the corps of artillery and en-
gineers, which consisted chiefly of mecha-
nics and artizans, little esteemed by the
rest of the army, and the officers with-
out commissions. His majesty, know-
ing how necessary it was to have a good
corps of artillery and engineers, and
how impossible it was to secure that im-
portant object without having officers
learned in every branch of military
mathematics, immediately drafted
all the illiterate officers into the garri-
son regiments, supplying their places
with gentlemen of examined capacity;
and giving them all commissions, with
rank equal to that of the officers of the
guards, and an extraordinary pay. This
method of proceeding soon established
the honour and reputation of that noble
corps on a very respectable footing, in-
duced the nobility and men of rank
(provided they had capacity) to engage
in that service sooner than elsewhere,
which has brought it to that summit of
high renown it has since enjoyed.

The Prussian army consists of 12 bat-
talions, 8 for the field, and 4 for gar-
rison. Each battalion has 12 compa-
nies, namely, 1 company of bombard-
diers, 1 of miners, 1 of artificers, and
9 of artillery. The first, or bombard-
dier companies, are composed of 1 cap-
tain, 2 lieutenants, 3 upper and 6 under
fire-workers, 2 sergeants, 4 corporals,
2 drummers, and 60 bombardiers. The
miners have the same commissioned of-
fers, with 3 sergeants, 6 corporals, 2
drummers, 33 miners, and 33 suppers.
The artificers have the same officers
and non-commissioned officers as the
miners, with 30 artificers and 60 ponto-
eers. All the artillery companies have
3 commissioned and 6 non-commission-
ated officers, 2 drummers, and 60 artill-
erists. The colonel, lieutenant colonel,
and major's companies, have each a
captain lieutenant; and each battalion
has further, 1 chaplain, 1 auditor, 1 ad-
jutant, 1 quarter-master, 1 doctor, 3
surgeons, 1 sergeant-major, 1 drum-major,
6 musicians, and 1 provost.

March of the Artillery. The
marches of the artillery are, of all the
operations of war, the most delicate;
because they must not only be directed
on the object you have in view, but ac-
cording the movements the enemy
make. Armies generally march in 3
columns, the center column of which is
the artillery: should the army march
in more columns, the artillery and heavy
baggage march nevertheless in one or
more of the center columns; the situ-
ation of the enemy determines this. If
they are far from the enemy, the bag-
gage and ammunition go before or be-
hind, or are sent by a particular road;
an army in such a case cannot march in
too many columns. But should the
march be towards the enemy, the bag-
gage must absolutely be all in the rear,
and the whole artillery form the center
column, except some brigades, one of
which marches at the head of each co-

column, with guns loaded and burning
matches, preceded by a detachment for
their safety. The French almost in-
variably place their baggage in the center.

Suppose the enemy's army in a con-
tdition to march towards the heads of
your columns: the best disposition for
the march is in 3 columns only, that
of the center for the artillery; for it is
then easy to form it in order of bat-
tle. Hence it is equally commodious
for each brigade of artillery to plant
itself at the head of the troops, in
the place marked for it, in such a man-
er, that the whole disposition being
understood, and well executed, the line
of battle may be quickly formed in an
open country, and in the presence of
any enemy, without risquing a surprise;
which, by this method the artillery will
always be in a condition to act as soon
as the troops, provided it march in
brigades.

If your march should be through a
country full of deiles, some dragoons
must march at the head of the columns,
followed by a detachment of grenadiers,
and a brigade of artillery; cannon being
absolutely necessary to obstruct the
enemy's forming into order of battle.

When you decamp in the face of the
enemy, you must give most attention to
your rear guard. On such occasions,
all the baggage, ammunition, provi-
sions, and artillery, march before the
troops; your best grenadiers, best ca-
valry, some good brigades of infantry,
together.
together with some brigades of artillery, form the rear guard. Cannon is of minute use for a rear guard, when you are obliged to pass a defile, or a river, and should be placed at the entry or exit of the defile, on an eminence, if there be one, or on any other place, from whence the ground can be discovered, through which the enemy must march to attack the rear guard.

A detachment of pioneers, with tools, must always march at the head of the artillery, and of each column of equipage of baggage.

1. The enemy be encamped on the right flanks of the march, the artillery, &c. should march to the left of the troops, and vice versa. Should the enemy appear in motion, the troops front that way by wheeling to the right or left by divisions; and the artillery, which marches in a line with the columns, passes through their intervals, and draws up at the head of the front line, which is formed of the column that flanked nearest the enemy; taking care at the same time that the baggage be well covered during the action.

Though we have said armies generally march in 3 columns, yet where the country will allow it, it is better to march in a greater number; and let that number be what it will, the artillery must form the center columns.

Line of March of Artillery. 1. A guard of the army; the strength of which depends on the commander in chief.

2. The companies of miners (excepting a detachment from each, dispersed in various places, to mend the roads) with tumbrels of tools, drawn by 2 horses, assisted by pioneers.

3. The brigades of artillery’s front guard, with four light 6 pounders loaded, and matches burning.

4. The kettle-drums by 4 horses, and 2 trumpeters on horseback.

5. The flag-gun, drawn by 12 horses, and ten 12 pounders more, by 4 horses each.

6. Twenty wagons with stores for the said guns, and 1 spare one, by 4 horses each.

7. All the pontoons, with the wagons thereto belonging.

8. Eight 9 pounders, by 3 horses each.

9. Fifteen wagons with stores for said guns, drawn by 4 horses each, and 2 spare ones.

10. Gins and capstans, with their proper workmen, 3 wagons, with 2 horses each.

11. A forge on four wheels, and 1 wagon, 4 horses each.

12. Twelve heavy 24 pounders, by 16 horses each.

13. Sixteen wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones, by 4 horses each.

14. A wagon with tools, and pioneers to mend the roads.

15. Nine light 24 pounders, by 8 horses each.

16. Twelve wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones, by 4 horses each.

17. A forge and wagon, by 4 horses each.

18. Nine 24 pounders, by 8 horses each.

19. Twelve wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.

20. Twelve 12 pounders, by 8 horses each.

21. Sixteen wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.

22. Sixteen 5-8 inch mortars, by 2 horses each.

23. Twenty-five wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.

24. Ten 8-inch mortars, by 4 horses each.

25. Twenty wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.

26. Six 10-inch howitzers, by 6 horses each.

27. Twenty wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.

28. A wagon with tools, and men to mend the roads.

29. A forge and wagon, by 4 horses each.

30. Ten 8-inch mortars, by 4 horses each.

31. Twenty wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one.

32. Sixteen 12-inch mortars, by 8 horses each.

33. Thirty wagons with stores for ditto, and two spare ones.

34. Eight 18-inch stone mortars, by 10 horses each.

35. Sixteen wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one.

36. Eight 9 pounders, by 3 horses each.
37. Sixteen wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one.
38. Twenty 6 pounders, by 2 horses each.
39. Twenty wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one.
40. Two sling wagons, and 2 truck-carriages, 4 horses each.
41. Twenty 3 pounders, by 1 horse each.
42. Ten wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one.
43. A wagon with tools, &c.
44. A forge and wagon, by 4 horses each.
45. Twelve 2 and 1 pounders, by 1 horse each.
46. Six wagons with stores for ditto.
47. Sixteen 6 pounders, by 2 horses each.
48. Ten wagons with stores for ditto.
49. Twenty spare carriages, for various calibres.
50. Eighteen ditto.
51. Fifty spare limbers.
52. Ten 18 pounders, by 6 horses each.
53. Twenty wagons with stores for ditto, and 2 spare ones.
54. Twenty wagons, with ammunition and stores.
55. Two 12 pounders, by 4 horses each.
56. Four wagons with stores for ditto.
57. Fifty wagons with stores.
58. A wagon with tools, and men to mend the roads.
59. A forge and wagon, by 4 horses each.
60. A hundred wagons with stores, and 4 spare ones.
61. Four 2 and 1 pounders, by 1 horse each.
62. A hundred wagons with stores, and 3 spare ones.
63. Two hundred wagons, and 2 spare ones.
64. Two hundred and fourteen wagons belonging to the artillery baggage, some with 4, 3, and 2 horses each.
65. The artillery rear guard.
66. The rear guard from the army.

Officers of Artillery. The master general of the ordnance, who is commander in chief of the artillery, is entrusted with one of the most laborious employments, both in war and peace, requiring the greatest ability, application, and experience. The officers in general should be great mathematicians and engineers, should know all the powers of artillery; the attack and defence of fortified places; in a word, every thing which appertains to that very important corps.

Artillery Company, a band of infantry, consisting of 600 men, making part of the militia, or city guard of London.

Artilleur, Fr. an officer belonging to the French service, who was formerly appointed by, and acted immediately under the master general of the ordnance.

Artiller, Fr. a man who works on pieces of ordnance as a founder; or one who serves them in action.

Arx, in the ancient military art, a fort, castle, &c. for the defence of a place.

Arzegges, Fr. batons or canes with iron at both ends. They were carried by the Estradiots or Albanian cavaliers who served in France under Charles VIII. and Louis XII.

Asappes, or Azeapes, auxiliary troops which are raised among the Christians subject to the Turkish empire. These troops are generally placed in the front to receive the first shock of the enemy.

Ascent. See Gunner.

Aspect, is the view or profile of land or coast, and contains the figure or representation of the borders of any particular part of the sea. These figures and representations may be found in all the ruttiere or directories for the sea coast. The Italians call them demonstratione. By means of this knowledge you may ascertain whether the land round the shore be high; if the coast itself be steep or sloping; bent in the form of an arc, or extended in straight lines; round at the top, or rising to a point. Every thing, in a word, is brought in a correct state before the eye, as far as regards harbours, bogs, gulphs, adjacent churches, trees, windmills, &c. &c.

A menacing Aspect. An army is said to hold a menacing aspect, when by advanced movements or positions it gives the opposing enemy cause to apprehend offensive operations.

A military Aspect. A country is said to
to have a military aspect, when its general situation presents appropriate obstacles or facilities for an army acting on the offensive or defensive.

An imposing Aspect. An army is said to have an imposing aspect, when it appears stronger than it really is. This appearance is often assumed for the purpose of deceiving an enemy, and may not improperly be considered as a principal \textit{ruse de guerre}, or feint in war.

ASPIC, Fr. a piece of ordnance which carries a 12 pound shot. The piece itself weighs 4250 pounds.

ASSAILLIR, Fr. to attack; to assail. This old French term applies equally to bodies of men and to individuals.

ASSAULT; a furious effort to carry a fortified post, camp, or fortress, where the assailants do not screen themselves by any works. While an assault during a siege continues, the batteries cease, for fear of killing their own men. An assault is sometimes made by the regiments that guard the trenches of a siege, sustained by detachments from the army.

To give an Assault, is to attack any post, &c.

To repulse an Assault, to cause the assailants to retreat, to beat them back.

To carry by Assault, to gain a post by storm, &c.

ASSAUT, Fr. See Assault.

ASSEMBLEE, Fr. the assembling together of an army; also a call by beat of drum. See Assembly.

ASSEMBLY, the second beating of the drum before a march; at which the men strike their tents, if encamped, roll them up, and stand to arms. See Drum.

ASSESSMENT, in a military sense, signifies a certain rate which is paid by the county treasurer to the receiver general of the land-tax, to indemnify any place for not having raised the militia; which sum is to be paid by the receiver general into the exchequer. The sum to be assessed is five pounds for each man, where no annual certificate of the state of the militia has been transmitted to the clerk of the peace; if not paid before June yearly it may be levied on the parish officers. Such assessment, where there is no county rate, is to be raised as the poor's rate.

ASSIEGER, Fr. to besiege.

ASSIETTE, Fr. the immediate site or position of a camp, &c.

ASSIGNMENT, according to Dr. Johnson, appropriation of one thing to another thing or person. In a military sense, assignment signifies a public document, by which colonels of regiments become entitled to certain allowances for the clothing of their several corps.

According to the regulation for the clothing and appointments of the British army, dated 22d April, 1803, the period of assignment, extending for two years in the cavalry, and for one year in the infantry, is to commence on the 25th December, 1803; and the future annual and biennial assignments are in like manner to commence on the 25th December in succeeding years.

The right of assigning was directed to be on the 25th of April, upon which day the colonels of corps were to be entitled to make an assignment for the period commencing the 25th December, 1803, and on which they and their representatives were to have a vested interest therein. In future years also, the 25th April preceding the commencement of the new assignment, is to be the day on which the colonel's title to such assignment shall become a vested interest.

This article is well worth the attention of every new appointed colonel of a corps, and equally so of his agent; for by supposing himself entitled to the assignment, without a reference to the exact period of the vacancy, the colonel may be led into an imaginary calculation of profits on the off-reckonings, and the agent be exposed to much unnecessary trouble. For form of assignment, see Regimental Companion.

ASSOCIATION, any number of men embodied in arms for mutual defence in their district, and to preserve the public tranquility therein, against foreign or domestic enemies.

ASTRAGAL. See Cannon.

To ATTACH, to place, to appoint. Officers and non-commissioned officers are said to be attached to the respective army, regiment, battalion, troop, or company with which they are instructed to act.

ATTACHE, Fr. the seal and signature of the colonel-general in the old French service, which were affixed to
the commissions of officers after they had been duly examined.

The ratification of military appointments in this manner was attended with a trifling expense to each individual, which became the perquisite of the colonel's secretary.

ATTACK, any general assault, or onset, that is given to gain a post, or break a body of troops.

ATTACK of a siege, is a furious assault made by the besiegers by means of trenches, galleries, saps, breaches, or mines, &c. by storming any part of the front attack. Sometimes two attacks are carried on at the same time, between which a communication must be made. See SIEGE.

False Attacks are never carried on with that vigour and briskness that the others are; the design of them being to favour the true attack, by amusing the enemy, and by obliging the garrison to do a greater duty in dividing their forces, that the true attack may be more successful.

Regular Attack, is that which is carried on in form, according to the rules of art. See SIEGE.

To Attack in front or flank, in fortification, means to attack the salient angle, or both sides of the bastion.

This phrase is familiarly used with respect to bodies of men which attack each other in a military way.

ATTACK and Defence. A part of the drill for recruits learning the sword exercise, which is commenced with the recruit stationary on horseback, the teacher riding round him, striking at different parts as openings appear, and instructing the recruit how to ward his several attacks; it is next executed in a walk, and, as the learner becomes more perfect, in speed; in the latter under the idea of a pursuit. The attack and defence in line and in speed form the concluding part of the sword exercise when practised at a review of cavalry. It is to be observed, that although denominated in speed, yet when practising, or at a review, the pace of the horse ought not to exceed three quarters speed.

ATTENTION! a cautionary word used in the British service as a preparative to any particular exercise or manœuvre. Garde-a-vous, which is pronounced Gar-ə-vous, has the same significance in the French service.

ATTESTATION, a certificate made by some justice of the peace within four days after the enlistment of a recruit. This certificate is to bear testimony, that the said recruit has been brought before him in conformity to the 55th clause of the mutiny act, and has declared his assent or dissent to such enlistment; and, if according to the said act he shall have been, and is duly enlisted, that the proper oaths have been administered to him by the said magistrate, and that the 2d and 6th sections of the articles of war against mutiny and desertion have been read to the said recruit.

ATILT, in the attitude of thrusting with a spear, &c. as was formerly the case in tournaments, &c.

AVANT, Fr. foremost, most advanced toward the enemy, as Avant-chemin-courant, Fr. the advanced covert-way which is made at the foot of the-glacis to oppose the approaches of an enemy.

Avant-duc, Fr. the pile-work which is formed by a number of young trees on the edge or entrance of a river. They are driven into the ground with battering rams or strong pieces of iron, to form a level floor, by means of strong planks being nailed upon it, which serve for the foundation of a bridge. Boats are placed wherever the avant-duc terminates. The avant-duc is had recourse to when the river is so broad that there are not boats sufficient to make a bridge across. Avant-duc are made on each side of the river.

Avant-fosse, Fr. the ditch of the counterscarp next to the country. It is dug at the foot of the glacis. See FORTIFICATION.

Avant-garde. See VAN GUARD.

Avant-train, Fr. The limbers of a field piece, on which are placed two boxes containing ammunition enough for immediate service.

AUDITOR, the person who audits regimental or other military accounts. He is generally a field officer.

AVENUE, in fortification, is any kind of opening or inlet into a fort, bastion, or out-work.

AUGET, or AUGETTE, Fr. A wooden pipe which contains the powder by which a mine is set fire to.

AULNE
ALLNE de Paris, a French measure, containing 4 1/2 inches, used to measure sand-bags.

AUTHORITY, in a general acceptance of the term, signifies a right to command, and a consequent right to be obeyed. The King of Great Britain has, by the constitution of the land, a perpetual inherent right to exercise military authority without control, as far as it regards the army. His Majesty may appoint or dismiss officers at his pleasure.

AUXILIARY. Foreign or subsidiary troops which are furnished to a belligerent power in consequence of a treaty of alliance, or for pecuniary considerations. Of the latter description may be considered the Swiss soldiers who formerly served in France, and the Hessians who were employed by Great-Britain.

AWARD, the sentence or determination of a military court.

AXLE-TREE, a transverse beam supporting a carriage, and on the ends of which the wheels revolve.

BACK-STEP, the retrograde movement of a man or body of men without changing front.

BACKWARDS, a technical word made use of in the British service to express the retrograde movement of troops from line into column, and vice versa. See WHEEL.

BAGGAGE, in military affairs, signifies the clothes, tents, utensils of divers sorts, and provisions, &c., belonging to an army.

BAGGAGE-Waggons. See Waggons.

BAGPIPE, the name of a well-known warlike instrument, of the wind kind, greatly used by the Scotch regiments, and sometimes by the Irish. Bagpipes are supposed to have been introduced by the Danes: but we are of opinion that they are much older, as there is in Rome a most beautiful bas-relief, a piece of Grecian sculpture of the highest antiquity, which represents a bag-piper playing on his instrument exactly like a modern highlander. The Greeks had also an instrument composed of a pipe and blown-up skin. The Romans, in all probability, borrowed it from them. The Italians still use it under the names of pica and corna-musa. The bagpipe has been a favorite instrument among the Scots, and has two varieties: the one with long pipes, and sounded with the mouth; the other with short pipes, played on with the fingers: the first is the loudest and most ear-piercing of all wax, is the genuine highland pipe, and is well suited to the warlike genius of that people. It formerly raised their courage to battle, alarmed them when secure, and collected them when scattered; solaced them in their long and painful marches, and in times of peace kept up the memory of the gallantry of their ancestors, by tunes composed after signal victories.

BAGS, in military employments, are used on many occasions: as,

Sand-Bags, generally 16 inches diameter, and 30 high, filled with earth or sand to repair breaches, and the embrasures of batteries, when damaged by the enemies fire, or by the blast of the guns. Sometimes they are made less, and placed three together, upon the parapets, for the men to fire through.

Earth-Bags, containing about a cubic foot of earth, are used to raise a parapet in haste, or to repair one, that is beaten down. They are only used when the ground is rocky, and does not afford earth enough to carry on the approaches.

BAGUETTES, Fr. drumsticks; they also signify the switches with which soldiers were formerly punished in the French service: as passer en baguettes, to run the gauntlet.

BALANCE, Fr. a term used in the French artillery to express a machine in which stones and ammunition are weighed.

BALL, in the military art, comprehends all sorts of balls and bullets for fire-arms, from the cannon to the pistol.
**Cannon-Balls** are of iron, and musket and pistol balls are of lead. Cannon-balls are always distinguished by their respective calibres, thus:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Calibre</th>
<th>Diameter of Ball (inches)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>6,684</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>6,105</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>5,547</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>5,040</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4,403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>4,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2,423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1,923</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fire-Balls, of which there are various sorts, used for various purposes. Their composition is made powder 2, saltpetre 12, sulphur 1, rosin 1, turpentine 24. Sometimes they are made of an iron shell, sometimes a stone, filled and covered with various coats of the above composition, till it conglomerates to a proper size, the last coat being of grained powder.

But the best sort in our opinion, is to take thick brown paper, and make a shell the size of the mortar, and fill it with a composition of an equal quantity of sulphur, pitch, rosin, and unblended powder, which being well mixed, and put in warm, will give a clear fire, and burn a considerable time.

When they are intended to set fire to magazines, buildings, &c., the composition must be made powder 10, saltpetre 2, sulphur 4, and rosin 1; or rather, made powder 48, saltpetre 32, sulphur 16, rosin 4, steel or iron filings 2, fir-tree sawdust boiled in saltpetre ley 2, birch-wood charcoal 1, well rammed into a shell for that purpose, having various holes filled with small barrels, loaded with musket-balls; and lastly, the whole immerged in melted pitch, rosin, and turpentine oil.

Smoke-Balls are prepared as above, with this difference, that they contain 5 to 1 of pitch, rosin, and saw-dust. This composition is put into shells made for that purpose, having 4 holes to let out the smoke. Smoke-balls are thrown out of mortars, and continue to smoke from 25 to 30 minutes.

Stink-Balls are prepared by a composition of mixed powder, rosin, saltpetre, pitch, sulphur, rapped horses and asses hoofs, burnt in the fire, assa-fetida, seraphim-gum or ferula, and bug or stinking herbs, made up into balls, as mentioned in Light-Balls, agreeable to the size of the mortar out of which you intend to throw them.

Poisoned-Balls. We are not sure that they have ever been used in Europe; but the Indians and Africans have always been very ingenious at poisoning several sorts of warlike stores and instruments. Their composition is made powder 4, pitch 6, rosin 3, sulphur 5, assa-fetida 8, extract of toads poison 12, other poisonous substances 12, made into balls as above directed. At the commencement of the French Revolution poisoned balls were exhibited to the people, pretended to have been fired by the Austrians, particularly at the siege of Lisle. We have seen some of this sort ourselves. They contained glass, small pieces of iron, &c., and were said to be concocted together by means of a greasy composition, which was impregnated with poisonous matter. In 1792 they were deposited in the archives of Paris.

Red-hot Balls are fired out of mortars, howitzers, or cannon. Use which you will, the ball must be made red-hot, which is done upon a large coal fire in a square hole made in the ground, 6 feet every way, and 4 or 5 feet deep. Some make the fire under an iron grate, on which the shell or ball is laid; but the best way is to put the ball into the middle of a clear burning fire, and when red-hot, all the fiery particles must be swept off. Whatever machine you use to throw the red-hot ball out of it, must be elevated according to the distance you intend it shall range, and the charge of powder must be put into a flannel cartridge, and a good wad upon that; then a piece of wood of the exact diameter of the piece, and about 34 inches thick, to prevent the ball from setting fire to the powder; then place the ball on the edge of the mortar, &c., with an instrument for that purpose, and let it roll of itself against the wood, and instantly fire it off. Should there be a ditch or parallel before such a battery, with soldiers, the wood must not be used, as the blast of powder will break it to pieces, and its own elasticity prevent it from flying far; it would in that case either kill or wound your own people. For this deficiency the wad must be double.

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**Chain-**
Chain-Balls are two balls linked together by a chain of 8 or 10 inches long, and some have been made with a chain of 3 or 4 feet long; they are used to destroy the palissadoes, wooden bridges, and chevaux-de-frises of a fortification. They are also very destructive to the rigging of a ship.

Anchor-Balls are made in the same way as the light-balls, and filled, with the same composition, only with this addition, that these are made with an iron bar two-thirds of the ball’s diameter in length, and 3 or 4 inches square. One ball is fixed within the ball, and the other ball remains without; the exterior end is made with a grapple-hook. Very useful to set fire to wooden bridges, or any thing made of wood, or even the rigging of ships, &c. for the pile end being the heaviest, flies foremost, and wherever it touches, fastens, and sets all on fire about it.

Message-Balls. See Shells.

Balles, Fr. a round substance, made of lead or iron, which is put into heavy ordnance or fire-arms, for the purpose of killing, wounding, or making a breach.

Balles à Feu, Fr. a hollow substance, which is made of iron, in the shape of an egg, and is filled with combustible materials, that are extremely difficult to be extinguished, and give a great light. This composition is generally used in the attack and defence of fortified places. When the balls are large, they are thrown out of mortars; the smaller ones are cast like hand-grenades. In order to prevent their extinction, there are small tubes within loaded with grape-shot, &c. which are continually discharged.

Balles-Machées, Fr. a musket ball, which the soldier bites and indents in different places before he loads his musket. It is contrary to the established rules of war to use any thing of the sort.

Ballium, a term used in ancient military history. In towns the appellations of ballium was given to a work fenced with palissades, and sometimes to masonry, covering the suburbs; but in castles it was the space immediately within the outer wall.

Ballon, Fr. Balloon.

Ballon à bombes, Fr. a bag in which are placed beds of smaller bombs, that are charged and interlaid with gunpowder. This bag is put into another covering, that is pitched and tarred, with the neck closely tied up with packthread, in which a fuse is fixed, as in ordinary bombs. These balloons, or bags containing bombs, are thrown out of mortars, and are frequently used in the attack and defence of fortified places. Major Shrapnel’s invention of the case-shot is of a superior kind.

Ballon à cailloux, Fr. a balloon, or bag filled with stones or pebbles in the same manner as the above mentioned.

Ballon à grenades, Fr. a balloon or bag, impregnated with pitch, containing several beds of grenades, with a fuse attached to each.

Balloon, a hollow vessel of silk, varnished over and filled with inflammable air, by which means it ascends in the atmosphere. It has during the present war been used by the French in reconnoitering.

Ballots, Fr. sacks or bales of wool, made use of, in cases of great emergency, to form parapets or places of arms. They are likewise adapted for the defence of trenches, to cover the workmen in saps, and in all instances where promptitude is required.

Ban, or Bann, a sort of proclamation made at the head of a body of troops, or in the several quarters or cantonments of an army, by sound of trumpet, or beat of drum; either for observing martial discipline, or for declaring a new officer, or punishing a soldier, or the like. At present such kind of proclamations are given out in the written orders of the day.

BAN and ARRIÈRE BAN, a French military phrase, signifying the convocation of vassals under the feudal system. Ménage, a French writer, derives the term from the German word Ban, which means publication. Nicod derives it from another German term, which signifies field. Borel from the Greek παν, which means all, because the convocation was general. In the reign of Charles VII. the ban and arrière ban had
had different significations. Formerly it meant the assembling of the ordinary militia. After the days of Charles VII. it was called the extraordinary militia. The first served more than the latter; and each was distinguished according to the nature of its particular service. The persons belonging to the arrière-ban were at one period accoutred and mounted like light horse; but there were occasions on which they served like infantry. Once under Francis I. in 1543, and again under Lewis XIII., who issued out an order in 1637, that the Arrière-Ban should serve on foot.

Ban likewise signified, during the ancient monarchy of France, a proclamation made by the sound of drums, trumpets, and tambourines, either at the head of a body of troops, or in quarters. Sometimes to prevent the men from quitting camp, at others to enforce the rigour of military discipline; sometimes for the purpose of receiving a new commanding officer, and at others to degrade and punish a military character.

BANDER, Fr. to bind, to bend, to cock. Bander les yeux à une trompette; to cover the eyes of a trumpeter. Bander un pistolet; to cock a pistol.

Bander also signifies to unite, to intrigue together for the purposes of insurrection.

BANDERET, Fr. in military history, implies the commander in chief of the troops of the canton of Bern, in Switzerland.

BANDES, Fr. bands, bodies of infantry.

Bandes Francoise, Fr. The French infantry was anciently so called. The term, however, has of late become less general, and been confined to the Prêt des Bandes, or the Judge or Provost Marshal that tried the men belonging to the French guards.

Bandes, Fr. iron hoops or rings.

Sous-Bandes, Fr. flat iron hoops, which are placed in the lower parts of a piece of ordnance, between the tram-\ons.

Sus-Bandes, Fr. flat iron hoops, which are placed in the upper parts of a piece of ordnance, to keep the tram-\ons together.

BANDIERE, Fr. This term is frequently used in the same sense with Bannière, Banner; especially on board a ship.

Bandiere, Fr. Une armée rangée en front de bandiere, signifies an army in battle array. This disposition of the army is opposed to that in which it is cantonned and divided into several bodies.

Une armée campée front de Bandiere, Fr. An army which has encamped with the regular stand of colours in front. Hence la ligne bandiere. The camp-colour line. The sentries should not, on any account, permit persons out of regimentals to pass this line.

BANDOLEER, in ancient military history, a large leathern belt worn over the right shoulder, and hanging under the left arm, to carry some kind of war-like weapon.

Bandoleers are likewise little wooden cases covered with leather, of which every musketeer used to wear 12 hangling on a shoulder-belt; each of them contained the charge of powder for a musket. They are now no more in use, but are still to be seen in the small armoury in the Tower.

BANDROIS. See Camp Colours. BANDS, properly bodies of foot, though almost out of date.

Train-Bands. In England the militia of the City of London were generally so called. The third regiment of Foot, or the Old Buffs, were originally recruited from the Train Bands, which circumstance has given that corps the exclusive privilege of marching through London with drums beating and colours flying.

Band of Pensioners, a company of gentlemen so called, who attend the King's person upon all solemn occasions. They are 120 in number, and receive a yearly allowance of 100l. The term band is also applied to the body of musicians attached to any regiment or battalion.

Band is also the denomination of a military order in Spain, instituted by Alphonso XI. King of Castile, for the younger sons of the nobility, who, before their admission, must serve 10 years, at least, either in the army or during a war; and are bound to take arms in defence of the Catholic faith, against the infidels.

BANERET, Fr. a term derived from Banière. This appellation was attached to any lord of a fief who had vassals suf-
sufficient to unite them under one ban-
er or banner, and to become chief of
the troops or company.

Un Chevalier Baneret, or a Knight
Baneret, gave precedence to the troop
or company which he commanded
over that of a baneret who was not a
knight or chevalier; the latter obeyed
the former, and the banner of the first
was cut into fewer vanes than that of
the second.

BANNER, the ordnance flag fixed
on the fore part of the drum-major's
kettle-drum carriage of the royal ar-
tillery.

Banner, in the horse equipage, for
the kettle-drums and trumpets, must be
of the colour of the facing of the regi-
ment. The badge of the regiment, or
its rank, to be in the center of the ban-
er of the kettle-drums, as on the sec-
ond standard. The king's cypher and
crown to be on the banner of the trum-
pets, with the rank of the regiment in
figures underneath. The depth of the
kettle-drum banners to be 3 feet 6
inches; the length 4 feet 8 inches, ex-
cluding the fringe. Those of the trum-
pets to be 12 inches in depth, and 18
inches in length.

BANNERET. Knights-banerets,
according to the English acceptation of
the term, are persons who for any par-
cular act of valour have been knighted
on the field of battle.

The late Sir William Erskine, on his
return from the Continent in 1764, was
made a knight banneret, in Hyde Park,
by his present Majesty, in consequence of
his distinguished conduct at the bat-
tle of Emderoff. But he was not ac-
nowledged as such in this country, al-
though he was invested with the order,
between the two standards of the 15th
regiment of light dragoons, because the
ceremony did not take place where the
engagement happened. Captain Trol-
lope of the Royal Navy is the last cre-
ated knight banneret. Knights banne-
ret take precedence next to knights of
the Bath.

BANQUET. See BRIDGES.

BANQUETTE, Fr. See FORTIFICATION.

BAR, a long piece of wood or iron,
used to keep things together. Bars have
diverse denominations in the construc-
tion of artillery carriages, as sweep and
cross bars for trumbrels; fore, hind, and
under cross bars, for powder carts; shaft
bars for wagons, and dowel bars used
in mortar beds.

BAR-SHOT, two half bullets joined
together by an union bar, forming a
kind of double-headed shot.

BARAQUER une armée, Fr. to put
an army into cantonments.

BARAQUES, Fr. small huts made
with wood and earth for the accommoda-
tion of soldiers during a campaign.

BARB, the reflected points of the
head of an arrow. The armour for
horses was so called. See CAPARISON.

BARBACAN, or BARBICAN, a
watch-tower, for the purpose of descri-
ing an enemy at a great distance: it
also implies an outer defence, or sort of
ancient fortification to a city or castle,
used especially as a fence to the city or
walls; also an aperture made in the
walls of a fortress to fire through upon
the enemy. It is sometimes used to de-
note a fort at the entrance of a bridge,
or the outlet of a city, having a double
wall with towers.

BARBACANAGE, money given to
the maintenance of a Barbacan.

BARBETS are peasants subject to
the king of Sardinia, who abandon their
dwellings when the enemy has taken
possession of them. The king forms
them into bodies, who defend the Alps,
being part of his dominions.

BARBET—Battery, in gunnery, is when
the breast-work of a battery is only
3 feet high, that the guns may fire over
it without being obliged to make em-
brasures: in such cases, it is said the
guns fire en barbet. See BATTERY.

BARDEES d'eau, Fr. a measure
used in the making of saltpetre, contain-
ing three half hogheads of water, which
are poured into tubs for the purpose of
refining it. Four half hogheads are
sometimes thrown in.

BARILLER, Fr. an officer who was
formerly employed among the galleys,
whose chief duty is to superintend the
distribution of bread and water.

BARILS, Fr. small barrels, contain-
ing gunpowder, flints, &c.

BARILS à feu, ou fouroyants, Fr.
barrels filled with gunpowder and grape
shot, &c.

BARM, or BERM. See BERM.

BARRACKS, or BARACKS, are places
Erected
erected for both officers and men to lodge in; they are built different ways, according to their different situations. When there is sufficient room to make a large square, surrounded with buildings, they are very convenient, because the soldiers are easily confined to their quarters, and the rooms being contiguous, orders are executed with privacy and expedition; and the troops have not the least connection with the inhabitants of the place, which prevents quarrels and riots.

Barrack-Allowance, a specific allowance of bread, beer, coals, &c. to the regiments stationed in barracks.

Barrack-Guard, when a regiment is in barracks, the principal guard is the barrack-guard; the officer being responsible for the regularity of the men in barracks, and for all prisoners duly committed to his charge while on that duty.

Barrack-Master General, a staff officer at the head of the barrack department; he has a number of barrack-masters and deputies under him, who are stationed at the different barracks; he has an office and clerks for the dispatch of business; to this office all reports, &c. respecting the barrack department are made.

Barrack-Office, the office at which all business relating to the barrack department is transacted.

Barrels, in military affairs, are of various kinds.

Fire-Barrels are of different sorts: some are mounted on wheels, filled with composition, and intermixed with loaded grenades, and the outside full of sharp spikes: some are placed under ground, which have the effect of small mines: others are used to roll down a breach, to prevent the enemy’s entrance. — Composition, corned powder 30 lb. Swedish pitch 12, saltpetre 6, and tallow 3. Not used now.

Thundering-Barrels are for the same purpose, filled with various kinds of combustibles, intermixed with small shells, grenades, and other fire-works. Not used now.

Powder-Barrels are about 16 inches diameter, and 30 or 32 inches long, holding 100 pounds of powder.

Budge-Barrels, hold from 40 to 60 pounds of powder: at one end is fixed a leather bag with brass nails; they are used in actual service on the batteries, to keep the powder from firing by accident, for loading the guns and mortars.

Barrer, Fr. to stop; to obstruct.

Barrer le chemin d’une troupe ou d’une armée ennemie, Fr. to take possession of any particular road or passage, and to cut it up, or plant it with ordnance, &c. in such a manner that no hostile force could march through.

Barricade. To barricade is to fortify with trees, or branches of trees, cut down for that purpose, the brushy ends towards the enemy. Carts, wagons, &c. are sometimes made use of for the same purpose, viz. to keep back both horse and foot for some time.

Barricades, Fr. obstructions or obstacles created by means of ditches, temporary abatis, &c.

Barricade, in a general sense, means any fortification, or strong place on the frontiers of a country. It is likewise a kind of fence composed of stakes, and transums, as over-thwart rafters, erected to defend the entrance of a passage, retrenchment, or the like. In the middle of the barrier is a moveable bar of wood, which is opened and shut at pleasure. It also implies a gate made of wooden bars, about 5 feet long, perpendicular to the horizon, and kept together by two long bars going across, and another crossing diagonally. Barriers are used to stop the cut made through the esplanade before the gate of a town.

Barricade-Town. Before the French Revolution, the barrier-towns in Europe were Menin, Dendermond, Ypres, Tourna, Mons, Namur, and Maestricht. These towns were formerly garrisoned half by French or Imperial, and half by Dutch troops.

Bascule, Fr. a counterpoise which serves to lift up the draw bridge of a town. Likewise a term used in fortification to express a door that shuts and opens like a trap door.

Base, or Bases, in fortification, the exterior part or side of a polygon, or that imaginary line which is drawn from the flanked angle of a bastion to the angle opposite to it.

Base signifies also the level line on which any work stands that is even with the ground, or other work on which it
is erected. Hence the base of a parapet is the rampart.

Bast, an ancient word for the smallest cannon. See Cannon.

Bast-line, the line on which troops in column move. The first division that marches into the alignment forms the base line, which each successive division prolongs.

Bast-ring. See Cannon.

BASILISK, an ancient name given to a 48 pounder. See Cannon.

BASIS. See Base.

BASKET-Hilt, the hilt of a sword, so made as to contain, and guard the whole hand.

BASKETS, in military affairs, are simple baskets, frequently used in sieges. They are filled with earth, and placed on the parapet of a trench, or any other part. They are generally about a foot and a half in diameter at the top, and eight inches at the bottom, and a foot and a half in height; so that, being placed on the parapet, a kind of embrasure is formed at the bottom, through which the soldiers fire, without being exposed to the shot of the enemy. See CABOS.

BAS-OFFICERS, Fr. non-commissioned officers, i.e., serjeants and corporals are so called in the French service. With us the serjeants and lance serjeants only are so called.

BASSINET, Fr. the pan of a musket.

BASSON or BASSOON, a wind instrument blown with a reed, performing the base to all martial music, one or two of which are attached to each regimental band.

BASTILLE, Fr. any place fortified with towers.

BASTILE, a state prison which stood near the temple in Paris, and was destroyed by the inhabitants of that capital on the 14th of July, 1789.

BASTINADO, a punishment among the Turkish soldiers, which is performed by beating them with a cane or the flat side of a sword on the soles of their feet. It is also practised among the French. The culprit is tied upon a bundle of straw, and receives a prescribed number of blows, either upon the shoulders or upon his posteriors.

BASTION. See Fortification.

BATAGE, Fr. the time employed in reducing gunpowder to its proper consistency. The French usually consumed 24 hours in pounding the materials to make good gunpowder; supposing the mortar to contain 16 pounds of composition, it would require the application of the pestle 3500 times each hour. The labour required in this process is less in summer than in winter, because the water is softer.

BATAILLE, Fr. a battle.

Cheval de Bataille, Fr. a war horse, or charger. This expression is used figuratively as a sheet anchor or last resource.

BATAILLE rangée, Fr. troops drawn up in a regular line for action.

BATAILLER, Fr. to engage one another partially or by detachments, without coming to a general engagement; to struggle hard.

BATAILLON, Fr. a battalion, which see.

Bataillon guarré, Fr. a battalion which is drawn up in such a manner, that it forms a perfect square, and is equally strong on the four sides.

BATARDE, French 8 pounders are so called. They are used in action.

BATARDEAU, in fortification, is a massive perpendicular pile of masonry, whose length is equal to the breadth of the ditch, inundation, or any part of a fortification where the water cannot be kept in without the raising of these sorts of works, which are described either on the capitals prolonged of the bastions or half-moons, or upon their faces. In thickness it is from 15 to 18 feet, that it may be able to withstand the violence of the enemy's batteries. Its height depends upon the depth of the ditch, and upon the elevation of the water that is necessary to be kept up for an inundation, but the top of the building must always be under the cover of the parapet of the covertway, so as not to be exposed to the enemy's view. In the middle of its length is raised a massive cylindrical turret, whose height exceeds the batardeau 6 feet.

BAT DE MULET, a pack-saddle used on service when mules are employed to carry stores, &c.

BATESME du Tropique, Fr. a christening under the line. This is a profane and ridiculous ceremony which
every person is obliged to go through the first time he crosses the Line on his passage to the East Indies. Different methods of performing it are observed by different nations. Englishmen frequently buy themselves off. Among the French, the individual who was to be baptized or christened, swore solemnly by the Evangelists, that he would individually assist in forcing every person hereafter, who should be similarly situated, to go through the same ceremony.

**BAT-Horses,** are baggage horses.

**BAW-Horses,** belonging to the officers when on actual duty.

**BAT-Men,** were originally servants.

**BAW-Men,** hired in war time, to take care of the horses belonging to the train of artillery, bakery, baggage, &c. They generally wear the King's livery during their service. Men who are excused regimental duty, for the specific purpose of attending to the horses belonging to their officers, are called bâtmen.

**Knights of the Bath,** an English military order of uncertain original. Some writers say it was instituted in the Saxon times; some will have it to have been founded by Richard II. and others by Henry IV. nor is the occasion that gave rise to their order better known. Some say it arose from the custom which formerly prevailed of bathing, before they received the golden spurs. Others say that Henry IV. being in the bath, was told by a knight, that two widows were come to demand justice of him; when leaping out of the bath, he cried, "It was his duty to " prefer the doing of justice to his sub-

**jects to the pleasures of the bath;" and in memory of this transaction the Knights of the Bath were created. Camden however insists, that this was only the restoration of the order, which was in that prince's reign almost abolished: But however that may be, the order was revived under George I. by a solemn creation of a considerable number of knights. They wear a red ribbon, and their motto is, *Triumph juncta in uno,* alluding to the three cardinal virtues which every knight ought to possess.

**BATON, Fr.** a staff.

**Baton a deux bouts, Fr.** a quarter-staff.

**Baton de commandement, Fr.** an instrument of particular distinction which was formerly given to generals in the French army. Henry III before his ascension to the throne, was made generalissimo of all the armies belonging to his brother Charles the IXth, and publicly received the Baton, as a mark of high command.

**Baton ferrat et non ferrat, Fr.** all sorts of weapons.

**Obtenir son objet par le tour du Baton, Fr.** to accomplish one's ends by equivocal means.

**Être bien assuré de son Baton, Fr.** to be morally certain of a thing.

**Être reduit au Baton blanc, Fr.** to be reduced to one's last stake.

**Se conduire à Batons rompus, Fr.** to do any thing by fits and starts, to be undecided in your plans of attack, &c.

**Batoon, a truncheon, or marshal's staff.**

**Batta, allowances made to troops in India.**

**Battailous, a warlike or military appearance.**

**Battalia.** Johnson adopts the word from Battaglia, Ital. and calls it the main body of an army, distinguished from its wings. We are of opinion, that it further implies an army or considerable detachment of troops drawn up in order of battle, or in any other proper form to attack the enemy. See **BATTLE.**

**Battalion or Bataillon, an undetermined body of infantry in regard to number, generally from 600 to 1000 men.** The royal regiment of artillery consists of 5 battalions. Sometimes regiments consist each of 1 battalion only; but if more numerous, are divided into several battalions, according to their strength; so that every one may come within the numbers mentioned. A battalion in one of our marching regiments consists of 1000 and sometimes of 1200 men, officers and non-commissioned included. When there are companies of several regiments in a garrison to form a battalion, those of the eldest regiment post themselves on the right, those of the second on the left, and so on till the youngest fall into the center. The officers...
OFFICERS take their posts before their companies, from the right and left, according to seniority. Each battalion is divided into 4 divisions, and each division into 2 subdivisions, which are again divided into sections. The companies of grenadiers being unequal in all battalions, their post must be regulated by the commanding officer. See REGIMENT.

**Triangular Battalion**, in ancient military history, a body of troops ranged in the form of a triangle, in which the ranks exceed each other by an equal number of men: if the first rank consists of one man only, and the difference between the ranks is only one, then its form is that of an equilateral triangle; and when the difference between the ranks is more than one, its form may then be an isosceles, having two sides equal, or scalene triangle. This method is now laid aside.

**Batterie**, a cannonade of heavy ordnance, from the 1st or 2d parallel of entrenchment, against any fortress or work.

**To Batter in breach**, implies a heavy cannonade of many pieces directed to one part of the revetment from the third parallel.

**Batterie de Tambour**, a French beat of the drum similar to the general in the British service.

**Batterie en rouage**, Fr. a discharge of artillery which is used to dismount the enemy's cannon.

**Batterie par camarades**, Fr. the discharge of several pieces of ordnance together, directed at one object or place.

**Batterie à barbette**, Fr. pieces of ordnance which are planted above a parapet that is not sufficiently high to admit of embrasures.

**Batterie de canons**, Fr. This term among the French signifies not only the park of artillery, or the place where the pieces of ordnance are planted, but also the pieces themselves.

**Batterie directe**, Fr. Cannon planted right in front of a work, or of a body of men, and which can play directly upon either.

**Batterie d'ensilage**, Fr. Cannon so planted that it can play along the whole extent of a line.

**Batterie enterrée**, Fr. Cannon or ordnance sunk into the earth in such a manner, that the shot can graze the whole surface of the ground it goes over.

**Batterie de mortier**, Fr. a collection of bombs or shells, generally formed within the circumference of a wall.

**Batterie d'obusier**, Fr. a battery formed of howitzers.

**Batterie de pierriers**, Fr. a battery consisting of machines, from which stones may be thrown.

**Batterie en plein champ**, Fr. a battery consisting of cannon, which are planted in such a manner, that their object of attack is wholly unmasked.

**Batterie en redans**, Fr. cannon planted in such a manner, that the several pieces form a species of saw, and are fired from alternate intervals. Cannon thus ranged may be said to stand pointed on echelon.

**BATTERING**, in military affairs, implies the firing with heavy artillery on some fortification or strong post possessed by an enemy, in order to demolish the works.

**BATTERING-Pieces** are large pieces of cannon, used in battering a fortified town or post.

It is judged by all nations, that no less than 24 or 18 pounders are proper for that use. Formerly much larger calibers were used, but as they were so long and heavy, and very troublesome to transport and manage, they were for a long time rejected, till adopted among the French, who during the late war have brought 36 and 42 pounders into the field. At present they use light pieces in the field.

**Batterie-Train**, a train of artillery used solely for besieging a strong place, inclusive of mortars and howitzers: all heavy 24, 18, and 12 pounders, come under this denomination; as likewise the 13, 10, and 8 inch mortars and howitzers.

**Batterie-Ram.** See the article Ram.

**BATTERY**, in military affairs, implies any place where cannon or mortars are mounted, either to attack the forces of the enemy, or to batter a fortification; hence batteries have various names,
names, agreeable to the purposes they are designed for.

Gun-Battery, is a defence made of earth faced with green sods or fascines, and sometimes made of gabions filled with earth: it consists of a breast-work, parapet, or epaulement, of 18 or 20 feet thick at top, and of 22 or 24 at the foundation; of a ditch 12 feet broad at the bottom, and 18 at the top, and 7 feet deep. They must be 7½ feet high. The embrasures are 2 feet wide within, and 9 without, sloping a little downwards, to depress the metal on occasion. The distance from the centre of one embrasure to that of the other is 18 feet; that is, the guns are placed at 18 feet distance from each other; consequently the merlins (or that part of solid earth between the embrasures) are 16 feet within, and 7 without. The genouillères (or part of the parapet which covers the carriage of the gun) are generally made 2½ feet high from the platform to the opening of the embrasures; though this height ought to be regulated according to the semi-diameter of the wheels of the carriage, or the nature of the gun. The platforms are a kind of wooden floors, made to prevent the cannon from sinking into the ground, and to render the working of the guns more easy; and are, strictly speaking, a part of the battery. They are composed of 5 sleepers, or joists of wood, laid lengthways, the whole extent of the intended platform; and to keep them firm in their places, stakes must be driven into the ground on each side; these sleepers are then covered with sound thick planks, laid parallel to the parapet; and at the lower end of the platform, next to the parapet, a piece of timber 6 inches square, called a hurter, is placed, to prevent the wheels from damaging the parapet. Platforms are generally made 18 feet long, 15 feet broad behind, and 9 before, with a slope of about 9 or 10 inches, to prevent the guns from recoiling too much, and for bringing them more easily forward when loaded. The dimensions of the platforms, sleepers, planks, hurters, and nails, ought to be regulated according to the nature of the pieces that are to be mounted.

The powder magazines to serve the batteries ought to be at a convenient distance from the same, as also from each other; the large one, at least 55 feet in the rear of the battery, and the small ones about 25. Sometimes the large magazines are made either to the right or left of the battery, in order to deceive the enemy; they are generally built 5 feet under ground; the sides and roof must be well secured with boards, and covered with earth, clay, or something of a similar substance, to prevent the powder from being fired: they are guarded by sentinels. The balls are piled in readiness beside the merlins, between the embrasures.

The officers of the artillery ought always to construct their own batteries and platforms, and not the engineers, as is practised in England; for certainly none can be so good judges of those things as the artillery officers, whose daily practice it is; consequently they are the properest people to direct the situation and to superintend the making of batteries on all occasions.

Mortar-Battery. These kinds of batteries differ from gun-batteries, only in having no embrasures. They consist in a parapet of 18 or 20 feet thick, 7½ high in front, and 6 in the rear; of a berm 2½ or 3 feet broad, according to the quality of the earth; of a ditch 2½ feet broad at the top, and 20 at the bottom. The beds must be 9 feet long, 6 broad, 8 from each other, and 5 feet from the parapet: they are not to be sloping like the gun-platforms, but exactly horizontal. The insides of these batteries are sometimes sunk 2 or 3 feet into the ground, by which they are much sooner made than those of cannon. The powder magazines and piles of shells are placed as is mentioned in the article Gun-battery.

Ricochet-Battery, so called by its inventor M. Vauban, and first used at the siege of Aeth in 1697. It is a method of firing with a very small quantity of powder, and a little elevation, so as just to fire over the parapet; and then the shot will roll along the opposite rampart, dismounting the cannon, and driving or destroying the troops. In a siege they are generally placed at about 300 feet before the first parallel, perpendicular to the faces produced, which they are to enflade. Ricochet practice is not confined to cannon alone; small
small mortars and howitzers may effectually be used for the same purpose. They are of singular use in action to enfilade the enemy's ranks; for when the men perceive the shells rolling and bounding about with their fuzes burning, expecting them to burst every moment, the bravest among them will hardly have courage to wait their approach and face the havoc of their explosion.

**Horizontal Batteries** are such as have only a parapet and ditch; the platform being only the surface of the horizon made level.

**Breach or Sunk Batteries** (Batterie enterrie, Fr.) are such as are sunk upon the chassis, with a design to make an accessible breach in the faces or salient angles of the bastion and ravelin.

**Cross Batteries** are such as play about each other against the same object, forming an angle at the point of contact; whence greater destruction follows, because what one shot shakes, the other beats down.

**Oblique Batteries** are those which play on any side obliquely; making an obtuse angle with the line of range, after striking the object.

**Enfilading Batteries** are those that sweep or scour the whole length of a straight line, or the face or flank of any work.

**Sweeping Batteries.** See Enfilading Batteries.

**Redan Batteries** (Batterie en Redan) are such as flank each other at the salient and reentrant angles of a fortification.

**Direct Batteries** are those situated opposite to the place intended to be battered, so that the balls strike the works nearly at right angles.

**Reverse Batteries** are those which play on the rear of the troops appointed to defend the place.

**Glazing Batteries** are such whose shot strike the object at an angle of about 20°, after which the ball glances from the object, and recoils to some adjacent parts.

**Joint Batteries,** when several

**Comrade Batteries,** guns fire on the same object at the same time. When 10 guns are fired at once, their effect will be much greater than when fired separately.

**Sunk Batteries** (Batteries enterries, Fr.) are those whose platforms are sunk beneath the level of the field; the ground serving for the parapet; and in it the embrasures are made. This often happens in mortars, but seldom in gun-batteries.

**Fascine Batteries,** made of those machines, where sods are scarce, and the earth very loose or sandy.

**Battery-Planks** are the planks or boards used in making platforms.

**Battery-Boxes** are square chests or boxes, filled with earth or dung; used in making batteries, where gabions and earth are not to be had. They must not be too large, but of a size that is governable.

**Battery-Nails** are wooden pins made of the toughest wood, with which the planks that cover the platforms are nailed. Iron nails might strike fire against the iron-work of the wheels, in recoiling, &c. and be dangerous.

**Battery-Master,** the person whose duty formerly it was to raise the batteries. This officer is now suppressed in England.

**BATTEURS d'Estraade, Fr. See Scouts.**

**BATTLE,** implies an action, where the forces of two armies are engaged; and is of two kinds, general and particular; general where the whole army is engaged, and particular where only a part is in action; but as they only differ in numbers, the methods are nearly alike.

The most remarkable on English record are the

1016. Battle of Ashdown, between Canute and Edmund.

1066. Battle of Hastings, where king Harold was slain.

1214. Battle of Lewes, 14 May.

1264. Battle of Evesham, 4 Aug.

1314. Battle of Bannockburn, 24 June.


Battle of Durham, when David, king of Scots, was taken prisoner, 17 Oct.

1356. Battle of Poictiers, when the king of France and his son were taken prisoners, 19th September.

1388. Bat-
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<td>1513</td>
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1560 | Battle of Solway                                              | 24 Nov.    |
1547 | Battle of Pinkey                                         | 10 Sept.   |
1557 | Battle of St. Quintin                                   | 10 Aug.    |
1642 | Battle of Edgehill                                 | 24 Oct.    |
1643 | Battle of Statton                                    | 16 May.    |
1644 | Battle of Lansdown                                   | 5 July     |
1641 | Battle of Roundwaydown                                | 13 July    |
1649 | Battle of Newbury                              | 20 Sept.   |
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1650 | Battle of Naseby                                      | June       |
1651 | Battle of Dunbar                                     | 3 Sept.    |
1653 | Battle of Worcester                                   | 3 Sept.    |
1679 | Battle of Bothwell-Bridge                        | 22 June    |
1690 | Battle of Boyne                                      | 1 July     |
1691 | Battle of Aughrim                                    | 22 July    |
1662 | Battle of Steinkirk                                  |            |
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1710 | Battle of Malplaquet                                  | 11 Sept.   |
1715 | Battle of Blaregnes                                   | 14 Sept.   |
1716 | Battle of Dumbarton                                  | 12 Nov.    |
1743 | Battle of Dettingen                                    | 26 June    |
1744 | Battle of Fontenoy                                   | 30 Apr.    |
1745 | Battle of Preston-Pans                                | 21 Sept.   |
1746 | Battle of Falkirk                                    | 17 Jan.    |
1747 | Battle of Culloden                                   | 16 Apr.    |
1747 | Battle of Lafield                                    | 20 July    |
1756 | Battle of Labositz                                   | 1 Oct.     |
1757 | Battle of Rosbach                                   | 5 Nov.     |
1759 | Battle of Reichenberg                               | 21 Apr.    |
1760 | Battle of Gros Jegenrodt                            | 30 Aug.    |
1761 | Battle of Blackheath                                  | 22 June    |
1762 | Battle of Langensalzete                             | 15 Feb.    |
1763 | Battle of Grünberg                                   | 21 Mar.    |
1764 | Battle of Vellinghausen                              | 16 July    |
1775 | Battle of Kirklinenkern                              | 15 July    |
1776 | Battle of Einbeck                                   | 24 Aug.    |
1778 | Battle of Dubeln                                     | 12 May     |
1779 | Battle of Wilhelmstahl                               | 24 June    |
1780 | Battle of Fulda                                      | 23 July    |
1781 | Battle of Friedberg                                  | 30 Aug.    |
1782 | Battle of Freyberg                                   | 10 and 29 Oct. |
1783 | Battle of Bunker's Hill                              | 17 June    |
1784 | Battle of Long Island                                | 27 Aug.    |
1785 | Battle of White Plains                               | 16 Nov.    |
1786 | Battle of Savannah                                    | 15 Jan.    |
1788 | Between Porto Novo and Mooteapollam, E. I.          |            |
1789 | Guilford Court House, America, 15 Mar.               |            |
1791 | Camden, 25 Mar.                                      |            |
1792 | Ninety-six, 19 June                                  |            |
1794 | Villiers en Couchée, 24 Apr.                          |            |
1799 | Cateau                                              |            |
1801 | Seringapatam                                        |            |
1802 | Heldern, 27 Aug.                                     |            |
1804 | Alkmaar, 6 Oct.                                      |            |
1805 | Alexandria, in Egypt, 21 Mar.                         |            |
1806 | Damatician, 9 May                                    |            |
Battle of Chili in India, 1803.

There is no action in war more brilliant than that of battles, the success of which sometimes decides the fate of kingdoms. It is by this action a general acquires his reputation. It is in battle that his valour, his force of genius, and his prudence, appear in their full extent; and where especially he has occasion for that firmness of mind, without which the most able general will hardly succeed.

Battles have ever been the last resource of good generals. A situation where chance and accident often battle and overcome the most prudential and most able arrangements, and where superiority in numbers by no means ensures success, is such as is never entered into without a clear necessity for so doing. The fighting a battle only because the enemy is near, or from having no other formed plan of offence, is a direful way of making war. Darius lost his crown and life by it; king Harold of England, did the same; and Francis I at Pavia, lost the battle and his liberty. King John, of France, fought the battle of Poictiers, though run attended his enemy if he had not fought.

The true situation for giving battle is when an army’s situation cannot be worse, if defeated, than if it does not fight at all; and when the advantage may be great, and the loss little. Such was the duke of Cumberland’s at Hastenbeck, in 1757, and prince Ferdinand’s at Vellinghausen, in 1761. The reasons and situations for giving battle are so numerous, that to treat of them all would fill a large volume: we will therefore content ourselves with the following. There may be exigencies of state that require its army to attack the enemy at all events. Such were the causes of the battle of Blenheim, in 1704, of Zorndorf, in 1758, of Cunnersdorff, in 1739, and of Rosbach, in 1757. To raise a siege, to defend or cover a country. An army is also obliged to engage when shot up in a post. An army may give battle to effectuate its junction with another army, &c.

The preparations for battle admit of infinite variety. By a knowledge of the detail of battles, the precept will accompany the example. The main general preparations are, to profit by any advantage of ground; that the tactical form of the army be in some measure adapted to it; and that such form be, if possible, a form tactically better than the enemy’s. In forming the army, a most careful attention should be given to multiply resources, so that the fate of the army may not hang on one or two efforts; to give any particular part of the army, whose quality is superior to such part in the enemy’s army, a position that ensures action; and finally, to have a rear by nature, or, if possible, by art, capable of checking the enemy in case of defeat.

The dispositions of battles admit likewise of an infinite variety of cases; for even the difference of ground which happens at almost every step, gives occasion to change the disposition or plan; and a general’s experience will teach him to profit by this, and take the advantage the ground offers him. It is an instant, a coup-d’œil which decides this: for it is to be feared the enemy may deprive you of those advantages or turn them to his own profit; and for that reason this admits of no precise rule, the whole depending on the time and the occasion.

With regard to battles, there are three things to be considered; what precedes, what accompanies, and what follows the action. As to what precedes the action, you should unite all your force, examine the advantage of the ground, the wind, and the sun, (things not to be neglected) and chase, if possible, a field of battle proportioned to the number of your troops.

You must post the different kinds of troops advantageously for each; they must be so disposed as to be able to return often to the charge; for he who can charge often with fresh troops, is commonly victorious; witness the uniform practice of the French. Your wings must be covered so as not to be surrounded, and you must observe, that your troops can assist each other without any confusion, the intervals being proportioned to the battalions and squadrons.

Great care must be taken about the regulation of the artillery, which should be disposed so as to be able to act in every place to the greatest advantage; for nothing is more certain than that,
if the artillery be well commanded, properly distributed, and manfully served, it will greatly contribute to gaining the battle; being looked upon as the general instrument of the army, and the most essential part of military force. The artillery must be well supplied with ammunition, and each soldier have a sufficient number of cartridges. The baggage, provisions, and treasure of the army, should, on the day of battle, be sent to a place of safety.

In battle, where the attacks are, there is also the principal defence. If an army attacks, it forms at pleasure; it makes its points at will; if it defends, it will be sometimes difficult to penetrate into the designs of the enemy, but when once found, succour succeeds to the discovery. Ground and numbers must ever lead in the arrangement of battles; impression and resource will ever give them the fairest chance of success.

**Battle-Array.** The method and Line of Battle, or order of arranging the troops in order or line of battle; the form of drawing up the army for an engagement. This method generally consists of three lines, viz. the front line, the rear line, and the reserve. The second line should be about 500 paces behind the first, and the reserve at about 5 or 600 paces behind the second. The artillery is likewise distributed along the front of the first line. The front line should be stronger than the rear line, that its shock may be more violent, and that, by being more extensive, it may more easily close on the enemy’s flanks. If the first line has the advantage, it should continue to act, and attack the enemy’s second line, which must be already terrified by the defeat of their first. The artillery must always accompany the line of battle in the order it was at first distributed, if the ground permit it; and the rest of the army should follow the motions of the first line, when it continues to march on after its first success.

**Main Battle.** See Battle-Array.

**Battle-Axe.** (Hache d’Armes) Fr. an offensive weapon, formerly much used by the Danes, and other northern infantry. It was a kind of hilted, and did great execution when wielded by a strong arm.

BATTLEMENTS, in military

fairs, are the indentures in the top of old castles or fortified walls, or other buildings, in the form of embrasures, for the greater conveniency of firing or looking through.

**Battre l’estrade,** Fr. to send out scouts.

**Battre la campagne,** Fr. to scour the country or make incursions against an enemy.

**Battre,** Fr. to direct one or more pieces of ordnance in such a manner, that any given object may be destroyed or broken into by the continued discharge of cannon ball, or of other warlike materials; it likewise means to silence an enemy’s fire.

**Battre de front,** Fr. to throw cannon-shot in a perpendicular or almost perpendicular direction against any body or place which becomes an object of attack. This mode of attack is less effectual than any other unless you batter in breach.

**Battre d’écharpe,** Fr. to direct shot, so that the lines of fire make a manifest acute angle with respect to the line of any particular object against which cannon is discharged.

**Battre en franc,** Fr. is when the shot from a battery runs along the length of the front of any object or place against which it is directed.

**Battre à dos,** Fr. to direct the shot from one or several pieces of cannon so as to batter, almost perpendicularly, from behind any body of troops, part of a rampart or intrenchment.

**Battre de revers,** Fr. to direct shot in such a manner as to run between the two last mentioned lines of fire. When you batter from behind, the shot fall almost perpendicularly upon the reverse of the parapet. When you batter from the reverse side, the trajectories or lines of fire describe acute angles of forty-five degrees or under, with the prolongation of that reverse.

**Battre de bricole,** Fr. This method can only be put in practice at sieges, and against works which have been constructed in front of others that are invested. Every good billiard player will readily comprehend what is meant by bricole or back-stroke.

**Battre en sape,** Fr. To batter a work at the foot of its revetement.

**Battre en salve,** Fr. To make a general
general discharge of heavy ordnance against any spot in which a breach is attempted to be made.

**Batterie.** Fr. to beat a drum.

**Battre les armes,** Fr. to give notice by sound of drum, when an officer is to be received, orders given out, or any punishment to be publicly inflicted.

**Batterie de chasse,** Fr. to give intimation by the sound of drum, from a besieged place, of a disposition to capitulate; to beat a parley.

**Batterie aux champs,** Fr. To give notice by beat of drum that a regiment or armed body of men is approaching or marching off. It also signifies the beat which is made when a superior officer comes near a guard, &c.

**Batterie la charge,** Fr. To beat the charge; or to give notice that a general discharge of musquerity is about to take place, or that the whole line is to charge with bayonets.

**Batterie la Diane,** Fr. to beat the Reveille.

**Batterie les drapeaux,** Fr. to announce by beat of drum that the colours are about to be lodged.

**Batterie la générale,** Fr. to beat the general; a signal to collect the soldiers together for immediate action, or for quitting camp or quarters.

**Batterie la marche,** Fr. to give notice by beat of drum for troops to advance or retreat.

**Batterie la menace,** Fr. to give notice by beat of drum for soldiers to march to church.

**Batterie la prière,** Fr. to give notice by beat of drum for soldiers to assemble at any particular place to hear prayers.

**Batterie la retraite,** Fr. to beat the tattoo.

**Batterie la retraite,** Fr. to beat the retreat; a notice given by all the drums of a regiment or army, for soldiers to keep to their several colours, and to retire in the best order they can, after a disastrous battle.

**Mener battant,** to overcome.

**Mener quelqu’un au Tambour battant,** To disconcert, to confound, puzzle, and perplex any body.

**Baudrier,** Fr. A cross-belt. It also signifies a sword-belt.

**Bavins,** in military affairs, implies small faggots, made of brush-wood, of a considerable length, no part of the brush being taken off. See FASCINES.

**Bayard,** Fr. a provincial term used in Languedoc and Roussillon to signify a wheel-barrow.

**Bayonet,** (Bayonette, Fr.) a kind of triangular dagger, made with a hollow handle, and a shoulder, to fix on the muzzle of a firelock or musket, so that neither the charging nor firing is prevented by its being fixed on the piece. It is of infinite service against the horse. At first the bayonet was screwed into the muzzle of the barrel, consequently could not be used during the fire. It is said by some to have been invented by the people of Malacca, and first made use of on quitting the pikes. According to others, it was first used by the fusiliers in France, who were afterwards made the body of Royal Artillery. At present it is given to every infantry regiment.

A French writer, in a work entitled _L'Essai général de la Tactique_, has proposed a method of exercising the soldiers in a species of fencing or tilting with this weapon. But, as another very sensible author (Mauvilllon in his _Essai sur l'Influence de la poudre à canon dans l'art de la guerre moderne_) justly asks, how can any man tilt or fence with so cumbrous an instrument, and so difficult to be handled, as the firelock? The utmost that could be done would be to make one thrust, and yet that could not be effected with any degree of ease or certainty.

Experiments have been made in this country, but we are persuaded that no experiments will prove the utility of the practice.

**Beacon,** a signal for the better securing the kingdom from foreign invasions.

On certain eminent places of the country are placed long poles erect, whereon are fastened pitch-barrels to be fired by night, and smoke made by day, to give notice, in a few hours, to the whole kingdom, of an approaching invasion.

**To bear,** in gunnery. A piece of ordnance is said to bear, or come to bear, when pointed directly against the object; that is, pointed to hit the object.

**Beard,** the reflected points of the
head of an ancient arrow, particularly of such as were jagged.
To BEAT, in a military sense, signifies to gain the day, to win the battle, &c.
To Beat a parley. See Chamade.
To Beat a drum. See Drum.
BEAVER, that part of the ancient helmet which covered the face, and which was moveable so as to expose the face without removing the beaver from the helmet.
BEC de Corbin, Fr. A battle-axe.
BECHE, Fr. A spade used by pioneers.
BEDS, in the military language, are of various sorts, viz.
Mortar-Beds serve for the same purpose as a carriage does to a cannon: they are made of solid timber, consisting generally of 2 pieces fastened together with strong iron bolts and bars. Their sizes are according to the kind of mortar they carry.
Royal-Beds are carriages for a Coehorn-Beds, § royal mortar, whose diameter is 5.8 inches: and a coehorn mortar, whose diameter is 4.6 inches. Those beds are made of one solid block only.
Sea-Mortar-Beds are likewise made of solid timber, like the former, but differ in their form, having a hole in the center to receive the pintle or strong iron bolt, about which the bed turns. Sea-mortars are mounted on these beds, on board of the bomb-ketches.
N.B. These beds are placed upon very strong timber frames, fixed into the bomb-ketch, in which the pintle is fixed, so as the bed may turn about it, to fire anyway. The fore part of these beds is an arc of a circle described from the same centre as the pintle-hole.
Stool-Bed, is a piece of wood on which the breech of a gun rests upon a truck-carriage, with another piece fixed to it at the hind end, that rests upon the body of the hind axlie-tree; and the fore part is supported by an iron bolt. See Carriage.
BEEF-Eaters, Buffetters, yeomen of the guard to the King of Great Britain, so called from being stationed by the sideboard at great royal dinners. They being kept up rather from state, than for any military service to be expected from them. Their arms are a sword and lance.
BEETLES, in a military sense, are large wooden hammers for driving down palisades, and for other uses, &c.
BEETLESTOCK, the stock or handle of a beetle.
BELIER, Fr. a battering ram.
BELIGERENT, in a state of warfare. Hence any two or more nations at war are called belligerent powers.
BELTS, in the army are of different sorts, and for various purposes, viz.
Sword-Belt, a leathern strap in which a sword hangs.
Shoulder-Belt, a broad leathern belt, which goes over the shoulder, and to which the pouch is fixed. It should be made of stout smooth buff, with two buckles to fix the pouch to the belt. See Pouch.
Waist-Belt, a leathern strap fixed round the waist, by which a sword or bayonet is suspended.
BELTS are known among the ancient and middle-age writers by divers names, as zona, cingulum, reminusculum, ringa, and baldrellius. The belt was an essential piece of the ancient armour, insomuch that we sometimes find it used to denote the whole armour. In latter ages the belt was given to a person when he was raised to knighthood; whence it has also been used as a badge or mark of the knightly order.
BENAR, Fr. A large four-wheeled wagon, which is used to carry stones in the construction of fortified places.
BENDINGS, in military and sea matters, are ropes, wood, &c. bent for several purposes. M. Amontons gives several experiments concerning the bending of ropes. The friction of a rope bent, or wound round an immovable cylinder, is sufficient, with a very small power, to sustain very great weights. Divers methods have been contrived for bending timber, in order to supply crooked planks and pieces for building ships; such as by sand, boiling water, steam of boiling water, and by fire. See M. Du Hamel, in his book called Du Transport, de la Conservation, & de la Force des Bois. M. Delesme ingeniously enough proposed to have the young trees bent, while growing in the forest. The method of bending planks by sand-heat, now used in the king’s yards, was invented by Captain Cumberland.
A method has been lately invented and practised for bending pieces of timber, so as to make the wheels of carriages
BID

The bending of boards, and other pieces of timber for curved works in joinery, is effected by holding them to the fire, then giving them the figure required, and keeping them in this figure by tools for the purpose.

BENÉDICTION de drapeaux, Fr. the consecration of colours.

BENÉDICTION GÉNÉRAL, Fr. a religious invocation which is made to God by the principal chaplain belonging to a French army, on the eve of an engagement.

BENEFICIARII, in ancient military history, denotes soldiers who attend the chief officers of the army, being exempted from all other duty.

BENEFICIARII were also soldiers discharged from the military service or duty, and provided with beneficia to subsist on.

BERM, in fortification, is a little space or path, of about 4, 6, or 8 feet broad, according to the height and breadth of the works, between the ditch and the parapet, when made of turf, to prevent the earth from rolling into the ditch; and serves likewise to pass and repass.

To BESIEGE, to lay siege to, or invest any place with armed forces.

BESIEGERS, the army that lays siege to a fortified place.

BESIEGED, the garrison that defends the place against the army that lays siege to it. See SIEGE.

To BETRAY, to deliver perfidiously any place or body of troops into the hands of the enemy. To discover that which has been entrusted to secrecy.

BETTY, a machine used for forcing open gates or doors. See PETARD.

BEY, (Beys, Fr.) An officer of high rank among the Turks, but inferior in command to the Pacha.

BICOQUE, Fr. a term used in France to signify a place ill-fortified and incapable of much defence. It is derived from a place on the road between Lodi and Milan, which was originally a gentleman's country-house surrounded by ditches. In the year 1522, a body of Imperial troops were stationed in it, and stood the attack of the whole French army during the reign of Francis I. This engagement was called the battle of Bicoque.

BIDON, Fr. a sort of oblong ball or shot, which goes farther than a round one.

BIHOUAC, BIOUAC, BIOUVAC, or BIVOUAC, Fr. [from the German wacht, a double watch or guard.] A night-guard, or a detachment of the whole army, which during a siege, or in the presence of an enemy, marches out every night in squadrons or battalions to line the circumvallations or to take post in front of the camp, for the purpose of securing their quarters, preventing surprises, and of obstructing supplies. When an army does not encamp, but lies under arms all night, it is said to bivouac.

BILBO, a rapier or small sword was formerly so called.

BILL or BILL-1100X, a small hatchet, used for cutting wood for fascines, gabions, bavins, &c.

BILLET, a well-known ticket for quartering soldiers, which entitles each soldier, by act of parliament, to candles, vinegar, and salt, with the use of fire, and the necessary utensils for dressing and eating their meat. The allowance of small beer has been altered by a late regulation.

BILLET de logement, Fr. a billet for quarters. This billet or ticket was formerly delivered out to the French troops upon the same general principles that it is issued in England.

BILLET, blanc ou noir, Fr. a piece of white or black paper which is folded up, and serves to determine various matters by drawing lots.

BILLET de caise, Fr. an acknowledgement which is given in writing by the paymaster of a regiment for money in hand.

BILLET d'entrée à l'hôpital, Fr. a ticket which is given to a sick soldier to entitle him to a birth in the military hospital.

BILLET d'honneur, Fr. a written acknowledgement which is given by an officer for articles taken on credit; but this more frequently happens in matters of play.

BILLET de logement, Fr. a billet to entitle an officer or soldier to free quarters at an inn or elsewhere.

BILLETING, in the army, implies the quartering soldiers in the houses of any town or village.

BINACLE, a telescope with 2 tubes, so constructed, that a distant object might be seen with both eyes, now rarely used.

BIT,
BIT, the bridle of a horse which acts by the assistance of a curb. See CURB and BRIDON.

BLACK-HOLE, a place of confinement for soldiers, who may be confined therein by the commanding officer, but not by any inferior officer. In this place they are generally restricted to bread and water.

BLANKET, combustible things made of coarse paper steeped in a solution of saltpetre, which, when dry are again dipped in a composition of tallow, resin, and sulphur. They are used only in fireships.

BLAST and BLASTING. See MINES and MINING.

BLINDAGE, Fr. a work which is carried on along a trench, to secure it from the shells, &c. of a besieged garrison.

BLINDE, Fr. See BLINDS.

BLINDER, Fr. To make use of blinds.

BLINDS, in military affairs, are wooden frames composed of 4 pieces, either flat or round, two of which are 6 feet long, and the others 3 or 4 feet, which serve as spars to fasten the two first together: the longest are pointed at both ends, and the two others are fastened towards the extremities of the former, at about 10 or 12 inches from their points, the whole forming a rectangular parallelogram, the long sides of which project beyond the other about 10 or 12 inches. Their use is to fix them either upright, or in a vertical position, against the sides of the trenches or saps, to sustain the earth. Their points at the bottom serve to fix them in the earth, and those at top to hold the fascines that are placed upon them; so that the sap or trench is formed into a kind of covered gallery, to secure the troops from stones and grenades.

The term Blind is also used to express a kind of hurdle, made of the branches of trees, behind which the soldiers, miners, or labourers, may carry on their work without being seen. See HURDLE.

BLINDS are sometimes only canvas stretched to obstruct the sight of the enemy. Sometimes they are planks set up; for which see MANTLET. Sometimes they are made of a kind of coarse basket-work. See GARIONS. Sometimes of barrels, or sacks filled with earth. In short, they signify any thing that covers the labourers from the enemy.

BLIND. See ORillon and Fortification.

BLOCKADE, in military affairs, BLOCKADING, implies the surrounding a place with different bodies of troops, who shut up all the avenues on every side, and prevent every thing from going in or out of the place—this is usually effected by means of the cavalry. The design of the blockade is to oblige those who are shut up in the town to consume all their provisions, and by that means to compel them to surrender for want of subsistence.

Hence it appears that a blockade must last a long time, when a place is well provided with necessaries: for which reason this method of reducing a town is seldom taken, but when there is reason to believe the magazines are unprovided, or sometimes when the nature or situation of the place permits not the approaches to be made, which are necessary to attack it in the usual way.

Maritime towns, which have a port, are in much the same case as other towns, when their port can be blocked up, and the besiegers are masters of the sea, and can prevent succours from being conveyed that way into the place.

To Blockade, or to block up a place, is to shut up all the avenues, so that it cannot receive any relief either of men or provisions, &c.

To raise a Blockade, is to march from before the place, and leave it free and open as before.

To turn a siege into a Blockade, is to desist from a regular method of besieging, and to surround the place with those troops who had formed the siege.

To form a Blockade, is to surround the place with troops, and hinder any thing from going in or coming out.

BLOCUS, Fr. See BLOCKADE.

BLOCK-battery, in gynerry, a wooden battery for two or more small pieces, mounted on wheels, and moveable from place to place; very ready to fire en batter, in the galleries and casemates, &c. where room is wanted.

BLOCK-house, in the military art, a kind of wooden fort or fortification, sometimes mounted on rollers, or on a flat-bottomed vessel, serving either on the lakes or rivers, or in countercars and counter-approaches. This name is sometimes given to a brick or stone building
Bois de chauffage, Fr. the fuel which is distributed among French troops.

BOLT, an iron pin used for strengthening a piece of timber, or for fastening two or more articles together. Bolts in gunnery, being of several sorts, admit of various denominations, which arise from the specific application of them, as

1. Eye
2. Joint
3. Transom
4. Bed
5. Breeching
6. Bracket
7. Stool-bed
8. Garnish
9. Axle-tree
10. Bolster

See SHELL.

BOMB, Vessels made, very strong with large beams, particularly calculated for throwing shells into a town, castle, or fortification, from 13 and 10-inch mortars, two of which are placed on board of each ship. They are said to have been invented by one M. Reynieu, a Frenchman, and to have been first put in action at the bombardment of Algiers in 1681: till then it had been judged impracticable to bombard a place from the sea.

BOMB Tender, a small vessel of war laden with ammunition for the bomb ketch, and from which the latter is constantly supplied.

BOMBARD, (Bombarde, Fr.) an ancient piece of ordnance, so called, very short, and very thick, with an uncommon large bore. There have been bombardards which have thrown a ball or shell of 300 weight: they made use of cranes to load them. The Turks use some of them at present.

To BOMBARD, (Bombarder, Fr.) See BOMBARDING.

BOMBARDING, the act of as-

BOMBARDMENT, s sAulting a city or fortress, by throwing shells into it, in order to set fire to, and ruin the houses, churches, magazines, &c. and to do other mischief. As one of the effects of the shell results from its weight, it is never discharged as a ball from a cannon, that is, by pointing it at a certain object: but the mortars in England are fixed at an elevation of 45 degrees; that
that is, inclined so many degrees from
the horizon, that the shell describes a
curve, called the military projectile:
hence a mortar, whose trunnions are
placed at the breech, can have no point
blank range. I am of opinion that mor-
tars should be so contrived, that they
may be elevated to any degree required,
as much preferable to those fixed at an
angle of 45°; because shells should nev-
er be thrown at that angle but in one
single case only, which seldom happens;
that is, when the battery is so far off,
that they cannot otherwise reach the
works: for when shells are thrown from
the trenches into the works of a fortifi-
cation, or from the town into the trench-
es, they should have as little elevation
as possible, in order to roll along, and
not bury themselves; whereby the da-
mage they do, and the terror they cause
to the troops, is much greater than if
they sink into the ground. On the con-
trary, when shells are thrown upon ma-
gazines, or any other buildings, with an
intention to destroy them, the mortar
should be elevated as high as possible,
that the shells may acquire a greater
force in their fall.

Shells should be loaded with no more
powder than is requisite to burst them
into the greatest number of pieces, and
the length of the fuzes should be exactly
calculated according to the required
ranges; for, should the fuze set fire to
the powder in the shell before it falls on
the place intended, the shell will burst
in the air, and probably do more mis-
chief to those who fired the mortar, than
to those against whom it was discharged.

To prevent this, the fuzes are divided
into as many seconds as the greatest
range requires, consequently may be cut
to any distance, at an elevation of 45
degrees.

Mortars are not to be fired with two
fires; for when the fuze is properly
fixed, and both fuze and shell dredged
with mealed powder, the blast of the
powder in the chamber of the mortar,
when inflamed by the tube, will likewise
set fire to the fuze in the shell.

BOMBARDIERS, artillery soldiers,
so called because they are always em-
ployed in mortar and howitzer duty,
They are to load them on all occasions;
and in most services they load the shells
and grenades, fix the fuzes, prepare the

composition both for fuzes and tubes,
and fire both mortars and howitzers on
every occasion. In the English service,
shells and grenades, composition for the
same, fuzes, &c. are prepared in the
laboratory by people well skilled in that
business.

In most foreign services both officers
and soldiers belonging to the companies
of bombardiers have an extraordinary
pay, as it requires more mathematical
learning to throw shells with some de-
gree of exactness, than is requisite for
the rest of the artillery. In the British
service a specific number is attached to
each company of artillery; but they do
not form a separate corps as in other
countries.

BOMBELLES, Fr. diminutive bombs
or shells, which are used against a be-
sieged fortress, or for the purpose of
creating confusion among a body of
men.

BON, Fr. a written document which
always precedes the signature of a so-
vereign or a minister, and by which
some appointment is confirmed to one
or more persons.

BONAVOGLIE, Fr. a man that for
a certain consideration voluntarily en-
gages to row.

BONNET, in fortification, implies a
small but useful work, that greatly
annoys the enemy in their lodgments.
This work consists of two faces, which
make a salient angle in the nature of a
ravelin, without any ditch, having only
a parapet three feet high, and 10 or 12
feet broad. They are made at the sa-
lent angles of the glacis, outworks, and
body of the place, beyond the counter-
scarp, and in the faussebray. See For-
tification.

BONNET À PRÊTÈRE, or PRÎTÈS-CAP,
in fortification, is an outwork, having
three salient and two inward angles, and
differs from the double tenaille only in
having its sides incline inwards towards
the gorge, and those of a double tenaille
are parallel to each other. See Forti-
fication.

BORDER, in military drawings, im-
plies single or double lines, or any other
ornament, round a drawing, &c.

BORDEREAU, Fr. a sort of diary
which is kept in a troop or company,
for the purpose of ascertaining what
articles have been distributed, and
what
what money has been paid to the soldiers.

BOOKS. There are different books made use of in the British army, for the specific purposes of general and regimental economy.

The general orderly book is kept by the adjutant-major, from which the leading orders of regiments, conveying the parade and countersigns, are always taken.

The regimental orderly book contains the peculiar instructions of corps which are given by a colonel or commanding officer to the adjutant-Hence adjutant's orderly book.-And from him to the serjeant-major, who delivers the same to the different serjeants of companies assembled in the orderly room for that purpose. Hence the company's orderly book.

The regimental book is kept by the clerk of the regiment, and contains all the records, &c. belonging to the corps.

The black book is a sort of memorandum which is kept in every regiment to describe the character and conduct of non-commissioned officers and soldiers; when and how often they have been reduced or punished, &c.

Every quarter-master belonging to the cavalry and infantry has likewise a book which may not improperly be called a book or inventory of regimental stores, &c.

Practice book. A book containing the weight, range, &c. of cannon; and also the manner of exercising with pieces of artillery. Every officer belonging to the royal artillery ought to have a book of practice.

Description book. This book is likewise called regimental book.

BOOM, in marine fortification, is a box piece of timber, with which rivers or harbours are stopped, to prevent the enemy coming in: it is sometimes done by a cable or chain, and floated with yards, top-masts, or spars of wood lashed on.

BONE, in gunnery, implies the cavity of the barrel of a gun, mortar, howitzer, or any other piece of ordnance. See CANNON.

BONNE, Fr. a term used in the French artillery to express a glass bottle which is very thin, contains four or five pounds of powder, and round the neck of which four or five matches are hung under, after it has been well corked. A cord, two or three feet in length, is tied to the bottle, which serves to throw it. The instant the bottle breaks, the powder catches fire, and every thing within the immediate effects of the explosion is destroyed.

BOOTS, a familiar term used in the British service. It means the youngest officer at a regimental mess, and takes its origin, most probably, from what is generally called boots at an inn.

BONNOYER, Fr. To look along any surface, &c. with one eye, in order to ascertain whether it be straight.

BOTTE, Fr. boots.

Grosses Botte, Fr. jack boots.

BOTTINE, Fr. half boots worn by the hussars and dragoons in foreign armies.

BOUCHE, Fr. The aperture or mouth of a piece of ordnance, that of a mortar, of the barrel of a musquet, and of every species of fire-arms from which a ball or bullet is discharged.

BOUCHES à feu, Fr. This word is generally used to signify pieces of ordnance.

Grosse Bouche à feu, Fr. a piece of heavy ordnance. A mortar and a howitzer are so called.

Petite Bouche à feu, Fr. a carbine, musquet, pistol, and every species of small fire arms are so called.

Bouche d'un canon, d'un mortier, &c. the mouth or opening of a piece of ordnance, mortar, &c.

Bouches d'une armée, Fr. This term is sometimes used among the French, to signify the persons who contract with the quarter-master general's department for a regular supply of meat.

BOULANGERIE, Fr. A bakery. The spot where bread is baked for an army, or where biscuits are made at a seaport.

BOULANGERS, Fr. bakers. Persons of this description are generally attached to armies.

BOULER la matière, Fr. to stir up the different metals which are used in casting cannon.

BOULETS à deux têtes, Fr. chain-shot.

BOULETS enchainés, Fr. chain-shot.

BOULETS ramés, Fr. barred-shot.

BOULETS rouges, Fr. red-hot shot.

BOULETS-a-deux têtes, ou anges, Fr. double-headed shot.

BOULEVART, Fr. formerly meant a bastion. It is no longer used as a military phrase, although it sometimes occurs.

England, was killed by a cross-bow at the siege of Chalus.

BOW MAN. See Archer.

BOW-YEER. The man who made or repaired the military bows was so called.

BOXES, in military affairs, are of several sorts, and for various purposes.

Battery-Boxes. See Battery.

Cartouch-Boxes. See Cartouch.

Nace-Boxes, are made of iron, and fastened one at each end of the nave, to prevent the arms of the axle-tree, about which the boxes turn, from causing too much friction.

Tea-Boxes, such as are filled with small shot for grape, according to the size of the gun they are to be fired out of.

Wood-Boxes, with lids, for holding grape-shot, &c. Each calibre has its own, distinguished by marks of the calibre on the lid.

BOYAU, in fortification, is a particular trench separated from the others, which, in winding about, incloses different spaces of ground, and runs parallel with the works of the place, that it may not be enfiladed. When two attacks are made at once, one near to the other, the boyau makes a communication between the trenches, and serves as a line of contravallation, not only to hinder the sallies of the besieged, but likewise to secure the miners.

BRACES, in a military sense, are a kind of armour for the arm: they were formerly a part of a coat of mail. The straps which are worn across the shoulders, in order to suspend the breeches, are also called Braces.

BRACKETS, in gunnery, are the checks of the travelling carriage of a mortar; they are made of strong wood-and-panks. This name is also given to that part of a large mortar-bed, where the trunnions are placed, for the elevation of the mortar: they are sometimes made of wood, and more frequently of iron, of almost a semicircular figure, well fastened with nails and strong plates.

BRANCHARD ou citére, Fr. a hand-barrow, or litter. This word literally means shaft. It is sometimes used as a machine to carry sick or wounded soldiers upon.

BRANCHE, Fr. Branch. This word is peculiarly adapted to the covert-way, ditch, horn-works, and to every part of a fortification; and signifies the long sides of the different works which surround a fortified town or camp. See Mine and Gallery.

BRANCHE d'un projet de guerre, offensive ou defensive, Fr. This term comprehends the various designs and means which are embraced to carry on offensive or defensive measures.

BRAND, an ancient term for a sword; so called by the Saxons.

BRAQUEMART, Fr. a broad short sword, which is usually worn on the left side, and is properly a cutlass.

BRAQUER, Fr. A word sometimes improperly used to express the movement of a cannon to any particular side. The correct expression is, to point the cannon, pointer le canon.

BRASSAR la Matière, Fr. to mix the different ingredients which are required for the making of gun-powder or other combustible matter.

BRASSARS, Fr. thin plates of beaten iron which were anciently used to cover the arms above the coat of mail.

Brassars and cuirasses were worn in the days of St. Louis.

BRAVOURE, Fr. According to the author of the French Military Dictionary, this word signifies any act of courage and valour by which the enterprising character of a man is distinguished. This quality is peculiarly manifest among grenadiers.

BREACH, Breche, Fr. in fortification, a gap, or opening, in any part of the works of a fortified place, made by the artillery or mines of the besiegers, preparatory to the making an assault.

To Repair a BREACH, is to stop or fill up the gap with gabions, fascines, &c. and prevent the assault.

To fortify a Breach, is to render it inaccessible with chevaux-de-frize, crow’s-feet, &c.

To make a lodgment in the BREACH. After the besieged are driven away, the besiegers secure themselves against any future attack in the breach.

To clear the BREACH, that is, to remove the ruins, that it may be the better defended.

BREAK-off, a term used when cavalry is ordered to diminish its front—similar to file-off in the infantry. It is G 2 also
also used to signify wheeling from line; as breaking-off to the left, for wheeling to the left.

To BREAK-Ground. To make the first opening of the earth to form entrenchments, as at the commencement of a siege. It applies also to the striking of tents and quitting the ground on which any troops had been encamped.

BREAST-PLATE, in military antiquity, a piece of defensive armour worn on the breast of both men and horses. They are but seldom used now.

BREAST-work. See Parapet.

Breach, Fr. Any opening which is made by force. It is also used among the French, to signify a successful charge upon a body of men.

BREECH of a gun, the end near the vent. See Cannon.

BREVET rank, is a rank in the army higher than that for which you receive pay. It gives precedence (when corps are brigaded) according to the date of the brevet commission.

BREVET, Fr. commission, appointment. Under the old government of France it consisted in letters or appointments signed by the king, by virtue of which every officer was authorized to discharge his particular duty. All officers in the old French service, from a cornet or sub-lieutenant up to a marshal of France were stiled Officiers à Brévet.

Brevets d’Assurance ou de Retenue d’Argent, Fr. certain military and civil appointments granted by the old kings of France, which were distinguished from other places of trust, in as much as every successor was obliged to pay a certain sum of money to the heirs of the deceased, or for the discharge of his debts. Hence the term brevet d’assurance ou de retenue.

BRICKS, substances composed of an earthly matter, which are hardened by art: they may be very well considered as artificial stone. Bricks are of very great antiquity, as appears from sacred history, the tower of Babel being built with them; and it is said the remains are still visible. The Greeks and Romans, &c. generally used bricks in their buildings, witness the Pantheon, &c. In the east they baked their bricks in the sun. The Romans used them unburnt, having first left them to dry in the air for 3, 4, or 5 years.

The best bricks must not be made of any earth that is full of sand or gravel, nor of such as is gritty or stony; but of a greyish marle, or whitish chalky clay, or at least of reddish earth. But if there is a necessity to use that which is sandy, choice should be made of that which is tough and strong.

The best season for making bricks is the spring; because they will be subject to crack, and be full of chinks, if made in the summer: the loam should be well steeped or soaked, and wrought with water. They are shaped in a mould, and, after some drying in the sun or air, are burnt to a hardness. This is our manner of making bricks; but whether they were always made in this manner admits a doubt. We are not clear what was the use of straw in the bricks for building in Egypt, or why in some part of Germany they mix sawdust in their clay for bricks.

We are in general tied down by custom to one form, and one size; which is truly ridiculous: 8 or 9 inches in length, and 4 in breadth, is our general measure: but beyond doubt there might be other forms, and other sizes, introduced very advantageously. Bricks, without any particular form or shape, are used in the north of England to make up the public roads, &c. particularly those in the neighbourhood of Sheffield, Wakefield, and Leeds.

Compass Bricks, are of a circular form; their use is for steering of walls; we have also concave, and semi-cylindrical, used for different purposes.

Grey Stocks, are made of the purest earth, and better wrought: they are used in front in building, being the strongest and handsomest of this kind.

Place Bricks, are made of the same earth, or worse, with a mixture of dirt from the streets, and being carelessly put out of hand, are therefore weaker and more brittle, and are only used out of sight, and where little stress is laid on them.

Red Stocks, are made of a particular earth, well wrought, and little injured by mixture: they are used in fine work, and ornaments.

Hedgerly Bricks, are made of a yellowish coloured loam, very hard to the touch, containing a great quantity of sand: their particular excellence is, that
that they will bear the greatest violence of fire without hurt.

BRIDGES, in military affairs, are of several sorts and denominations, viz.

Rush-Bridges, are made of large bundles of rushes, bound fast together, over which planks are laid, and fastened; these are put in marshy places, for the army to pass over in any emergency.

Pendant or hanging Bridges, are those not supported by posts, pillars, or buttments, but hung at large in the air, sustained only at the two ends.

Draw-Bridge, that which is fastened with hinges at one end only, so that the other may be drawn up (in which case the bridge is almost perpendicular) to hinder the passage of a ditch, &c. There are others made to draw back and hinder the passage; and some that open in the middle; one half of which turns away to one side, and the other half to the other, and both again join at pleasure.

Ferry-Bridge, is generally made of two small bridges, laid one over the other, in such a manner that the uppermost stretches out by the help of certain cords running through pulleys placed along the sides of the upper bridge, which push it forwards, till the end of it joins the place it is intended to be fixed on. They are frequently used to surprise works, or out-posts that have only narrow ditches.

Bridge of boats, is a number of common boats joined parallel to each other, at the distance of 6 feet, till they reach across the river; which being covered with strong planks, and fastened with anchors and ropes, the troops march over.

Bridge of communication, is that made over a river, by which two armies, or forts, which are separated by that river, have a free communication with one another.

Floating-Bridge, a bridge made use of in form of a work in fortification called a redoubt; consisting of two boats, covered with planks, which are soundly framed, so as to bear either horse or artillery. Bridges of this kind are frequently used.

Ponson-Bridge, a number of tin or copper boats placed at the distance of 7 or 8 feet asunder, each fastened with an anchor, or a strong rope that goes across the river, running through the rings of the pontons. They are covered with baulks, and then with chests or planks, for the army to walk over. See Ponton.

Cask, or Barrel Bridge, a number of empty casks that support baulks and planks, made as above into a bridge, where pontons, &c. are wanting. Experience has taught us that 5 tun of empty casks will support above water 9000 pounds: hence any calculation may be made.

BRIDGES are made of carpentry or masonry. The number of arches of a bridge is generally made odd; either that the middle of the stream or chief current may flow freely without interruption of a pier; or that the two halves of the bridge, by gradually rising from the ends to the middle, may there meet in the highest and largest arch; or else, for the sake of grace, that by being open in the middle, the eye in viewing it may look directly through, as we always expect to do in looking at it, and without which opening we generally feel a disappointment in viewing it.

If the bridge be equally high throughout, the arches, being all of a height, are made of one size, which causes a great saving of centering. If the bridge be higher in the middle than at the ends, let the arches decrease from the middle towards each end, but so that each half have the arches exactly alike, and that they decrease in span proportionally to their height, so as to be always the same kind of figure. Bridges should rather be of few and large arches, than of many and small ones, if the height and situation will allow of it.

Names of all the Terms peculiar to Bridges, &c.

Abutment. See Butments.

Arch, an opening of a bridge, through or under which the water, &c. passes, and which is supported by piers or buttments. Arches are denominated circular, elliptical, cycloidal, catenarian, equilibrail, gothic, &c. according to their figure or curve.

Archivolt, the curve or line formed by the upper sides of the voussoirs or arch-stones. It is parallel to the intrados or under side of the arch when the voussoirs are all of the same length; otherwise not.
By the archivolts is also sometimes understood the whole set of voussoirs.

Banquet, the raised foot-path at the sides of the bridge next the parapet: it is generally raised about a foot above the middle or horse-passage, and 3, 4, 5, 6, or 7, &c. feet broad, according to the size of the bridge, and paved with large stones, whose length is equal to the breadth of the walk.

Battardeau, or 1 a case of piling, &c. Coffer-dam, without a bottom, fixed in the river, water-tight or nearly so, by which to lay the bottom dry for a space large enough to build the pier on. When it is fixed, its sides reaching above the level of the water, the water is pumped out of it, or drawn off by engines, &c. till the space be dry: and it is kept so by the same means, until the pier is built up in it, and then the materials of it are drawn up again. Battardeaux are made in various manners, either by a single inclosure, or by a double one, with clay or chalk rammed in between the two, to prevent the water from coming through the sides: and these inclosures are also made either with piles only, driven close by one another; and sometimes notched or dovetailed into each other, or with piles grooved in the sides, driven in at a distance from one another, and boards let down between them in the grooves.

Butments, are the extremities of a bridge, by which it joins to, or abuts upon, the land, or sides of the river, &c.

These must be made very secure, quite immovable, and more than barely sufficient to resist the drift of its adjacent arch; so that, if there are not rocks or very solid banks to raise them against, they must be well reinforced with proper walls or returns, &c.

Caisson, a kind of chest, or flat-bottomed boat, in which a pier is built, then sunk to the bed of the river, and the sides loosened and taken off from the bottom, by a contrivance for that purpose; the bottom of it being left under the pier as a foundation. It is evident therefore, that the bottoms of the caissons must be made very strong and fit for the foundations of the piers. The caisson is kept afloat till the pier be built to the height of low-water mark; and for that purpose its sides must either be made of more than that height at first, or else gradually raised to it, as it sinks by the weight of the work, so as always to keep its top above water: and therefore the sides must be made very strong, and kept asunder by cross timbers within, lest the great pressure of the ambient water crush the sides in, and so not only endanger the work, but also drown the workmen within it. The caisson is made of the shape of the pier, but some feet wider on every side to make room for the men to work; the whole of the sides are of two pieces, both joined to the bottom quite round, and to each other at the salient angle, so as to be disengaged from the bottom, and from each other, when the pier is raised to the desired height, and sunk. It is also convenient to have a little sluice made in the bottom, occasionally to open and shut, to sink the caisson and pier sometimes by, before it be finished, to try if it bottom level and rightly; for by opening the sluice, the water will rush in and fill it to the height of the exterior water, and the weight of the work already built will sink it; then by shutting the sluice again, and pumping out the water, it will be made to float again, and the rest of the work may be completed. It must not however be sunk except when the sides are high enough to reach above the surface of the water, otherwise it cannot be raised and laid dry again.

Mr. Labeyle tells us, that the caissons in which he built Westminster bridge, contained 150 load of fir timber, of 40 cubic feet each, and were of more tonnage or capacity than a 40 gun ship of war.

Centres, are the timber frames erected in the spaces of the arches to turn them on, by building on them the voussoirs of the arch. As the centre serves as a foundation for the arch to be built on, when the arch is completed, that foundation is struck from under it, to make way for the water and navigation, and then the arch will stand of itself from its curved figure. The center must be constructed of the exact figure of the intended arch, convex, as the arch is concave, to receive it on as a mould. If the form be circular, the curve is struck from a central point by a radius; if it be elliptical, it should be struck with a double cord, passing over two pins fixed in the fociusses, as the mathematicians describe their ellipses; and
and not by striking different pieces or
arts of circles from several centres:
for these will form no ellipsis at all,
but an irregular misshapen curve made
up of broken pieces of different circular
arches; but if the arch be of any other
form, the several abscissas and ordinates
should be calculated; then their
respective lengths, transferred to
the centering, will give so many points
of the curve; by bending a bow of
pliable matter, according to those
points, the curve may be drawn.

The centers are constructed of beams
of timber, firmly pinned and bound
together, into one entire compact frame,
covered smooth at top with planks or
boards to place the voussoirs on; the
whole supported by off-sets in the sides
of the piers, and by piles driven into the
bed of the river, and capable of being
raised and depressed by wedges con-
trolled for that purpose, and for taking
the down when the arch is completed.

They should also be constructed of
strength more than sufficient to bear
the weight of the arch.

Taking the centre down, first let
it down a little, all in a piece, by easing
some of the wedges; then let it rest a
few days to try if the arch makes any
efforts to fall, or any joints open, or
any stones crush or crack, &c. that the
damage may be repaired before the
centre is entirely removed, which is not
to be done till the arch ceases to make
any visible efforts.

Crest. See Caisson.

Cofer-dam. See Battardeau.

Drift, $p$ of an arch, is the push or
Shoot, or $p$ force which it exerts in the
Thrust, $p$ direction of the length of
the bridge. This force arises from the
perpendicular gravitation of the stones
of the arch, which being kept from de-
scribing by the form of the arch, and
the resistance of the pier, exert their
force in a lateral or horizontal direction.
This force is computed in Prop. 10, of
Mr. Hutton's Principles of Bridges,
where the thickness of the pier is deter-
mimed that is necessary to resist it, and
is greater the lower the arch is, ceteris
paribus.

Elevation, the orthographic projec-
tion of the front of a bridge, on the ver-
tical plane, parallel to its length. This
is necessary to shew the form and di-

as to height and breadth, and therefore
has a plain scale annexed to it, to mea-
sure the parts by. It also shews the
manner of working up and decorating
the fronts of the bridge.

Extrados, the exterior curvature, or
line of an arch. In the propositions of
the second section of Professor Hutton's
Principles of Bridges, it is the outer or
upper line of the wall above the arch;
but it often means only the upper or ex-
terior curve of the voussoirs.

Foundations, the bottoms of the piers,
&c. or the bases on which they are built.
These bottoms are always to be made
with projections, greater or less, ac-
cording to the spaces on which they are
built. Agreeable to the nature of the
ground, depth and velocity of water,
&c. the foundations are laid, and the
piers built after different manners, either
in caissons, in battardeaux, on stilts
with stiltings, &c. for the particular
method of doing which, see each under
its respective term.

The most obvious and simple method
of laying the foundations and raising the
piers up to the water-mark, is to turn
the river out of its course above the
place of the bridge, into a new channel
for it near the place where it makes
an elbow or turn; then the piers are
built on dry ground, and the water
turned into its old course again; the
new one being securely banked up. This
is certainly the best method, when the
new channel can be easily and con-
vieniently made. It is, however, seldom
or never the case.

Another method is, to lay only the
space of each pier dry till it be built, by
surrounding it with piles and planks
driven down into the bed of the river,
so close together as to exclude the water
from coming in; then the water is
pumped out of the inclosed space, the
pier built in it, and lastly the piles and
planks drawn up. This is coffer-dam
work, but evidently cannot be practised
if the bottom be of a loose consistence,
admitting the water to ooze and spring
up through it.

When neither the whole nor part of
the river can be easily laid dry as above,
other methods are to be used; such as
to build either in caissons or on stilts,
both which methods are described under
their proper words; or yet by another
method, which hath, though seldom,
been
been sometimes used, without laying the bottom dry, and which is thus: the pier is built upon strong rafts or gratings of timber, well bound together, and buoyed up on the surface of the water by strong cables, fixed to the other floats or machines till the pier is built; the whole is then gently let down to the bottom, which must be made level for the purpose: but of these methods, that of building in caissons is best.

But before the pier can be built in any manner, the ground at the bottom must be well secured, and made quite good and safe, if it be not so naturally! The space must be bored into, to try the consistence of the ground; and if a good bottom of stone, or firm gravel, clay, &c. be met with, within a moderate depth below the bed of the river, the loose sand, &c. must be removed and dug out to it, and the foundation laid on the firm bottom on a strong grating or base of timber made much broader every way than the pier, that there may be the greater base to press on, to prevent its being sunk; but if a solid bottom cannot be found at a convenient depth to dig to, the space must then be driven full of strong piles, whose tops must be sawed off level some feet below the bed of the water, the sand having been previously dug out for that purpose; and then the foundation on a grating of timber laid on their tops as before: or, when the bottom is not good, if it be made level, and a strong grating of timber, 2, 3, or 4 times as large as the base of the pier be made, it will form a good base to build on, its great size preventing it from sinking. In driving the piles, begin at the middle, and proceed outwards all the way to the borders or margin; the reason of which is, that if the outer ones were driven first, the earth of the inner space would be thereby so jammed together, as not to allow the inner piles to be driven: and besides the piles immediately under the piers, it is also very prudent to drive in a single, double, or triple row of them round, and close to the frame of the foundation, cutting them off a little above it, to secure it from slipping aside out of its place, and to bind the ground under the pier firmer: for, as the safety of the whole bridge depends on the foundation, too much care

cannot be used to have the bottom made quite secure.

Jettée, the border made round the stilts under a pier. See Sterling.

Impost, is the part of the pier on which the feet of the arches stand, or from which they spring.

Key-stone, the middle vousoir, or the arch-stone in the top or immediately over the centre of the arch. The length of the key-stone, or thickness of the archivolt at top, is allowed to be about 1-15th or 1-16th of the span by the best architects.

Orthography, the elevation of a bridge or front view, as seen at an infinite distance.

Parapet, the breast-wall made on the top of a bridge to prevent passengers from falling over. In good bridges, to build the parapet but a little part of its height close or solid, and upon that a balustrade to above a man's height, has an elegant effect.

Piers, the walls built for the support of the arches, and from which they spring as their bases. They should be built of large blocks of stone, solid throughout, and cramped together with iron, which will make the whole as one solid stone. Their faces or ends, from the base up to high-water mark, should project sharp out with a salient angle, to divide the stream: or perhaps the bottom of the pier should be built flat or square up to about half the height of low-water mark, to allow a lodgement against it for the sand and mud, to go over the foundation; lest, by being kept bare, the water should in time undermine, and so ruin or injure it. The best form of the projection for dividing the stream, is the triangle; and the longer it is, or the more acute the salient angle, the better it will divide it, and the less will the force of the water be against the pier; but it may be sufficient to make that angle a right one, as it will make the work stronger; and in that case the perpendicular projection will be equal to half the breadth or thickness of the pier. In rivers, on which large heavy craft navigate and pass the arches, it may, perhaps, be better to make the ends semicircular: for, although it does not divide the water so well as the triangle, it will both better turn off and bear the shock of the craft.
The thickness of the piers should be such as will make them of weight or strength sufficient to support their interjacent arch independent of any other arches; and then, if the middle of the pier be run up to its full height, the centering may be struck to be used in another arch before the hanches are filled up. The whole theory of the piers may be seen in the third section of Professor Hutton's Principles of Bridges.

They should be made with a broad bottom on the foundation, and gradually diminishing in thickness by off-sets up to low-water mark.

Piles, are timbers driven into the bed of the river for various purposes, and are either round, square, or flat like planks. They may be of any wood which will not rot under water; but oak and fir are mostly used, especially the latter, on account of its length, straightness, and cheapness. They are shod with a pointed iron at the bottom, the better to penetrate into the ground, and are bound with a strong iron-band or ring at top, to prevent them from being split by the violent strokes of the ram by which they are driven down.

Piles are either used to build the foundations on, or they are driven about the pier as a border of defence, or to support the centers on; and in this case when the centering is removed, they must either be drawn up, or sawed off very low under water; but it is perhaps better to saw them off and leave them sticking in the bottom, lest the drawing of them out should loosen the ground about the foundation of the pier. Those to build on, are either such as are cut off by the bottom of the water, or rather a few feet within the bed of the river: or else such as are cut off at low-water mark, and then they are called stilts. Those to form borders of defence, are rows driven in close by the frame of a foundation, to keep it firm, or else they are to form a case or jetée about the stilts, to keep the stones within it, that are thrown in to fill it up: in this case the piles are grooved, driven at a little distance from each other, and plank piles let into the grooves between them, and driven down also, till the whole space is surrounded. Besides using this for stilts, it is sometimes necessary to surround a stone pier with a sterling, or jetée, and fill it up with stones to secure an injured pier from being still more damaged, and the whole bridge ruined. The piles to support the centers may also serve as a border of piling to secure the foundation, cutting them off low enough after the center is removed.

Pile-driver, an engine for driving down the piles. It consists of a large ram or iron sliding perpendicularly down between two guide-posts; which being lifted up to the top of them, and there let fall from a great height, comes down upon the top of the pile with a violent blow. It is worked either with men or horses, and either with or without wheel-work. That which was used at the building of Westminster bridge, is perhaps the best ever invented.

Pitch, of an arch, the perpendicular height from the spring or impost to the key-stone.

Plan, of any part, as of the foundations, or piers, or superstructure, is the orthographic projection of it on a plane parallel to the horizon.

Push, of an arch. See Drift.

Salient angle, of a pier, the projection of the end against the stream, to divide itself. The right-lined angle best divides the stream, and the more acute, the better for that purpose; but the right angle is generally used, as making the best masonry. A semicircular end, though it does not divide the stream so well, is sometimes better in large navigable rivers, as it carries the craft the better off, or bears their shocks the better.

Shoot, of an arch. See Drift.

Springers, are the first or lowest stones of an arch, being those at its feet, and bearing immediately on the impost.

Sterlings, or Jettées, a kind of case made about a pier of stilts, &c. to secure it, and is particularly described under the next word, Stilts.

Stilts, a set of piles driven into the space intended for the pier, whose tops being sawed level off, above low-water mark, the pier is then raised on them. This method was formerly used when the bottom of the river could not be laid dry; and these stilts were surrounded, at a few feet distance, by a row of piles and planks, &c. close to them, like a

coffer-
coffer-dam, and called a sterling, or jetée; after which loose stones, &c. are thrown or poured down into the space, 'till it is filled up to the top, by that means forming a kind of pier of rubble or loose work, and which is kept together by the sides or sterlings: this is then paved level at the top, and the arches turned upon it. This method was formerly much used; most of the large old bridges in England being erected that way, such as London bridge, Newcastle bridge, Rochester bridge, &c. But the inconveniences attending it are so great, that it is now quite disused: for, because of the loose composition of the piers, they must be made very large or broad, or else the arch must push them over, and rush down as soon as the center was drawn; which great breadth of piers and sterlings so much contracts the passage of the water, as not only very much to incommode the navigation through the arch, from the full and quick motion of the water; but likewise to put the bridge itself in much danger, especially in time of floods, when the water is too much for the passage. Add to this, that besides the danger there is of the pier bursting out the sterlings, they are also subject to much decay and damage by the velocity of the water and the craft passing through the arches.

The sword hilt is above the helmet; the blade crossing the back of the head, the point of the left shoulder, and the bridle-arm; its edge directed to the left, and turned a little upwards, in order to bring the mounting in a proper direction to protect the hand.

BRIDON or BRIDON, the snaffle and rein of a military bridle; which acts independently of the bit and curb at the pleasure of the rider.

BRIGADE, in military affairs, implies a party or division of a body of soldiers, whether horse, foot, or artillery, under the command of a brigadier. There are, properly speaking, three sorts of brigades, viz. the brigade of an army, the brigade of a troop of horse, and the brigade of artillery. A brigade of the army is either foot or dragoons, whose exact number is not fixed, but generally consists of 3 regiments, or 6 battalions: a brigade of horse may consist of 8, 10, or 12 squadrons; and that of artillery, of 8 or 10 pieces of cannon, with all their appurtenances. The eldest brigade takes the right of the first line, the second of the second line, and the rest in order, the youngest always possessing the center. The cavalry and artillery observe the same order.

The horse artillery in the British service are called the horse Brigade; and consist of 6 troops, with their guns and stores. Their head quarters are at Woolwich, where handsome barracks, detached from those of the royal artillery, have been erected for their accommodation.

BRIGADE-Major, an officer appointed by the brigadier, to assist him in the management of his brigade. The most experienced captains are generally nominated to this post. According to the regulations published by authority, a brigade-major is attached to the brigade, and not to any particular brigadier-general, as the aid-de-camp is.

BRIGADE-Major-General. The military commands in Great-Britain being divided into districts, an office has been established for the sole transaction of brigade duties. Through this office all orders from the commander-in-chief to the generals of districts relative to corps of officers, &c. must pass—For further information on this head, see James's Regimental Companion.

BRIGADE of Engineers, a brigade of engineers.
engineers may consist of only two or three officers, who are attached to an army.

Brigade, Fr. according to the French signifies the union of several squadrons or battalions, under the command of one colonel, who has also the rank of brigadier general in the army.

Brigade also signifies the junction of two troops belonging to the same corps. Likewise the incorporation of several soldiers belonging to the same regiment.

Brigade d'Artillerie, Fr. a certain quantity of cannon, &c. with the necessary stores, &c. The soldiers that are attached to these guns, are collectively called a brigade.

Brigade de Cavalerie, Fr. Among the French a brigade of cavalry consists of different regiments, making together eight or ten squadrons, who are under the command of a superior officer, who is a colonel of cavalry, and has the rank of brigadier general in the army.

Brigade de Dragons, Fr. this brigade consists of different regiments of dragoons; making together, (according to the respective strength of each regiment) eight squadrons or more. It is commanded by a colonel of dragoons, who has also the rank of brigadier general in the army.

Brigade d'Infanterie, Fr. a brigade of infantry consists of one or more regiments of foot, making together four, five, six, or eight battalions, which are under the command of a colonel of foot, who has the rank of brigadier general in the army.

Brigade de Boulangers, Fr. It was usual in the old French service to brigade the bakers belonging to the army. Each brigade consisted of one master baker and three boys.

Brigadier, a military officer, whose rank is next above that of a colonel; appointed to command a corps consisting of several battalions or regiments, called a brigade. This title in England is suppressed in time of peace, but revived in actual service in the field. Every brigadier marches at the head of his brigade upon duty. Brigadiers, whether of horse or foot, in garrison, or elsewhere, take command according to the dates of their commissions. Formerly the brigadier of foot commanded the brigadier of horse in garrison; and the brigadier of horse, the brigadier of foot in the field.

Brigadier, (Brigadier, Fr.) a certain rank which is given to a mounted soldier. He is next to the quarter-master.

Brigadier des Armées, Fr. This corresponds with our term Brigadier-General. A brigadier-general ranks above a colonel, and has the command of a brigade of cavalry, dragoons, or infantry.

Brigadier d'Équipage, Fr. a sort of head commissary or wagon master general, who has the superintendence of the different carts, &c. belonging to an army.

Brigand, Fr. A free-booter; every soldier who, contrary to orders and the acknowledged usages of war, commits acts of plunder.

Brigandine or Brigantine, in ancient military history, a coat of mail, or kind of defensive armour, consisting of tin.

Brigue, Fr. a plot or conspiracy which is formed against a commanding officer, to deprive him of his situation.

Bringer, a term used in the recruiting branch of the British service, to signify a person who produces a man or boy, within the regulated age, that is willing to enlist. He is allowed one guinea for his trouble.

Bringers-up, an antiquated military expression, to signify the whole rear rank of a battalion drawn up, as being the hindmost men of every file.

Brins-d'Est, Fr. large sticks or poles resembling small pickets, with iron at each end. They are used to cross ditches, particularly in Flanders.

Brisure, in fortification, is a line of 4 or 5 fathom, which is allowed to the curtain and orillon, to make the hollow tower, or to cover the concealed flank.

Broadside, in a sea-fight, implies the discharge of all the artillery on one side of a ship of war.

Broad-sword, a sword with a broad blade, chiefly designed for cutting; not at present much used in the British service, except by some few regiments of cavalry and Highland infantry. Among the cavalry, this weapon has in general given place to the sabre.

The principal guards with the broad sword are:

The inside guard (similar to carte in fencing
feathering) which is formed by directing your point in a line about 6 inches higher than your antagonist's left eye, the hilt opposite your own breast, the finger nails turned upwards, and the edge of the sword to the left.

The outside guard (resembling tierce) in which by a turn of the wrist from the former position the point of the sword is directed above your antagonist's right eye, and the edge of the weapon turned to the right, to protect the outside of your body from the attack.

The medium guard, which is a position between the inside and outside guard, seldom used, as it affords very little protection.

The hanging guard (similar to prime and second), in which the hilt of your sword is raised high enough to view your opponent under the shell, and the point directed towards his body.

The St. George's guard, which protects the head, and differs from the last described only in raising the hand somewhat higher, and bringing the point nearer to yourself.

The swords worn by officers of the infantry being constructed either for cutting or thrusting, it is necessary for gentlemen to be acquainted both with the method of attacking and defending with the broad sword and with the rapier. Those who have not the opportunity of regular lessons from a profession teacher, may obtain much useful information from a work entitled the Art of Defence on Foot, with the Broad Sword, &c. in which the spadroon or cut and thrust sword play is reduced into a regular system.

BRODEQUINS, Fr. buskins or half boots. They are generally worn by light armed troops.

BROND. See BRAND.

BROTHER-SOLDIERS, (Frères d'Armes, Fr.) An affectionate and endearing term which is used among military men, from the commander in chief of an army to the lowest drumbay inclusive. Soldiers ought, in fact, to constitute a family within themselves. The cause they have to defend, and the dangers they must encounter, are so many motives for mutual attachment.

BROUETTE, Fr. a wheelbarrow; such as is used in the construction or demolition of fortified places.

BROWNBILL, the ancient weapon of the English foot, resembling a battle-ax.

BRUNT. The troops who sustain the principal shock of the enemy in action, are said to bear the brunt of the battle.

BRUSQUER une attaque, Fr. is to open the trenches in the nearest approaches to a place, completing the works from the front towards the rear. This undertaking is extremely hazardous, unless the object invested, or attacked, be ill-garrisoned, have a narrow front to besiege, or the ditches be dry, &c.

BRUSQUER l'affaire, Fr. to attack suddenly, and without attending to any regular rule of military manoeuvre.

BUCCANEERS, in military history, a name frequently applied to those famous adventurers, consisting of pirates, &c. from all the maritime nations of Europe, who formerly joined together, and made war upon the Spaniards in America.

BUCKETS. Water buckets are necessary appendages to field pieces, to cool the gun when hotly engaged; otherwise it might fire itself, or run at the muzzle.

BUCKLER, a piece of defensive armour used by the ancients. It was always worn on the left arm, and composed of wicker-work, of the lightest sort, but most commonly of hides, fortified with plates of brass or other metals. The shape of it varied considerably, being sometimes round, sometimes oval, and often nearly square.

BUFF-Leather, in military accoutrements, is a sort of leather prepared from the buffalo, which, dressed with oil, after the manner of a shawmy, makes what is generally called buffalo skin. Troopers coulets, shoulder-belts, and sword-belts are made of this leather. The flaps of covers to the grenadiers pouches, and to those of the artillery, are made of this kind of leather.

BGGLE-HORN, the old Saxon horn; it is now used by all the light infantry in the British service. By its soundings their manoeuvres are directed, either in advancing, skirmishing, or retreating. It is also used by the horse artillery,
artillery, and some regiments of light cavalry.

BUILDING, in a general sense, a fabric erected by art, either for devotion, magnificence, conveniency, or defence.

Military Buildings, are of various sorts, viz. powder-magazines, bridges, pales, barracks, hospitals, store-houses, guard-rooms, &c.

Regular Building, is that whose plan is square, the opposite sides equal, and all the parts disposed with symmetry.

Irregular Building, that whose plan is not contained within equal or parallel lines, either by the accident of situation, or the design of the builder, and whose parts are not relative to one another in the elevation.

Insulated Building, that which is not contiguous to any other, but is encompassed with streets, open squares, &c. or any building which stands in a river, on a rock surrounded by the sea, marsh, &c.

Engaged Building, one surrounded with other buildings, having no front to any street or public place, nor any communication without, but by a common passage.

Inferior or sunk Building, one whose area is below the surface of the place where it stands, and of which the lowest courses of stone are concealed.

In building there are three things to be considered, viz. commodity or conveniency; secondly, firmness or stability; thirdly, delight.

To accomplish which ends, Sir Henry Wotton considers the whole subject under two heads, namely the seat or situation and the work.

1. As for the seat, either that of the whole is to be considered, or that of its parts.

2. As to the situation, regard is to be had to the quality, temperature, and salubrity or healthiness of the air; that it be a good healthy air, not subject to noisiness from adjacent fens or marshes; also free from noxious mineral exhalations; nor should the place want the sweet influence of the sun-beams, nor be wholly destitute of the breezes of wind, that will fan and purge the air; the want of which would render it like a stagnated pool, and would be very unhealthy.

In the foundations of buildings, Vitruvius orders the ground to be dug up, to examine its firmness; that an apparent solidity is not to be trusted, unless the whole mould cut through be sound and solid: 'tis true, he does not say to what depth it should be dug; but Palladio determines it to be a sixth part of the height of the building.

The great laws of walling are:

1. That the walls stand perpendicular on the ground-work, the right angle being the foundation of all stability.
2. That the largest and heaviest materials be the lowest, as more proper to sustain others than be sustained themselves.
3. That the work diminish in thickness, as it rises, both for the ease of weight and to lessen the expense.
4. That certain courses, or lodges, of more strength than the rest, be interlaid, like bones, to sustain the wall from total ruin, if some of the under parts chance to decay.
5. Lastly, that the angles be firmly bound, they being the nerves of the whole fabric. These are sometimes fortified on each side the corners, even in brick buildings, with square stones; which add both beauty and strength to the edifice.

BUINDÉS, Fr. A shield used by the Turks and Tartars when they fight with sabres.

BULLETIN, Fr. Any official account which is given of public transactions. See GAZZETTE.

Bullets, are leaden balls, where-with all kinds of small fire-arms are loaded. The diameter of any bullet is found, by dividing 1.6706 by the cube root of the number, which shews how many of them make a pound; or it may be done in a shorter way. From the logarithm .2228756 of 1.6706 subtract continually the third part of the logarithm of the number of bullets in the pound, and the difference will be the logarithm of the diameter required.

Thus the diameter of a bullet, where-of 12 weigh a pound, is found by subtracting .3597270, a third part of the logarithm of 12, from the given logarithm .2228756, or, when the logarithm is less than the former, an unit must be added, so as to have 1.2228756, and the difference .8631486 will be the logarithm of the diameter sought, which is .7297 inches; observing that the number
number found will always be a decimal, when the logarithm, which is to be subtracted, is greater than that of one pound; because the divisor is greater than the dividend in this case.

Hence, from the specific gravity of lead, the diameter of any bullet may be found from its given weight: for, since a cube foot weighs 11325 ounces, and 678 is to 355 as the cube 1728 of a foot, or 12 inches, is the content of the sphere, which therefore is 5992.7 ounces; and since spheres are as the cubes of their diameters; the weight 5992.7 is to 16 ounces, or a pound, as the cube 1728 is to the cube of the diameter of a sphere which a pound; which cube therefore is 4.58653, and its root 1.6706 inches, the diameter sought.

The diameter of musket bullets differs but 1-50th part from that of the musket bore; for if the shot but just rolls into the barrel, it is sufficient. Government allows 11 bullets in the pound for the proof of muskets, and 14 in the pound, or 29 in two pounds, for service; 17 for the proof of carbines, and 20 for service; and 28 in the pound for the proof of pistols, and 34 for service.

Bullet, ball or shot, have various denominations according to the use that is made of them, viz.

Hollow Bullets, or shells, of a cylindrical shape. These have an opening and a fuze at the end, by which fire is communicated to the combustibles within, and an explosion takes place, similar to that occasioned by the blowing up of a mine.

Chain Bullets, are two balls which are joined together by a chain, at any given distance from each other.

Branch Bullets, two balls joined together by an iron bar.

Three-headed Bullets, sometimes called angles, are two halves of a bullet which are kept together by means of a bar or chain.

BULWARK, the ancient name for bastion or rampart, which words see.

BURDEN, in a general sense.

BURLYTHEN, implies a load or weight, supposed to be as much as a man, horse, &c. can well carry. A sound healthful man can raise a weight equal to his own, can also draw and carry 50 lb. a moderate distance. An able horse can draw 350 lb. though in length of time 300 is sufficient. Hence all artillery calculations are made. One horse will draw as much as 7 men, and 7 oxen will draw as much as 11 or 12 horses. Burthen likewise in a figurative sense means impost, tax, &c.

BURGANE or BURGonet, Fr. a kind of helmet used by the French.

BURIALS, as practised by the military, are as follows, viz. The funeral of a field-marshal shall be saluted with 3 rounds of 15 pieces of cannon, attended by 6 battalions, and 8 squadrons.

That of a general, with 3 rounds of 11 pieces of cannon, 4 battalions, and 6 squadrons.

That of a lieutenant-general, with 3 rounds of 9 pieces of cannon, 3 battalions, and 4 squadrons.

That of a major-general, with 3 rounds of 7 pieces of cannon, 2 battalions, and 3 squadrons.

That of a brigadier-general, 3 rounds of 5 pieces of cannon, 1 battalion, and 2 squadrons.

That of a colonel, by his own battalion, or an equal number by detachment, with 3 rounds of small arms.

That of a lieutenant-colonel, by 300 men and officers, with 3 rounds of small arms.

That of a major, by 200 men and officers, with 3 rounds of small arms.

That of a captain, by his own company, or 70 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms.

That of a lieutenant, by 1 lieutenant, 1 sergeant, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, and 36 rank and file, with 3 rounds.

That of an ensign, by an ensign, a sergeant, and drummer, and 27 rank and file, with 3 rounds.

That of an adjutant, surgeon, and quarter-master, the same party as an ensign.

That of a sergeant, by a sergeant, and 19 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms.

That of a corporal, musician, private man, drummer, and file, by 1 sergeant and 13 rank and file, with 3 rounds of small arms.

All officers, attending the funerals of their nearest relations, shall notwithstanding wear their regimentals, and only have a black crape round their left arm.
The pall to be supported by officers of the same rank with that of the deceased: if the number cannot be had, officers next in seniority are to supply their place.

The order of march to be observed in military funerals is reversed with respect to rank. For instance, if an officer is buried in a garrison town or from a camp, it is customary for the officers belonging to other corps to pay his remains the compliment of attendance. In which case the youngest ensign marches at the head immediately after the pall, and the general, if there be one, in the rear of the commissioned officers, who take their posts in reversed order according to seniority. The battalion, troop or company follow the same rule.

The expense for a regimental burial is to be charged against the captains of the respective troops or companies. For further particulars, see Reid's Military Discipline.

BURR, in gunnery, a round iron ring which serves to rivet the end of the bolt, so as to form a round head.

BURREL-SHOT, small bullets, nails, and stones discharged from any piece of ordnance.

BUSKINS, a kind of shoe, or half boot, adapted to either foot; formerly a part of the Roman dress, particularly for tragic actors on the stage. They are now much worn by the army.

BUTIERE, Fr. A species of large fire-arm, which was formerly used among the French to fire point-blank.

BUTIN, Fr. Booty or pillage. At the beginning of the French monarchy, and for a long time after its establishment, a particular spot was marked out by the prince or general, to which all persons belonging to the victorious army were directed to bring every species of booty that might have fallen into their hands. This booty was not divided, or appropriated according to the will and pleasure of the prince or general, but was thrown into different lots, and drawn for in common.

BUMENTS. See BRIDGES.

BUTT, in gunnery, is a solid earthen parapet, to fire against in the proving of guns, or in practice.

BUTTON, in gunnery, a part of the cascable, in either a gun or howitzer, and is the hind part of the piece, made round in the form of a ball. See CANNON.

BUTTRESS. See COUNTERFORT.

BUZE, a wooden, or leaden pipe, to convey the air out of mines.

CADENCE, in tactics, implies a very regular and uniform method of marching, by the drum and music, beating time; it may not be improperly called mathematical marching; for after the length of a step is determined, the time and distance may be found. It is the continual practice and attention to this, that the Prussians have arrived at that point of perfection, so much admired in their evolutions.

CADENCE or Cadency, in cavalry, is an equal measure or proportion, which a horse observes in all his motions.

CADET, among the military, is a young gentleman, who applies himself to the study of fortification and gunnery, &c. and who sometimes serves in the army, with or without pay, 'till a vacancy happens for his promotion. There is a company of gentlemen cadets maintained
maintained at Woolwich, at the King's expense, where they are taught all the sciences necessary to form a complete officer. Their number has lately been increased, and commissions are given to them when qualified. The proper signification of the word is, younger brother. See Academy.

Cadet, Fr. differs in its signification from the term as it is used in our language. A cadet in the French service did not receive any pay, but entered as a volunteer in a troop or company, for the specific purpose of becoming master of military tactics.

In the reign of Louis XIV, there were companies of Cadets. The sons of noblemen and gentlemen of fashion were received into these companies, and when reported fit to undertake a military function, were nominated corporals, sub-lieutenants or ensigns. In the reign of Louis XV, a regulation was made, by which no cadet could be admitted unless he had passed his fifteenth year and was under twenty.

He was likewise obliged to prove his nobility by the testimony of four gentlemen; officers' sons, however, were admitted on proof being given, that their fathers had actually served, or had died in the service.

A chaplain was appointed to every cadet-company, whose duty it was to instruct the cadets in reading and writing. They had likewise a master in mathematics, a drawing master, a fencing master and a dancing master.

Cadet, Fr. likewise means any officer that is junior to another.

CÆMENT, among engineers, a CEMENT, a strong sort of mortar, used to bind bricks or stones together for some kind of moulding; or in cementing a block of bricks for the carving of capitals, scrols, or the like. There are two sorts, i.e. hot cement, which is the most common, made of resin, beeswax, brick-dust, and chalk, boiled together. The bricks to be cemented with this mixture, must be made hot in the fire and rubbed to and fro after the cement is spread, in the same manner as joiners do when they glue two boards together. Cold cement, made of Cheshire cheese, milk, quick lime, and whites of eggs. This cement is less used than the former, and is accounted a secret known but to very few bricklayers.

CÆSTUS, in military antiquity, was a large gauntlet, composed of raw hides, used by pugilists at the public games.

CAGE de la Bascule, Fr. a space into which one part of the draw-bridge falls, whilst the other rises and conceals the gate.

CAHUTE, Fr. a small hut or cabin which soldiers make to defend them against the inclemency of the weather.

CAIC, Fr. a skiff or boat belonging to a French galley.

CAIMACAN, in military history, an officer among the Turks, nearly answering to our lieutenant.

CAISSE, Fr. a sort of wooden box in which the necessary charge for the explosion of a mine is deposited.

CAISSE, Fr. the military chest, containing the necessary funds for the payment of a troop or company, regiment or army.

CAISSE, also signifies a drum.

CAISSE, Fr. Battre la caisse is used in the French service to express the beating of a drum instead of battre le Tambour.

CAISSIER, Fr. a treasurer. Any person entrusted with regimental monies. A paymaster.

CAISSON, in military affairs, is a wooden frame or chest, made square, the side planks about 2 inches thick: it may be made to contain from 4 to 20 loaded shells, according to the execution they are to do, or as the ground is firmer or looser. The sides must be high enough, that when the cover is nailed on, the fuzes may not be damaged. Caissons are buried under ground at the depth of 5 or 6 feet, under some work the enemy intends to possess himself of; and when he becomes master of it, fire is put to the train conveyed through a pipe, which inflames the shells, and blows up the assailants. Sometimes a quantity of loose powder is put into the chest, on which the shells are placed, sufficient to put them in motion, and raise them above ground: at the same time that the blast of powder sets fire to the fuzes in the shells, which must be calculated to burn from 1 to 2 seconds. When no powder is put under the shells, a small quantity of mealed powder must be strewn over them, having
the cylinder of cannon, mortars, and howitzers. They resemble other compasses, except in their legs, which are arched in order that the points may touch the extremities of the arch. To find the true diameter of a circle, they have a quadrant fastened to one leg, and passing through the other, marked with inches and parts, to express the diameter required: the length of each ruler or plate is usually between the limits of 6 inches and a foot. On these rulers are a variety of scales, tables, proportions, &c. such as are esteemed useful to be known by gunners. The following articles are on the completest gunners'-callipers, viz. 1. The measure of convex diameters in inches. 2. Of concave ditto. 3. The weight of iron shot from given diameters. 4. The weight of iron shot from given gun bores. 5. The degrees of a semicircle. 6. The proportion of Troy and avoirdupois weight. 7. The proportion of English and French feet and pounds. 8. Factors used in circular and spherical figures. 9. Tables of the specific gravity and weights of bodies. 10. Tables of the quantity of powder necessary for proof and service of brass and iron guns. 11. Rules for computing the number of shot or shells, in a finished pile. 12. Rule concerning the fall of heavy bodies. 13. Rules for raising of water. 14. Rules for firing artillery and mortars. 15. A line of inches. 16. Logarithmic scales of numbers, sines, versed sines and tangents. 17. A sectoral line of equal parts, or the line of lines. 18. A sectoral line of plans, and superficies. 19. A sectoral line of solids.

CALIBRE, Fr. See Caliber.

CALIBE, Fr. signifies, in a figurative sense, cast or character; as un homme de ce calibre, a man of this cast.

CALIBRER, Fr. to take the measurement of the calibre of a gun. A particular instrument has been invented for this purpose. It resembles a compass with curved branches, which serve to grasp and measure a ball.

CALIVER, an old term for an arquebuse or musket.

CALOTE, Fr. a species of skull-cap which officers and soldiers wear under their hats in the French cavalry, and which are proof against a sabre or sword.
sword. Calotes are usually made of iron, wick, or dressed leather, and every officer chooses the sort he likes best. Those delivered out to the troops are made of iron.

CALQUING, the art of tracing, CALKING, any kind of a military drawing, &c. upon some plate, paper, &c. It is performed by covering the backside of the drawing with a black or red colour, and fixing the side so covered upon a piece of paper, waxed plate, &c. This done, every line in the drawing is to be traced over with a point, by which means all the outlines will be transferred to the paper or plate, &c.

CALTROPS, in military affairs, are pieces of iron having 4 points, all disposed in a triangular form; so that 3 of them always rest upon the ground, and the 4th stands upwards in a perpendicular direction. Each point is 3 or 4 inches long. They are scattered over the ground and passages where the enemy is expected to march, especially the cavalry, in order to embarrass their progress.

CAMARA DE. See Comrade.

CAMION, Fr. a species of cart or dray which is drawn by two men, and serves to convey cannon-balls, &c. These carts are very useful in fortified towns.

It is also called Petit Tombreau, small tumbril.

CAMISADE or Camisado, Fr. in military transactions, implies an attack by surprise, either during the night, or at break of day, when the enemy is supposed to be asleep or off his guard.

CAMOUFLER, Fr. in war, a kind of stinking combustibles blown out of paper cases, into the miners faces, when they are at work in the galleries of the countermine.

Camouflet also signifies the sudden explosion of a pistol, &c. which takes place when miners encounter one another; hence donner le Camouflet, to take another by surprise or fire at him unexpectedly.

CAMP, in military affairs, is the whole extent of ground, in general, occupied by an army pitching its tents when in the field, and upon which all its baggage and apparatus are lodged. It is marked out by the quarter-master-general, who allot to every regiment its ground. The extent of the front of a regiment of infantry is 200 yards, including the two battalion guns, and depth 320, when the regiment contains 9 companies, each of 100 private men, and the companies tents in two rows; but when the companies tents stand in one row, and about 70 private men to each row, the front is then but 155 yards. A squadron of horse has 120 yards in front, and 100 for an interval between each regiment.

The nature of the ground must also be consulted, both for defence against the enemy, and for supplies to the army. It should have a communication with that army's garrisons, and have plenty of water, forage, fuel, and either rivers, marshes, hills, or woods to cover it. An army always encamps fronting the enemy, and generally in two parallel lines, besides a corps de reserve, about 500 yards distant from each other; the horse and dragoons on the wings, and the foot in the centre. Where and how the train of artillery is encamped, see Park of artillery, and Encampment of a regiment of artillery, under the word Artillery.

Each regiment posts a subaltern's guard at 80 yards from the colours to the officer's tent, called the quarter-guard, besides a corporal's guard in the rear: and each regiment of horse or dragoons, a small guard on foot, called the standard-guard, at the same distance. The grand guard of the army consists of horse, and is posted about a mile distant towards the enemy.

In a siege, the camp is placed all along the line of circumvallation, or rather in the rear of the approaches, out of cannon-shot; the army faces the circumvallation, if there be any.

There is one thing very essential in the establishing a camp, and which should be particularly attended to, if the enemy is near, which is, that there should not only be a commodious spot of ground at the head of the camp, where the army, in case of surprise, may in a moment be under arms, and in condition to repulse the enemy; but also a convenient field of battle at a small distance, and of a sufficient extent for them to form advantageously, and to move with facility.

The arrangement of the tents in camp, is nearly the same all over Europe, which is to dispose them in such a manner,
ner, that the troops may form with safety and expedition.

To answer this end, the troops are encamped in the same order as that in which they are to engage, which is by battalions and squadrons; hence, the post of each battalion and squadron in the line of battle, must necessarily be at the head of its own encampment. Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the first who formed encampments according to the order of battle.

By this disposition, the extent of the camp from right to left, of each battalion and squadron, will be equal to the front of each in line of battle; and consequently, the extent from right to left of the whole camp, should be equal to the front of the whole army when drawn up in line of battle, with the same intervals between the several encampments of the battalions and squadrons, as are in the line.

There is no fixed rule for the intervals; some will have no intervals, some small ones, and others are for intervals equal to the front of the battalion or squadron. The most general method is, an interval of 60 feet between each battalion, and of 36 feet between each squadron.

Hence it follows, 1st, That the front line of the camp must be in a direction to face the enemy; 2dly, That at the head of the encampment of each battalion and squadron, there must be a clear space of ground, on which they may form in line of battle; and 3dly, That when the space taken up by the army is embarrassed with woods, ditches, and other obstructions, a communication must be opened for the troops to move with ease to the assistance of each other.

The camps of the Greeks and Romans were either round, square, or oval, or rather of an oblong square figure, with the sharp corners taken off; and to secure them against surprises, it was the prevailing custom to surround them with encampments. The camps of the Anglo-Saxons and Danes were generally round, as likewise those of the Anglo-Normans. The camps of the ancient Britons were of an oval form, composed of stakes, earth, and stones, rudely heaped together; but the practice of the present times is quite different; for the security of our camps, whose form is a rectangle, consists in being able to draw out the troops with ease and expedition at the head of their respective encampments.

Camp of a battalion of infantry, is the ground on which they pitch their tents, &c.

The principal object in the arrangement of a camp, is, that both officers and men may repair with facility and expedition to the head of the line; for which reason the tents are placed in rows perpendicular to the front of the camp, with spaces between them, called streets. The general method is, to form as many rows of tents as there are companies in the battalion; those for the private men in the front, and those for the officers in the rear.

The several companies of a battalion are posted in camp, in the same manner as in the line of battle; that is, the company of grenadiers on the right, and that of light-infantry on the left; the colonel's company on the left of the grenadiers, the lieutenant-colonel's on the right of the light-infantry, the major's on the left of the colonel's, the eldest captain's on the right of the lieutenant-colonel's; and so on from right to left, till the two youngest companies come into the centre.

The battalion companies are posted two by two; that is, the tents of every two of these companies are ranged close together, to obtain, though they be fewer in number, larger and more commodious streets: the entrances of all the companies tents face the streets, except the first tent of each row belonging to the serjeants, which faces the bells of arms and front of the camp.

The number of tents in each perpendicular row is regulated by the strength of the companies, and the number of men allowed to each tent, which was formerly 3 men: thence it follows, that a company of 60 men will require 12 tents, a company of 75 men 15 tents, and a company of 100 men 20 tents; but as it always happens, that some are on duty, fewer tents may serve in time of necessity. Round tents have lately been adopted, which contain a greater number of men.

When the battalion is in the first line of encampment, the privies are opened in the front, and at least 150 feet beyond the quarter-guard; and when in
the second line, they are opened in the rear of that line.

To distinguish the regiments, camp colours are fixed at the flanks, and at the quarter and rear guards.

The colours and drums of each battalion are placed at the head of its own grand street, in a line with the bells of arms of the several companies. The officers' spontoons were formerly placed at the colours, with the broad part of their spears to the front. The serjeants' halberts are placed between, and on each side of the bells of arms, with their hatchets turned from the colours.

When two field-pieces are allowed to each battalion, they are posted to the right of it. Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the first who ordered two field-pieces to each battalion, which are generally light 6-pounders.

**Distribution of the front and depth of the Camp for a battalion of infantry.** The present mode of encampments differs from what was formerly adopted. The front of the camp for a battalion of 10 companies of 60 men each, is at present 400 feet, and during the late wars only 360 feet; the depth at present 759 feet, and during the late war 960. The front of the camp of a battalion of 10 companies of 100 men each, is at present 668 feet, and formerly only 592. The breadth of the streets from 43 to 55 feet, excepting the main street, which is sometimes from 60 to 90 feet broad.

**Of the Camp of a battalion by a new method.** This is, by placing the tents in 3 rows parallel to the principal front of the camp; which is suitable to the 3 ranks in which the battalion is drawn up; the tents of the first row, which front the camp, are for the men of the front rank; the tents of the second row front the rear, and are for the men of the second rank; and the tents of the third row, which front the center row, are for the men of the rear rank.

**Camp of Cavalry.** The tents for the cavalry, as well as for the infantry, are placed in rows perpendicular to the principal front of the camp; and their number is conformable to the number of troops. The horses of each troop are placed in a line parallel to the tents, with their heads towards them.

The number of tents in each row, is regulated by the strength of the troops, and the number of troopers allotted to each tent is 5: it follows, that a troop of 30 men will require 6 tents, a troop of 60 men 12 tents, and a troop of 100 men 20 tents. The tents for the cavalry are of the same form as those of the infantry, but more spacious, the better to contain the fire-arms, accoutrements, saddles, bridles, boots, &c. See Tents.

**Distribution of the front and depth of a Camp of cavalry.** Supposing the regiment to consist of 2 squadrons, of 3 troops each, and of 50 men in each troop, the extent of the front will be 450 feet, if drawn up in 2 ranks; but if drawn up in 3 ranks, the front will be only 300 feet, the depth 220, and the breadth of the back streets 30 feet, and the other streets 46 feet each. In the last war 600 feet were allowed each regiment of cavalry in front, 774 feet for the depth, and the breadth of the streets as above.

The standard-guard tents are pitched in the centre, in a line with the quarter-master's. The camp colours of the cavalry are also of the same colour as the facings of the regiment, with the rank of the regiment in the centre: those of the horse are square, like those of the foot; and those of the dragoons are swallow-tailed. The dung of each troop is laid up behind the horses.

**Camp duty, consists in guards, both ordinary and extraordinary:** the ordinary guards are relieved regularly at a certain hour every day (generally about 9 or 10 o'clock in the morning); the extraordinary guards are all kinds of detachments commanded on particular occasions for the further security of the camp, for covering the foragers, for convoys, escorts, or expeditions.

The ordinary guards are distinguished into grand guards, standard, and quarter guards; rear guards, picket guards, and guards for the general officers; train of artillery, bread wagons, pay-master general, quarter-master general, majors of brigade, judge advocate, and provost marshals.

The number and strength of the grand guards and out-posts, whether of cavalry or infantry, depend on the situation of the camp, nature of the country, and the position of the enemy. The strength of general officers guards is limited.

**Camp maxims, are 1. The principal rule**
rule in forming a camp, is to give it the same front the troops occupy in order of battle.

2. The method of encamping is by battalions and squadrons, except the royal regiment of artillery, which is encamped on the right and left of the park of artillery. See Artillery Parks, and Encampment of a regiment of artillery.

3. Each man is allowed 2 feet in the ranks of the battalion, and 3 feet in the squadron; hence the front of a battalion of 900 men, formed 3 deep, will be 600 feet; and the front of a squadron of 150 men, formed 2 deep, will be 225 feet.

4. The depth of the camp when the army is encamped in 3 lines, is at least 275 feet; that is, 750 feet for the depth of each line, and 250 feet for the space between each of those lines.

5. The park of artillery should always be placed on a dry rising ground, if such situation offers; either in the centre of the front line, or in the rear of the second line; with all the true horses encamped in the rear of the park.

6. The bread-wagons should be stationed in the rear of the camp, and as near as possible to the centre, that the distribution of bread may be rendered easy.

7. When the commander in chief encamps, it is generally in the centre of the army; and the town or village chosen for his residence is called head quarters.

8. That general is inexcusable, who, for his own personal accommodation, makes choice of quarters that are not properly secured, or at too great a distance to have an easy communication with the camp.

9. If the ground permits, the troops should be encamped as near to good water as possible.

10. When there are hussars, they are generally posted near the head quarters, or in the front of the army.

11. The ground taken up by the encampment of an army, should be equally distributed, and if possible, in a straight line; for then the whole will have more grace; for a crooked line, and inequality of disposition, afford a very unpleasing view both of the camp, and of the troops when they are under arms.

12. Cleanliness is essentially necessary to the health of a camp, especially when it is to remain for any length of time. To maintain this, the privies should be often filled up, and others opened; at least every 6 days. The offal of cattle, and the carcasses of dead horses, should be buried very deep; and all kinds of corrupt effluvia, that may infect the air and produce epidemical disorders, should be constantly removed.

Choice of Camps. 1. At the beginning of a campaign, when the enemy is at too great a distance to occasion any alarm, all situations for camps that are healthy are good, provided the troops have room, and are within reach of water, wood, and provisions. More ground should be allowed to the troops in stationary camps, than in temporary ones.

2. Camps should be situated as near as possible to navigable rivers, to facilitate the conveyance of all manner of supplies; for convenience and safety are the principal objects for camps.

3. A camp should never be placed too near heights, from whence the enemy may overlook it; nor too near woods, from whence the enemy may surprise it. If there are eminences, not commanded by others, they should be taken into the camp; and when that cannot be done, they should be fortified.

4. The choice of a camp depends in a great measure on the position of the enemy, on his strength, and on the nature and situation of the country.

5. A skilful general will avail himself of all the advantages for a camp, which nature may present, whether in plains, mountains, ravines, hollows, woods, lakes, inclosures, rivers, rivulets, &c.

6. The disposition of the troops in camp should depend on the nature and situation of the ground; as there are occasions which require all the infantry to encamp on the right, and the cavalry on the left; and there are others which require the cavalry to form in the centre, and the infantry on the wings.

7. A camp should never be formed on the banks of a river, without the space of
of at least 2 or 3000 feet, for drawing out the army in order of battle: the enemy cannot then easily alarm the camp, by artillery and small arms from the other side.

8. Camps should never be situated near rivers that are subject to be overflowed, either by the melting of the snow, or by accidental torrents from the mountains. Marshy grounds should also be avoided, on account of the vapours arising from stagnant waters, which infect the air.

9. On the choice of camps and posts, frequently depends the success of a campaign, and even sometimes of a war.

Camp guards. They are of two sorts; the one serves to maintain good order within the camp; and the other, which is stationed without the camp, serves to cover and secure it against the enemy. These guards are formed of both infantry and cavalry; and in proportion to the strength of the army, situation of the camp, and disposition of the enemy. Sometimes it is required, that these guards should consist of the 8th part of the army; at others, of the 3d part; and when an attack from the enemy is apprehended, even of the half.

Manner of stationing the Camp guards. It is of the utmost consequence to station the guards in such places, as may enable them to discover easily whatever approaches the camp.

2. The guards of the cavalry are generally removed further from the camp, than those of the infantry; but never at so great a distance, as to endanger their being cut off: within cannon-shot is a very good distance. They are often stationed in highways, in open places, and on small heights; but, they are always so disposed, as to see and communicate with one another.

3. The vedettes to the out-posts should be double; for should they make a discovery, one may be detached to inform the officer commanding the out-post, and the other remain on duty; they should not be at too great a distance from their detachment; probably, about 50 or 60 paces will be sufficient.

4. The guards of infantry have different objects, and are differently stationed: their duty is, to receive and support the guards of cavalry in cases of need; to protect the troops sent out for wood, forage, or water; in short to prevent any approaches from the small parties of the enemy. Some are stationed in the churches of the neighbouring villages, in castles, houses, and in passages and avenues of woods; others are stationed on the borders of rivulets; and in every place necessary to secure the camp. Guards that are stationed in churches, steeple, in woods or among trees, castles, and houses, should if possible, be seen from the army, or at least from some grand guard in its neighbourhood, that signals may be readily perceived and repeated.

5. The guards of infantry are generally fixed; that is, they have the same post both day and night, except such as are to support and protect the guards of cavalry, and to cover the forage grounds. All out-guards should have intrenching-tools with them.

6. The guards of cavalry have generally a day-post and a night-post; the latter is seldom more than 4 or 500 paces from the camp; one third should be mounted, one third bridled, and one third feeding their horses; but when near the enemy, the whole guard should be kept mounted during the night.

7. The security and tranquility of a camp depending upon the vigilance of the guards, the officers who command them cannot be too active in preventing surprises: a neglect in this particular is often of fatal consequence. Though an officer should, at all times, be strictly attentive to every part of the service, yet he should be more particularly watchful in the night than in the day. The night is the time most favourable for surprises; as those who are not on duty, are generally asleep, and cannot immediately afford assistance; but in the day time, the attention of all the troops is turned to the movements of the enemy; they are sooner under arms, sooner in readiness to march, and in much less danger of being thrown into confusion. It ought also to be remembered, that the officer of the quarter-guard and the advanced sentries, should never permit any person in coloured clothes to pass the front line of the camp, or in any shape enter it, without being minutely questioned as to his situation in life, &c. For this end, he should be conducted to the quarter guard, there to give in writing the
the necessary information. Those who wish to be better acquainted with the nature and mode of encampments, may read Mr. Lochée's useful Essay on Camp-transtation.

Concerning the healthiness of the different seasons of a campaign, the ingenious Dr. Pringle has the following observations. The first 3 weeks is always sickly; after which the sickness decreases, and the men enjoy a tolerable degree of health throughout the summer, unless they get wet clothes. The most sickly part of the campaign is towards the end of August, whilst the days are still hot, but the nights cold and damp with fogs and dews; then, if not sooner, the dysentery prevails; and though its violence is over by the beginning of October, yet the remitting fever, gaining ground, continues throughout the rest of the campaign, and never entirely ceases, even in winter quarters, where the frost begins. He wisely observes, that the last 14 days of a campaign, if protracted, 'till the beginning of November, are attended with more sickness than the two first months of the encampment. As to winter expeditions, though severe in appearance, he tells us they are attended with little sickness, if the men have strong and good shoes, warm quarters, fuel, and provisions enough.

Camp-Colour-men. Men who carry the camp-colours. Each regiment has generally 6, and sometimes 1 per company; they always march with the quarter-master, to assist in making the necessary preparations against the arrival of the regiment in a new encampment.

Camp-Fight, an old term for Combat.

Flying-Camp, or army, generally means a strong body of horse and foot, commanded for the most part by a lieutenant-general, which is always in motion, both to cover its own garrisons, and to keep the enemy's army in a continual alarm. It is sometimes used to signify the ground on which such a body of men encamps.

Camp-Inventory, in warrtime, are hatchets, shovels, mattocks, blankets, camp-kettles, canteens, tents, poles and pins: and in each company has 10 shovels, and 5 mattocks; each tent 1 hatchet, 1 blanket, 1 camp-kettle, with its linen bag; and each soldier 1 canteen, 1 knapsack, and 1 havresack.

Camp-diseases, are chiefly bilious fevers, malignant fevers, fluxes, scurvy, rheumatism, &c.

Camp is also used by the Siamese and some other nations in the East Indies, to express the quarters where the persons from different countries, who come to trade with them, usually reside.

Camp d'Assemblée, Fr. The first ground which is taken when troops are encamped on the opening of a campaign.

Camp à cheval, Fr. A ground of encampment across which any river runs, &c.

Camp découssu, Fr. A ground of encampment, which is occupied by different regiments, without any attention being paid to a regular line, &c.

Camp désenparé, Fr. A ground of encampment upon which the enemy has been encamped the preceding day, or during the course of the one on which the ground is reconnoitred.

Camp étendu, Fr. A ground of encampment upon which the tents are struck, either for the purpose of engaging the enemy, of marching from him, or of making any particular movement.

Camp en échelons, Fr. A ground of encampment which is taken up in such a manner, that the different regiments lie obliquely in advance one to the other. By means of this disposition the flanks nearest to the enemy are supported by those that are further from him, and are not exposed to have their wing turned.

Camp fixe, Fr. A regular or stationary camp, one that is formed before a besieged place, &c. or under the protection of a fortified town.

Camp d'instruction ou de discipline. Fr. A ground of encampment which is occupied for the purpose of training troops, &c.

Camp momentané ou de passage, Fr. A ground of encampment which is taken for a short interval, or previous to taking quarters, &c.

Camp de plaisir, Fr. A ground of encampment which is taken for the sole purposes of parade.

Camp retranché, Fr. An entrenched camp. See Camp.
CAMP retranché sous une place, Fr. A camp which is formed under the walls of a fortified place, and is within the protection of the guns.

CAMP tendu, Fr. A ground of encampment, where tents, &c. are regularly pitched.

CAMP volant, Fr. A flying camp, one which is formed and broken up from day to day.

Bon CAMP, Fr. A ground of encampment upon which troops are stationed, so as to be protected on every side from the attack of an enemy.

Mauvais CAMP, Fr. A ground of encampment which is exposed on every side, and where there is a want of water, fuel, &c.

CAMP de Mars, Fr. A piece of ground in the vicinity of Paris, where troops are occasionally exercised and public festivals kept.

CAMPAGNE, Fr. Campaign. Se Mettre en CAMPAGNE, Fr. To take the field.

Tenir la CAMPAGNE, Fr. To keep the field, or remain encamped, at a time when the enemy is obliged to go into quarters, or stay in garrison.

CAMPAIGN, in military affairs, the time every year that an army continues in the field, in war time. We also say, a man has served so many campaigns, i.e. years: the campaign will begin at such a time; this will be a long campaign, &c. The word is also used for an open country before any towns, &c.

CAMPÉMENT, Fr. An encampment. This word is also used to denote a detachment sent before the army to mark out the ground for a camp.

CAMPER, Fr. To encamp.

CAMPER par compagnie, Fr. To have the tents of the several companies belonging to a regiment pitched at equal distances.

CAMPER par pelotons, Fr. To encamp two companies together, or to have their tents pitched in such a manner that they appear one company.

CAMPET EN Potence, Fr. To encamp one or more bodies of men upon the rear of another camp. This happens when the ground will not admit of a regular line; and this mode of encamping also affords the means of opposing an enemy, should he attack either in flank or front.

CAMPUS Maii, an anniversary assembly which was observed by our ancestors on May-day, when they mutually pledged themselves to one another for the defence of the country against foreign and domestic foes.

CAMPUS Martius, a public place so called among the Romans from the God Mars.

CANAL de lumière, Fr. The aperture or touch-hole which leads from the pan to the barrel of a fire-arm.

CANARDER, Fr. To peét, to shoot.

CANNIPERS. See CALLIPERS.

CANNON or pieces of ORDANACE, in the military art, imply machines having tubes of brass or iron. They are charged with powder and ball, or sometimes cartriges, grape and tin-shot, &c.

The length is distinguished by three parts; the first re-inforce, the second re-inforce, and the chace: the first re-inforce is 2-7ths, and the second 1-7th and a half of the diameter of the shot. The inside hollow, wherein the powder and shot are lodged, is called the bore, &c.

History of CANNON or pieces of ORDANANCE. They were originally made of iron bars soldered together, and fortified with strong iron hoops; some of which are still to be seen, viz. one in the tower of London, two at Woolwich, and one in the royal arsenal at Lisbon. Others were made of thin sheets of iron rolled up together, and hooped; and on emergencies they were made of leather, with plates of iron or copper. These pieces were made in a rude and imperfect manner, like the first essays of many new inventions. Stone balls were thrown out of these cannon, and a small quantity of powder used on account of their weakness. These pieces have no ornaments, are placed on their carriages by rings, and are of cylindrical form. When or by whom they were made, is uncertain: however we read of cannon being used as early as the 13th century, in a sea engagement between the king of Tunis and the Moorish king of Seville. The Venetians used cannon at the siege of Claudia Jessa, now called Chioggia, in 1666, which were brought thither by two Germans, with some powder and leaden balls; as likewise in their wars with the Genoese
in 1379. Our glorious king Edward III. made use of cannon at the battle of Creve in 1346, and at the siege of Caen in 1347. Cannon were made use of by the Turks at the siege of Constantinople, then in possession of the Christians, in 1291, or in that of 1352, that threw a weight of 500 lb, but they generally burst, either the first, second, or third shot. Louis XII. had one cast at Tours, of the same size, which threw a ball from the Bastille to Charenton. One of those famous cannon was taken at the siege of Dieu in 1546, by Don John de Castro, and is in the castle of St. Julianos da Barra, 10 miles from Lisbon: its length is 20 feet 7 inches, diameter at the centre 6 feet 3 inches, and discharges a ball of 100 lb. It has neither dolphins, rings, nor button, is of a curious kind of metal, and has a large Indostan inscription upon it, which says it was cast in 1400.

Ancient and present names of Cannon.

Formerly they were dignified with uncommon names; for in 1503 Louis XII. had 12 brass cannon cast, of an uncommon size, called after the names of the 12 peers of France. The Spanish and Portuguese called them after their saints. The emperor, Charles V. when he marched before Tunis, founded the 12 Apostles. At Milan there is a 70-pounder, called the Pimonteille; and one at Bois le-duc, called the Devil. A 60-pounder at Dover castle, called Queen Elizabeth's Pocket-pistol. An 80-pounder in the tower of London (formerly in Sterling castle) called Mousa-meg. An 80-pounder in the royal arsenal at Berlin, called the Thunderer. An 80-pounder at Malaga, called the Terrible. Two curious 60-pounders in the arsenal at Bremen, called the Messengers of bad news. And lastly an uncommon 70-pounder in the castle of St. Angelo at Rome, made of the nails that fastened the copper plates which covered the ancient Pantheon, with this inscription upon it: Ex clavis trabalis porticus Agrippae.

In the beginning of the 15th century these uncommon names were generally abolished, and the following more universal ones took place, viz.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Pounders</th>
<th>Cwt.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Bastard cannon,</td>
<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>or ½ cartouh</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whole culverins</td>
<td>18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Demy culverins</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Falcon</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>Lowest sort</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>Saker ordinary</td>
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<td>Largest size</td>
<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basilisk</td>
<td>48</td>
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<td>Serpentine</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>Aspik</td>
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<td>Dragon</td>
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<td>Syren</td>
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Falconet = 3, 2, & 1 | 15, 10, 5 |

Moyens, which carried a ball of 10 or 12 ounces, &c.

Rabinet, which carried a ball of 16 ounces.

These curious names of beasts and birds of prey were adopted, on account of their swiftness in motion, or of their cruelty; as the falconet, falcon, saker, and culvering, &c. for their swiftness in flying; the basilisk, serpentine, aspik, dragon, syren, &c. for their cruelty. See the Latin poet Forcastarius.

At present cannon or pieces of ordnance take their names from the weight of the ball they discharge: thus a piece that discharges a ball of 24 pounds, is called a 24-pounder; one that carries a ball of 12 pounds, is called a 12-pounder; and so of the rest, divided into the following sorts, viz.

Ship-guns, consisting in 42, 32, 24, 18, 14, 9, 6, and 3 pounders.

Garrison-guns, in 42, 32, 24, 18, 12, 9, and 6 pounders.

Battering-guns, in 24, 18, and 12 pounders.

Field-pieces, in 18, 12, 9, 6, 3, 2, 14, 1, and ¾ pounders.

The British seldom use any of lower calibre than 6 in the field.

The metal of which brass cannon is made, is in a manner kept a secret by the founders: yet, with all their art and secrecy, they have not hitherto found out a composition that will stand a hot engagement without melting, or at least being rendered useless. Those cast at Woolwich bid fairest towards this amendment. The respective quantities which should enter into this composition, is a point not decided; every founder K has
has his own proportions, which are peculiar to himself. The most common proportions of the ingredients are the following, viz. To 240 lb. of metal fit for casting, they put 68 lb. of copper, 52 lb. of brass, and 12 lb. of tin. To 4200 lb. of metal fit for casting, the Germans put 368 lb. of copper, 204 lb. of brass, and 307 lb. of tin. Others again use 100 lb. of copper, 6 lb. of brass, and 9 lb. of tin; and lastly, others, 100 lb. of copper, 10 lb. of brass, and 15 lb. of tin. With respect to iron guns, their structure is the same as that of the others, and they generally stand the most severe engagements, being frequently used on ship-board. Several experiments have taught us that the Swedish iron guns are preferable to all others.

Cannon is now generally cast solid, and the cavity bored afterwards by a very curious machine for that purpose, where the gun is placed in a perpendicular position; but of late these machines have been made to bore horizontally, and much truer than those that bore in a vertical form. This new machine was first invented at Strauburg, and greatly improved by Mr. Verbruggen, a Dutchman, who was head founder at the royal foundery at Woolwich, where probably the best horizontal-boring machine in Europe has been lately fixed; it both bores the inside, and turns and polishes the outside at once.

Names of the several parts of a Cannon.

The grand divisions exterior, are as follows, viz. First re-inforce, is that part of a gun next the breech, which is made stronger to resist the force of powder.

Second re-inforce. This begins where the first ends, and is made something smaller than the first.

The chace, is the whole space from the trunnions to the muzzle.

The muzzle, properly so called, is the part from the muzzle astragal to the end of the piece.

Small divisions exterior.

The cascable, the hindernest part of the breech, from the base-ring to the end of the button.

The cascable-astragal, is the diminishing part between the two breech-mouldings.
The vent, in all kinds of fire-arms, is commonly called the touch-hole: it is a small hole pierced at the end, or near it, of the bore or chamber, to prime the piece with powder, or to introduce the tube, in order, when lighted, to set fire to the charge.

The chamber, which is only in large calibers, is the place where the powder is wedged, which forms the charge.

Tools for loading and firing CANNON, are rammers, sponges, ladles, worms, hand spikes, wedges, and screws.

Coins, or wedges, to lay under the breech of the gun, in order to elevate or depress it.

Hand-spikes, serve to move and to lay the gun.

Ladles, serve to load the gun with loose powder.

Rammers, are cylinders of wood, whose diameters and axes are equal to those of the shot: they serve to ram home the wads put upon the powder and shot.

Sponge, is fixed at the opposite end of the rammer, covered with lamb-skin, serves to clean the gun when fired.

Screws, are used to field-pieces, instead of coins, by which the gun is kept to the same elevation.

Tools necessary for proving CANNON, are, a searcher with a reliever, and a searcher with one point.

Searcher, is an iron, hollow at one end to receive a wooden handle, and on the other end has from 4 to 8 flat springs of about 8 or 10 inches long, pointed and turned outwards at the ends.

The Reliever, is an iron flat ring, with a wooden handle, at right angles to it. When a gun is to be searched after it has been fired, this searcher is introduced; and turned every way, from end to end, and if there is any hole, the point of one or other of the springs gets into it, and remains till the reliever, passing round the handler of the searcher, and pressing the springs together, relieves it.

When there is any hole or roughness in the gun, the distance from the mouth is marked on the outside with chalk.

The other searcher has also a wooden handle, and a point at the fore end, of about an inch long, at right angles to the length: about this point is put some wax melted with tallow, which, when introduced into the hole or cavity is pressed in, when the impression upon the wax gives the depth, and the length is known by the motion of the searcher backwards and forward: if the fissure be 1-ninth of an inch deep, the gun is rejected. See INSTRUMENTS.

N. B. The strength of gunpowder having been considerably increased by Colonel Congreve, of the Royal Artillery, the quantity for service has been somewhat reduced. That for proof remaining as heretofore.

CANNON § Ball. See BALLS.
   § Shot. See SHOT.
CANNON-Baskets. See Gabions.
To nail CANNON. See NAIL.
CANNONADE, in artillery, may be defined the application of artillery to the purposes of a land war, or the direction of its efforts against some distant object intended to be seized or destroyed, as the troops in battle, battery, fortress, or out-work.

Cannopading is therefore used from a battery, to take, destroy, burn, or drive the enemy from the defences, &c. and to batter and ruin the works or fortified towns.

CANNONIER, (Canonniér, Fr.) the person who manages the guns. See GUNNER.

CANNON, Fr. See CANNON. Cannon also means in French the barrel of any fire-arm great or small.

CANNON (Chambré) Fr. A piece that has not been well cast, and could not be used without danger. On account of the defective cavities which exist in the body of the metal, pieces of the kind are liable to burst.

CANNON Secret, Fr. One, or several pieces of ordnance placed on a battery, unperceived by the enemy. These are used by the besieged for the defence of breaches, and by the besiegers to oppose a sortie.

CANNON à la Suédois. Fr. A piece of ordnance adopted by the French, and so called from the Swedish pieces, of which it is an imitation. Very convenient in long marches, as being very light. The weight at most 525 lb. the ball 4 lb. weight.

CANNON (double) See. Reveil matin.
CANNON RAKE, Fr. A rifled gun. See RIFLE.

CANON Bit, that part of the bit which is let into the horse's mouth.

K 2 CANON-
CANONNADE, Fr. See CANNONADE.
CANONNIER. See CANNONIER.
CANONNIERE, ou Embrasure, Fr. an opening which is made in the parapet of a work for the purpose of pointing cannon against any particular object.
CANONNIERE, Fr. a sort of shed covered over with canvas for the accommodation of soldiers and sutlers.
CANONNER, Fr. to fire against any fortified place or body of armed men with heavy ordnance, &c.
CANTABRES, Fr. Soldiers held in high repute at the time of the Romans: and in fact, the renown of the gallant Cantabres was such that a great number of the Spanish provinces reckoned it a great honor to be comprehended within the limits of ancient Cantabria. In the year 1745, Lewis XV. formed a regiment of Cantabres, which since were called Royal Cantabres.
CANTABRUM. A standard introduced during the reign of the Roman Emperors, and which differed from the vexillum. This latter was a large standard, distinguished by its particular colour and motto; whereas the Cantabrum was only a small flag, with its particular colour also, and used as a signal for the troops to rally.
CANTEEN, a machine made of wood or leather with compartments for several utensils, generally used by officers.
CANTEENS, in military articles, are tin vessels used by the soldiers on a march, &c. to carry water or other liquor in, each holds about 2 quarts. They are likewise made of wood in a circular shape.
CANTINE, Fr. CANTOEN, a species of sutting house which is kept in a fortified place, &c. for the convenience of officers and soldiers. It also means, as with us, a small case with different compartments in which wine, &c. may be kept. Cantine is sometimes used among the French to signify the meat, &c. that is ready drest.
CANTINIER, Fr. The person who keeps a canteen, booth or sutting house.
To CANTON, to disperse the troops into winter quarters.
CANTONMENTS are distinct situations, where the different parts of an army lie as near to each other as possible, and in the same manner as they encamp in the field. The chief reasons for cantonning an army are, first, when the campaign begins early; on which occasion, in cantonning your troops, two objects demand attention, viz., the military object, and that of subsistence; the 2d is, when an army has finished a siege early, the troops are allowed to repose 'till the fields produce forage for their subsistence: the 3d reason is, when the autumn proves rainy, and forage scarce, the troops are cantoned to protect them from the bad weather.
CANTONEMENT, Fr. Cantonnement. Troops are said to be sent into cantonments, when they are detached from their several battalions or companies, and lie quartered in or about the different towns and villages.
CANTONNER, Fr. to send into cantonments.
CANVAS-BAGS. See Bags, Sandbags, &c.
CAPA-AGA. An old and experienced officer of the Seraglio, who has the charge of instructing and superintending the Ichonogluas; which office he fulfills with the utmost severity, in order to accustom them to subordination and discipline, and that they may be the better qualified to command in their turns.
CAPARISON, under this term is included the bridle, saddle, and housing of a military horse.
CAPE du batardieu, Fr. a roof sloping on both sides, which covers the upper part of the batardieu constructed in the ditch at the salient angle of a bastion. A small turret about six or seven feet high is erected in the centre of the cape, to prevent desertion.
CAPELIN, a kind of iron helmet worn by the cavalry, under John, Duke of Brabant.
CAPELLETTI, a Venetian militia, composed of Seravonians, Dalmatians, Albanians, Morlachians, and reckoned the best troops in the service of the State of Venice. The most important posts, as also the Palace and great Square of Saint Marc, at Venice, are committed to their guard.
CAPICULY, otherwise called Janizaries. The first corps of the Turkish infantry.
CAPITaine,
CAPITAIN, Fr. An unconscionable vaunter, who boasts of incredible acts of bravery, although he be a real coward. A Capitan also signifies in harsher language, a coward; every military man who has been once found guilty of cowardice, is ruined beyond recovery.

CAPITOLUL, Fr. Chief magistrate of Toulouse.

To CAPITULATE, to surrender any place or body of troops to the enemy, on certain stipulated conditions.

CAPITULATION, in military affairs, implies the conditions on which the garrison of a place besieged agrees to deliver it up, &c. This is likewise the last action, both in the attack and defence of a fortification, the conditions of which may be of various kinds, according to the different circumstances or situations in which the parties may be placed.

As soon as the capitulation is agreed on, and signed, hostages are generally delivered on both sides, for the exact performance of the articles; part of the place is delivered to the besiegers, and a day appointed for the garrison to evacuate the place. The usual and most honourable conditions are with arms and baggage, drums beating, and colours flying, matches lighted, and some pieces of artillery; wagons, and convoys for the baggage, sick and wounded, &c.

CAPONNIERE, in fortification, is a passage made from one work to another, of 10 or 12 feet wide, and about 5 feet deep, covered on each side by a parapet, terminating in a glacis. Caponniers are sometimes covered with planks and earth. See Fortification.

Demi-CAPONNIERE, Fr. a passage which is made in the bottom of a dry ditch, and which is only defended towards the enemy by a parapet or glacis. Its object is to protect the branch or passage belonging to the ditch which is directly in front.

CAPORAL, Fr. Corporal.

CAPOTE de Faction, Fr. A large great coat with a hood or cowl worn by centinels in bad weather.

CAPS, in gunnery, are pieces of leather, or more commonly sheep-skins, to cover the mouth of mortars when loaded, 'till they are fired, to prevent damp, or rain getting in.

CAP-Squares. See Carriages.

CAP-A-pee, in military antiquity, implies
implies being clothed in armour from head to foot.

**CAPSTERN,** in military machines, **CAPSTAN,** signifies a strong massy piece of timber in the form of a truncated cone, having its upper part, called the drum-head, pierced with a number of square holes, for receiving the levers. By turning it round, several actions may be performed that require an extraordinary power.

**CAPTAIN** is a military officer, who is the commander of a troop of horse or dragoons, or of a company of foot or artillery. The name of captain was the first term made use of to express the chief or head of a company, troop, or body of men. He is both to march and fight at the head of his company. Captains of artillery and engineers ought to be more masters of the attack and defence of fortified places than either a captain of infantry or cavalry; because they must be good mathematicians, and understand the raising of all kinds of batteries, to open the trenches, to conduct the sap, to make mines and fougasses, and to calculate their charges. They ought further to be well acquainted with the power of artillery, the doctrine of the military projectile, and the laws of motion, together with the system of mechanics; and should be good draughtsmen. A captain has in most services the power of appointing his own serjeants and corporals, but cannot by his own authority reduce or break them; neither can he punish a soldier with death, unless he revolts against him on duty.

The captains of artillery in the Prussian service rank as majors in the army, and have an extraordinary pay, on account of the qualifications which are required in them; and the captains of bombardiers, miners, and artificers, in the Portuguese service, have £17. 13s. 6d. a month more than the captains of artillery in the same regiment.

**CAPTAIN General.** By the constitution the King is **captain general** of all the forces of great Britain. This term implies the first rank, power, and authority known in the British army. His Majesty was pleased to delegate this rank and the powers annexed to it, to his Royal Highness the Duke of York, in 1799.

**CAPTAIN-Lieutenant,** the commanding officer of the colonel's troop or company in every regiment, in case the colonel is absent, or he gives up the command of it to him. He takes rank as full captain, by an order in 1772, and by a late regulation succeeds to the first vacant troop or company; the price of a captain-lieutenancy being now the same as that of a captaincy. This title is still used in all foreign services.

**CAPTAIN reformed,** one who, upon a reduction of the forces on the termination of war, loses his company, yet keeps his rank and pay, whether on duty or not.

**CAPTAIN on half pay,** is one who loses his company on the reduction of an army, and retires on half-pay, until seniority puts him into duty and full pay again.

**CAPTAIN en second,** or second captain, is one whose company has been broke, and who is joined to another, to serve under the captain of it.

**CAPTAIN-CAPITAIN,** Fr. in the highest acceptation of the term this word signifies a man of great talents, genius and perseverance, who can undertake the management of a whole army and conduct it to victory.

**CAPTIVE (Captif, Fr.)** A prisoner of war.

**CAPTVI.** The name given by the Romans to their prisoners of war, who were generally loaded with chains, and placed near their colours. The captive kings had their heads shaved and were sent to Rome, to enhance the splendour of the triumph.

**CAPTURE,** Fr. any seizure or capture which is made against the enemy.

**CAPTURE de deserteurs,** Fr. Under the old government of France a particular order existed by which every intendant de province or commissaire de guerre was authorized to pay one hundred livres, or four pounds odd, to any person or persons who should apprehend and secure a deserter; and three hundred livres, or twelve pounds ten shillings for every man that could be proved to have enticed a soldier from the regular army or militia.

**CAQUE de poudre,** Fr. A term synonymous to a ton or barrel of powder.

**CAR,** in military antiquity, a kind of small carriage; figuratively, used by the poets for a chariot: it is mounted on wheels, representing a stately throne, used in triumphs and on other solemn occasions.
CARABINEERS, Fr. One complete regiment of carabineers was formed, during the monarchy of France, out of the different corps of cavalry. They were usually distributed among other bodies of troops, and it was their duty to charge the advanced posts of the enemy.

CARABINS, Fr. These were light armed horsemen, who sometimes acted on foot. They were generally stationed as the outposts, for the purpose of harassing the enemy, defending narrow passes, &c. In action, they usually fought in front of the dragoons, or upon the wings of the first line. Their name is derived from the Arabian word Karab, which signifies, generally, any warlike instrument.

CARACOLE, a semi-circular motion or half wheel; chiefly applied to that used either by individuals or squadrons of cavalry, to prevent an enemy from discovering where they intend to make their attack.

CARACOLER about d'une troupe ennemie, Fr. To hang upon the flanks of an enemy, in order to take him by surprise, or otherwise perplex him.

CARAVAN (Caravanne, Fr.) from a Turkish word, which signifies a troop of travellers, pilgrims, or merchants, formed as a body, and who travel across the desert, under an escort commanded by a chief who is called an Aga. These are guides attached to the caravans, who direct them to encamp near those places where water can be procured. With regard to other provisions the travellers take care to provide a large quantity, which they share with the Arabs, in case they should appear in great numbers; but if the escort are confident of their superiority, they will engage and sometimes give a severe drubbing to these intruders. The appellation of caravane is also given to the first voyages or cruizes which the knights of Malta are obliged to undertake before they become graduates, or can be promoted to the commanderies of the order.

CARBINE, in military affairs, is a fire-arm somewhat smaller than the fire-lock of the infantry, and used by the cavalry. It carries a ball of 24 in the pound: its barrel is 3 feet long, and the whole length, including the stock, 4 feet.

CARBINEERS, or Carabineers. All regiments of light-armed horse were formerly called so; but since the establishing of hussars and chasseurs, they have lost that denomination; and now all the foreign heavy cavalry are called carabineers.

CARCAMOUSE, Mouton, Marmont, Fr. a French-term to express the battering ram which was used in war by the ancients.

CARCASS, a composition of combustibles. Carcasses are of two sorts, oblong and round: the uncertain flight of the first sort has almost rendered them useless. They are prepared in the following manner: boil 12 or 15 lb. of pitch in a glazed earthen pot; mix with that 3 lb. of tallow, 30 lb. of powder, 6 lb. of salt-petre, and as many stopins as can be put in. Before the composition is cold, the carcass must be filled; to do which, smear your hands with oil or tallow, and fill the carcass 1 third full with the above composition; then put in loaded pieces of gun or pistol barrels, loaded grenades, and fill the intervals with composition; cover the whole over with coarse cloth, well sewed together, keeping it in a round form. Then put it into the carcass, having a hollow top and bottom, with bars running between them to hold them together, and composed of 4 slips of iron joined at top, and fixed at the bottom, at equal distances, to a piece of iron, which, together with the hoops, when filled, form a complete globular body. When quite finished and cold, the carcass must be steeped in melted pitch, and then instantly immersed in cold water. Lastly, bore 3 or four holes at top, and fill the same with fuze composition, covering the holes with pitch until used. Carcasses are thrown out of mortars, and weigh from 50 to 250 lb. according to the size of the mortars they are to be thrown out of. There are other carcasses for the sea-service, which differ from a shell only in the composition, and in the 4 holes from which it burns when fired.

CARCASSES were first used by the bishop of Munster, at the siege of Groll in 1672, where the Duke of Luxemburg commanded.

CARIPI, a kind of cavalry in the Turkish army, which to the number of 1000 are not slaves, nor bred up in the seraglio,
seraglio, like the rest, but are generally Moors, or renegado Christians, who have obtained the rank of horse-guards to the grand Signior.

CARMAIGNOLE, Fr. a name given to the French soldiers who first engaged in the cause of republicanism. It comes from a place in Italy, situate in Piedmont near the Po.

CARMINE, a bright scarlet colour which is used in plans of fortification, and serves to describe those lines that have mason work.

CARNAGE (Carnage, Fr.) The desperate action which takes place between two bodies of armed men, who destroy one another with the greatest rancour.

CARRUSAL, Carrousel, Fr. in military history, signifies a magnificent entertainment, exhibited by princes or other great personages, on some public occasion, consisting of cavalades of gentlemen, richly dressed and equipped, after the manner of the ancient cavaliers, divided into squadrons, meeting in some public place, and performing jousts, tournaments, &c. It also signifies among the French, from whom the term is taken, the place where tournaments, &c. were formerly exhibited. Thus the Place Carrousel in Paris, which is contiguous to the Palaces of the Louvre and the Tuileries, was appropriated to this purpose as late down as the sixteenth century.

CARREAU, Fr. in military sense, the ground. Coucher sur le carreau, Fr. to lay low; to knock down.

CARREAU, Fr. A very ancient sort of arrow. The carreau was trimmed with brass instead of being feathered, and was shot from a balista; whereas the arrow was trimmed with feathers, and thrown out from a bow.

CARRIAGES, in military affairs, are of various kinds, viz.

Garrison-Carriages, are those on which all sorts of garrison pieces are mounted. They are made much shorter than field carriages, and have generally iron trucks instead of wheels.

N. B. As the trucks of garrison-carriages are generally made of cast-iron, their axle-trees should have copper clouts underneath, to diminish the friction of the iron against the wood. Travelling-carriages, are in many respects very unfit for garrison service, though they are frequently used.

Travelling-Carriages are such as guns are mounted on for sieges, and for the field; they are much longer, and differently constructed from garrison-carriages; having 4 wheels, 2 for the carriage, and 2 for the limber, which last are only used on marches.

Field-Carriages are both shorter and lighter than those before mentioned, bearing a proportion to the pieces mounted upon them.

Galloper-Carriages serve for 1½ pounders. These carriages are made with shafts, to as to be drawn without a limber. In the last war the king of Prussia mounted light 3-pounders on these carriages, which answered very well.

Howitz-Carriages are for transporting howitzers, and those for the 6 and 5-8-inch howitzers are made with screws to elevate them, in the same manner as the light 6 pounders; for which reason they are made without a bed, and the centre transom must be 9 inches broad to fix the screw, instead of 4 for those made without: in the centre between the trail and centre-transom, there is a transom-bolt, which is not in others, because the centre-transom must be made to be taken out; after which the howitzer can be elevated to any angle under 90 degrees.

Tumbrel-Carriage. See Tumbrel.

Block-Carriage, a carriage which is made from a solid piece of timber, hollowed out so as to receive the gun or howitzer into the cap-squares; the lower part of the cap-square is let into the solid wood, and the gun or howitzer is either elevated or depressed by a screw, as in other carriages. The limber for this carriage carries two large chests for ammunition, and takes four men. The pintle of the limber is so constructed as to receive the gudgeon of the carriage; by which means a greater relief is afforded when the carriage passes over rough ground.

Block- Carriages are also used by the horse artillery as curricles. They are particularly useful on service. The original inventor of them, is the ingenious and indefatigable Col. Congreve, to whom the board of ordnance is not a little indebted for many improvements, and
and of whose services during the present war and in preceding wars, the most unquestionable records are preserved.

**Truck-Carriages** are to carry timber and other heavy burdens from one place to another, at no great distance: they serve also to convey guns or mortars upon a battery, whether their own carriages cannot go, and are drawn by men as well as horses.

**Ponton-Carriages.** Carriages of this kind are solely for transporting the pontons; they had formerly but two wheels, but are generally now made with four. The making use of two-wheel carriages for travelling a great way, is contrary to sense and reason; because the whole weight lying upon the two wheels, must make them sink deeper into the ground, than those of a four wheel carriage.

**CARRIER,** a kind of pigeon, so called from its having been used in armies, to carry orders from one division of an army to another, or intelligence to some officer commanding a post or army at a distance.

**CARRIÈRE, Fr.** A large spot intended for tournaments, races, and other exercises. Mr. de Folard says, that the cavalry is to start (prendre carrière) from sixty paces distance to charge the enemy.

To **CARRY.** In a military sense to prosecute, to continue, as to carry on the war.

To **CARRY on the trenches.** See TRENCHES.

**CART,** in a military sense, is a vehicle mounted on two wheels, and drawn by one or more horses; of which there are several sorts, viz.:

**Powder-Carts,** for carrying powder with the army; they are divided into 4 parts, by boards of an inch thick, which enter about an inch into the shafts. Each of these carts can only stow 4 barrels of powder. The roof is covered with an oil-cloth, to prevent dampness from coming to the powder.

**Slung-Carts,** used to carry mortars or heavy guns from one place to another at a small distance, but chiefly to transport guns from the water-side to the proof-place, and from thence back again; as also to convey artillery to the batteries in a fortification, &c.

**CARTE,** is a thrust with a sword at the inside of the upper part of the body, with the nails of your sword hand upward. **Low carte,** is a thrust at the inside of the lower half of the body; the position of the hand being the same as in the former.

**Carte-blanche,** Fr. a full and absolute power which is lodged in the hands of a general of an army, to act according to the best of his judgment, without waiting for superior instructions or orders. It likewise strictly means a blank paper; a paper to be filled up with such conditions as the person to whom it is sent thinks proper.

**Carte détaillée d'un pays,** Fr. a correct drawing of a country, so that all its various localities may be seen with a bird's eye view.

**CARTEL,** in military transactions, an agreement between two states at war for the mutual exchange of prisoners.

**Cartel,** Fr. a challenge or rendezvous given by two persons whose intentions are to fight.

**CARTOUCH,** in military affairs, is a case of wood about 3 inches thick at bottom, bound about with marline, holding about 400 musquet-balls, besides 8 or 10 iron balls of a pound each, to be fired out of a howitzer, for the defence of a pass, &c. See GRAPESHOT.

**Cartouche, Fr.** In geographical or topographical design, a particular species or mode of sketching out with a crow's quill, and with Indian ink. This sketch is made on the left of one of the lower angles; and if there be two sketches, the least of the two is always on the right.

**Cartouche-Jaune, Fr.** A discharge given to a soldier in the French service in consequence of his being rendered unworthy to carry arms, after having been degraded and punished. It is printed on yellow paper.

**Cartouches,** in artillery, are made of leather, to sling over the shoulder of the matross, who therein carries the ammunition from the magazine or wagon, for the service of the artillery, when at exercise or on real service.

**Cartouches, ou formules,** Fr. military passes which were given to soldiers going on furlough.

**Cartouchier, ou Porte-Cartouche, Fr.** A cartouch-box.
CARTRIDGE, a case of paper, parchment or flannel, fitted to the bore of the piece, and holding exactly its proper charge. Musket and pistol cartridges are always made of strong paper; between 30 and 40 of which are made from 1 pound of powder, including their priming. Ball cartridges are made of a different coloured paper to what is used for blank. The French musquet ball-carradges are all capped with flannel. Cannon and howitzer cartridges are sometimes made of parchment, though more generally of flannel.

CARTRIDGE-BAG, a case of wood, made in a circular form, to wear before the body of the soldier, holding 24 musket-ball cartridges in two rows: it is covered with leather, and worn upon a belt, both on duty, and on the day of battle. See POUCH.

CASAQUE, Fr. A kind of coat, that does not sit so tight as the common coat. This was formerly the regimental dress of the French troops, and as each company wore a casaque of a particular colour, it was easily known at once what company the delinquent belonged to. When the casaque was abolished, scarfs of different colours were introduced in lieu of it.

CASCADE, Fr. This literally means a fall; a cascade. In mining it signifies the descents or ascents which are made at different times downwards or upwards. Hence Cheminer par cascades, to make way by intermediate descents or ascents.

CASCANCES, Fr. holes, in the shape of wells, which are made on the terrepleine, close to the rampart, from which a gallery is thrown out under ground for the purpose of avoiding the enemy’s mines.

CASCANS, in fortification, are holes in the form of wells, serving as entrances to galleries, or giving vent to the enemy’s mines. See FORTIFICATION.

CASEMATE, in fortification, a vault, or arch of mason-work, in that part of the flank of a bastion which is next the curtain, made to defend the ditch, and the face of the opposite bastion. See FORTIFICATION.

CASEMATES nouvelle, Fr. arched batteries, which are constructed under all the openings of revetements or ramparts. The different forts at Cherbourg, are defended by these casemates; the works which have been finished during the present war round Dover Castle, come likewise under this description.

CASERNER une trouppe, Fr. To put a troop into barracks.

CASERNES, in fortification, are buildings for the soldiers of the garrison to live in; generally erected between the houses of fortified towns, and the rampart.

CASERNES, in a general acceptation, signify barracks.

CASE-SHOT. See SHOT, and LABORATORY.

CASHIERED. An officer sentenced by a general court-martial, or peremptorily ordered by the King, to be dismissed from the service, is said to be cashiered.

CASK, or CASQUE, the ancient helmet or armour for the head.

CASIS-Asher. The provost-marshals in a Turkish army.

CASSINE, in military history, signifies a small house in the country, generally surrounded by a ditch. Cassines are very convenient to post small parties in, where they will be sheltered from any sudden attack, and can even make head till the nearest detachments can come and relieve them.

CASSINE, Fr. Any house which is surrounded by a ditch. Of this description are the different country seats belonging to foreign noblemen, &c.

CASSIONS. See CAISSORS.

CASSIS, Fr. CASQUE or HELMET.

CASTILLE, Fr. A term formerly used to signify the attack of a tower or castle. It also became a species of military amusement, in which the combatants threw snow-balls at one another. In 1546, a difference took place among the sham-fighters at Roche-Guyon, and rose to such a pitch, that the Duke D’Enghien lost his life in the struggle. This event put an end to the game of Castille, as did the melancholy fate of Henry the IIIrd. of France, to Tournaments.

CASTING, in founding guns, implies the operation of running any sort of metal into a mould prepared for that purpose.

CASTLE, in military affairs, a fortified place, or strong hold to defend a town or city from an enemy. Castles are
British army, signifying men that are dead, (since first enlisted,) that have been discharged, or have deserted. The casualties form a separate column of themselves. The word is not strictly grammatical, since casual is an adjective and means accidental; arising from chance; depending on chance; not certain. Perhaps the word casually, which is a substantive, might have done better.

CAT o'nine tails, a whip with nine knotted cords, with which the British soldiers are punished. Sometimes it has only five cords.

CATAFALCO, in military architecture, a scaffold of timber, decorated with sculpture, painting, &c. for supporting the coffin of a deceased hero, during the funeral solemnity.

CATAMARAN. A sort of floating rafter, originally used in China, and among the Portuguese as a fishing boat. The Catamarans in India consist of two logs of wood upon which the natives float, and go through the heaviest surf to carry or bring letters on shore. They were lately adopted in the expedition against the flotta off Boulogne.

CATAPHRACT, the old Roman term for a horseman in complete armour.

CATAPHRACTA, in the ancient military art, a piece of heavy defensive armour, formed of cloth or leather, fortified with iron scales or links, where with sometimes only the breast, sometimes the whole body, and sometimes the horse too was covered.

CATAPHRASTIBIL. Horsemen in the Roman army.

CATAPULTA, in military antiquity, an engine contrived for throwing of arrows, darts and stones, upon the enemy. Some of these engines were so large and of such force, that they would throw stones of an hundred weight. Josephus takes notice of the surprising effects of these engines, and says, that the stones thrown out of them beat down the battlements, knocked off the angles of the towers, and had force sufficient to level a very deep file of soldiers.

CATATROME. See CRANE.

CATEJA. A kind of arrow formerly in use amongst the Teutonians and the Gauls, made of very heavy wood.

CATELLA. A small chain which the Romans used to wear about their necks; a part of the military recompenses.
CATERVA, among ancient military writers, a term used in speaking of the Gaulish or Celtiberian armies, denoting a body of 6000 armed men. The word is also used to denote a party of soldiers in disarray; in opposition to cohort or turma, which signify in good order.

CATIUS, in ancient military CATHOUSE, history, was a kind of covered shed, sometimes fixed on wheels, and similar to the Vincia and Plateus of the ancients.

CAVALCADE, in military history, implies a pompous procession of horsemen, equipages, &c. by way of parade, to grace a triumph, public entry, or the like.

CAVALIER, Fr. A horseman. CAVALIER, in fortification, is a work generally raised within the body of the place, 10 or 12 feet higher than the rest of the works. Their most common situation is within the bastion, and made much in the same form: sometimes they are placed in the gorges, or on the middle of the curtain; they are then made in the form of a horse-shoe. See FORTIFICATION: Their use is to command all the adjacent works and country round about it; they are seldom, or never, made but when there is a hill or rising ground, which overlooks some of the works.

French-Cavalier, in the attacks, is an elevation which the besiegers make by means of earth or gabions, within half-way, or two thirds of the glacis, to discover, or to enfilade the covert way.

CAVALOT, Fr. an ancient piece of ordnance about 5 French feet in length, carrying about 8 or 900 paces, and generally loaded with a ball of 1 pound weight, and a pound of gunpowder.

CAVALQUET, Fr. A particular sound of the trumpet which is used among the French, when troops of horse come near, or pass through a town.

CAVALRY, in military affairs, that body of soldiers which serves and fights on horseback: under this denomination are included.

Horse, that is, regiments or troops of horse. In England there are, the horse-guards, commonly called the first and second regiment of life guards; and the Oxford 'blues': formerly there was the royal regiment of horse-guards, which is now reduced. In Ireland there are four regiments of horse-guards. The first troop of horse was raised in 1660.

Dragoons, are likewise regiments of horse, but distinguished from the former by being obliged to fight both on foot and on horseback. In England there is the first, or king's regiment of dragoon-guards; the second, or queen's regiment of dragoon-guards; the third, or prince of Wales's regiment of dragoon-guards. Likewise, the first, or royal regiment of dragoons; the second, or royal North British dragoons; the third, or king's own regiment of dragoons; besides the Inniskilling regiment of dragoons, queen's regiment of dragoons, prince of Wales's regiment of dragoons, with 10 more regiments of dragoons. The first regiment of dragoons was raised in 1681.

Hunters. See LIGHT-HORSE.

Light-horse, are regiments of cavalry, mounted on light, swift horses, whose men are but small, and lightly accoutred. They were first raised in the last war, in 1757.

Hussars, are properly Hungarian horse. Their uniform is a large furred cap, adorned with a cock's feather; those of the officers, either with an eagle's or a heron's; a very short waistcoat, with a pair of breeches and stockings in one; short light boots, generally of red or yellow leather; with a curious doublet, having five rows of buttons, which hang loosely on the left shoulder. Their arms are a long crooked sabre, light carbines, and pistols. Before they begin an attack, they lay themselves so flat on the necks of their horses, that it is hardly possible to discover their force: but being come within pistol-shot of the enemy, they raise themselves with surprising quickness, and fall on with such vivacity, that it is very difficult for the troops to preserve their order. When a retreat is necessary, their horses have so much fire, and are so indefatigable, their equipage so light, and themselves such excellent horsemen, that no other cavalry can pretend to follow them; they leap over ditches, and swim over rivers, with surprising facility. Most of the German powers have troops under this name, as so has France; into which country they were originally introduced under Louis the XIII.
C E L

and were called Hungarian cavalry. This description of cavalry was accordingly more ancient in the French service, than that of husars.

CAVEATING, in fencing, implies a motion whereby a person in an instant brings his sword, which was presented to one side of his adversary, to the opposite side.

CAVesson, Fr. An iron instrument fixed to the nostrils of a horse to curb, or render him manageable, through the pain it occasions.

Cavin, in military affairs, implies a natural hollow, sufficiently capacious to lodge a body of troops, and facilitate their approach to a place. If it be within musket-shot, it is a place of arms ready made, and serves for opening the trenches, free from the enemy’s shot.

Cavin, Fr. In fortification, a hollow way which runs round the works of a fortified place, and which answers the purpose of a trench.

CAUTION, an explanation given previous to the word of command, by which the soldiers are called to attention, that they may execute any given movement with unanimity and correctness.

CAZEMATTE. See CASEMATE.

CASEMATE, a certain retired place in the flank of a bastion, for the defence of the ditch, and the face of the opposite bastion; not used at present. It also implies a well, having several subterraneous branches, which are extended when they suspect the enemy is forming a mine, till they hear the miners at work.

CAZERNES, Fr. See CASERNES.

CEINTURE militaire, Fr. A broad leather belt which was worn round the waist, and was ornamented with gold or silver plates.

CEINTURON, Fr. Sword-belt.

CELERES, the life-guards which attended Romulus, in the infancy of Rome, were so called. They were laid waste by Numa Pomphilus. Celeres are properly distinguished from other troops, by being lightly armed and acting always on foot. Hence probably the origin of running footmen, who are lightly clothed and always accompany the carriages of German potentates and princes. They carry a large silver headed stick. The Celeres cannot be considered under the same head as Velites.

CEMENT. See CEMENT.

CENOTAPH, in military history, implies the empty tomb of a hero, or a monument erected to the honor of a person, without the body of the deceased being interred in or near it.

CENTENIER, Fr. The chief, or captain of a troop or company which consists of one hundred men.

CENTER, Fr. In a general sense, signifies a point equally distant from the extremities of a line, surface, or solid.

CENTRE of a battalion, on parade, is the middle, where an interval is left for the colours; of an encampment, it is the main street; and on a march, is an interval for the baggage; when it is so placed.

CENTRE of a bastion, is a point in the middle of the gorge of the bastion, from whence the capital line commences, and which is generally at the inner polygon of the figure.

CENTRE of gravity, in military mechanics, is that point about which the several parts of a body exactly balance each other in any situation.

CENTRE of a conic section, is the point where all the diameters meet.

CENTRE of an ellipse, is that point where the transverse and conjugate diameters intersect each other.

CENTRE of motion, is that point which remains at rest while all the other parts of the body move about it.

CENTRE of percussion, is that point in which the force of the stroke is the greatest possible. When the moving body revolves round a fixed point, the centre of percussion is the same with the centre of oscillation, and found by the same method; but when the body moves in a parallel direction, the centre of percussion is the same with the centre of gravity.

CENTESIMATION, in ancient military history, a mild kind of military punishment, in cases of desertion, mutiny, and the like, when only every 100th man was executed.

CENTINEL, Fr. a private-soldier.

CENTRY, from the guard, posted upon any spot of ground, to stand and watch carefully for the security of the said guard, or of any body of troops,
or post, and to prevent any surprise from the enemy. All sentinels are to be very vigilant on their posts; they are not to sing, smoke, or suffer any noise to be made near them. Neither are they to sit down, lay their arms out of their hands, or sleep; but keep moving about their posts during the two hours they stand, if the weather will allow of it. No sentry to move more than 50 paces to the right, and as many to the left of his post, and let the weather be ever so bad, he must not get under any other cover, but that of the sentry box. No sentry can be allowed to go from his post without leave from his commanding officer; and, to prevent desertion or marauding, the sentries and vedettes must be charged to let no soldier pass.

**Sentinel perdus, Fr.** a soldier posted near an enemy in some very dangerous post, where he is in perpetual danger of being shot or taken.

**Sentry-box,** a sort of wooden box, or hut, to shelter the sentinel from the injuries of the weather; but, in fortifications made of masonry, they are made of stone, in a circular form.

**Centurion,** a military officer among the ancient Romans, who commanded an hundred men. The term is now obsolete.

**Centurion, Fr.** See Centenier.

**Century,** in a military sense, means a hundred soldiers, who were employed in working the battering-ram.

**CEPS, Fr.** Stocks, fetters. It also means a trap.

**CEPS de César, Fr.** Caesar’s trap. A stratagem which was used by Julius Caesar in one of his campaigns, and was called Ceps de César, from the snare into which the enemy was led. Being solicitous to draw their forces towards Alexia, he made an avenue through a forest, which seemed to be the only pass through which his army could possibly move. They gave into the snare, and eagerly pursued Caesar into the forest. The latter, however, had had the precaution to order a great number of trees on each side to be sawed within three inches of the ground, and round their several trunks there were various pieces of wood and branches, spread in such a manner, that the soldiers could not pass without being tripped up, and the road consequently choked.

**CERAMICUS.** A place so called in Athens, surrounded with walls, and where the tombs and statues of such men as had died in fighting for their country were to be seen. Divers inscriptions in praise of them bore testimony of their exploits.

**CERCLÉ, Grand-cercle, Fr.** a form observed under the old government of France, by which it was directed, that every evening at a specific hour the serjeants and corporals of a brigade should assemble to receive orders; the former standing in front of the latter. Subsequent to the grand cercle, a smaller one was made in each regiment, when general, or regimental orders were again repeated to the serjeants of each corps, and from them communicated to the officers of the several companies.

**CERCLE, (neurtrier) Fr.** A large flat piece of iron, one inch thick, which is made red hot, and thrown at the assailants.

**Cercles Goudronnés, (pitched hoops.)** Old matches, or pieces of old cordage, dipped into pitch or tar, and made in the shape of a circle, which are placed on blazing dishes to light the garrison of a besieged town or post.

**Cercles à Feux, Fr.** Two, three, or four hoops tied together with wire, and all around which are fixed grenades, loaded pistol-barrels, crackers, pointed pieces of iron, &c. The whole is covered with tow and fire-work: these hoops are then driven across the works of the besiegers: they are likewise used to oppose an assault; in which case they are called couronnes foulroyantes.

**CERNER, Fr.** To surround.

**Cerner un ouvrage de fortification, une troupe, Fr.** To surround any particular part of a fortification, troop, or company.

**CERTIFICAT, Fr.** See Certificat.

**CERTIFICATES, are of various kinds, as applied to officers generally, or to commissaries, commanding officers, or staff. They are testimonials bearing witness to the existence of some requisite qualification, or to the performance of some act required by the regulations.
regulations of the army, and for which
the officer who signs is responsible,
whether he certifies for himself, or for
any other officer.

Military Certificates are of vari-
ous denominations, and consist chiefly
of the following kinds, viz.
Certificate from a field officer to the
commander in chief, affirming the eligi-
bility of a young man to hold a com-
mission in his Majesty's service. See
prized forms at the Military Library,
Windsor.

Certificate of the officer upon honor,
that he does not exceed the regulation
in the purchase of his commission.

Certificate from a general officer to
afirm and prove the losses which offi-
cers may sustain in the field.

Certificate from colonels of regiments
as the board for admission of proper
objects to the hospital at Chelsea.

Certificate from a magistrate to iden-
tify the person of a recruit, and to
prove, that he has enlisted himself vo-
luntarily into the service: likewise, that
the articles of war have been read to
him. For a specific form, see General
Regulations, page 113.

Certificate from regimental surgeons,
whether men when they join are proper
and fit objects to be enlisted; ditto to
be discharged.

Certificate of commanding officers for
stores, &c.

Certificate, to enable an officer to re-
ceive his half pay.

Certificate of surgeons and assistant
surgeons, to prove their having passed
a proper examination.

CERVELIER, Fr. A kind of helmet
to protect the head.

CERVELLE. See mine sans cervelle.

CESSATION, or cessation of arms,
is a military sense, means a truce, or
the total abrogation of all military
operations for a limited time.

CESTUS. A thick leathern glove,
covered with lead, which the ancient
pugilists used in the course of their
tennis exercises, and especially when
they fought for the prize of pugilism.
The Greeks had four different sorts of
Cestuses. The first, which was called
inaste, was made of the hide of an
ox, dried but not dressed. The second
called myrrhoses was covered with metal.
The third, named antiques, was made
of thin leather thongs; and covered
neither the wrist nor fingers. The
fourth, which was called sphoercus is the
thick glove we have mentioned the first,
at the beginning of the article.

CESTROSPONDONUS, a dart,
that received its appellation from the
sling, from which it was thrown: it was
pointed at both ends.

CETRA, a small and very light
shield made of the hide of an elephant,
in use amongst the Africans and Span-
niards

CHABLEAU, Fr. A middle sized
rope which is used to draw the craft
up a river.

CHACE of a gun, generally means
the whole length of it. See CANNON.

CHAFFERY, that part of the foun-
dry where the forges are placed for
hammering iron into complete bars,
and thereby bringing it to perfection.

CHAIN for engineers, is a sort of
wire chain divided into links of an
equal length, made use of for setting
out works on the ground, because cords
are apt to shrink and give way.

There are several sorts of chains
made use of in mensuration; as Mr.
Rathbone's, of two perches in length;
others one perch long; some of 1000
feet in length; but that which is most
in use amongst engineers is Mr. Gun-
ter's, which is 4 poles long, and con-
tains 100 links, each link being 7.15
inches in length.

CHAIN-shot. See Shot.

CHAINE, ou enceinte, d'un fourrage,
Fr. A body of armed men thrown
round the place where corn and hay
are gathering for the use of an army,
to protect the foragers against the at-
tacks of the enemy.

CHAINe de quartiers, Fr. A regular
chain or communication which is kept
up between towns, villages, &c. for the
safety of an army.

CHALLENGE, a cartel, or invita-
tion to a duel, or other combat; it may
with propriety be called a provocation,
or summons to fight, when an affront,
in derogation of honor, has been of-
erred.

CHALLENGE, is also a term applied
to an objection made against any mem-
ber of a court-martial, on the score of
real or presumed partiality. The pri-
soner, however, in this case, must as-

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sign his cause of challenge; of the relevancy, or validity of which the members are themselves the judges; so that peremptory challenges, though allowed in civil cases, are not acknowledged in military law. The privilege of challenging belongs equally to the prisoner and the prosecutor.

CHAMADE, in a military sense, means a signal made by the enemy, either by beat of drum, or sound of trumpet, when they have any matter to propose; such as to bury their dead, &c. See PARLEY.

CHAMAILLIER, Fr. To fight at close quarters, or hand to hand, in full armour.

CHAMBER of a cannon, in artillery, that part of the bore of a cannon which receives the powder with which it is charged. See CANNON.

CHAMBER of a mortar, the space where the powder lies. Chambers are of several forms and dimensions, such as the conic, spherical, cylindrical, parabolic, and concave, or bottled chambers. See MORTARS.

CHAMBER of a mine, that place where the charge of powder is lodged, to blow up the works over it. See MINE.

CHAMBER of a battery, is a place sunk under ground for holding powder, loaded shells, and fuzes, where they may be out of danger, and preserved from rain or moisture.

CHAMBRE, faire chambre, Fr. a military phrase among the French, to signify several persons lodged in the same room, barrack, or tent.

CHAMFRAIN, Fr. An armour used to protect the horse; it was made either of metal or of boiled leather, and covered the front part of the animal's head, in the shape of a mask. A round, sharp-pointed piece of iron was fixed on the centre of it. The chamfrain of the Comte de Saint-Pol, (1449) at the siege of Harfleur, under Charles VII. was valued at 30,000 crowns of the then currency; that of the Count de Foix, at the taking of Bayonne was worth 15,000 gold crowns.

CHAMP CLOS, Fr. Camp list, in the first centuries and even long after, was a privileged spot, granted by royal assent, under the authority of the laws of the country, where such individuals who had a difference or an affair of honour to settle, were admitted to private combat. The place allotted for tournaments was also called champ clos.

CHAMP de bataille, Fr. Field of battle; the ground on which two armies meet.

CHAMP de Mars, Fr. the field of Mars, an open place in the neighbourhood of Paris, where troops were frequently reviewed by the kings of France, and in which the public festivals have been observed since the revolution.

CHAMPION, he who undertook to settle the difference of contending armies, by single combat. A warrior who fights in support of a cause, whether his own or another person's.

It is likewise an honorary title which descends to the male issue of a particular family in England. The champion of England is drunk to at every coronation, and receives a golden cup from his new sovereign.

CHAMPION, Fr. Champion. Among the French, this word signifies a brave soldier, or military man.

CHANDELIERS, in military affairs, constitute a kind of moveable parapet, consisting of wooden frames, on which fascines are laid to cover the workmen when at work on the trenches. They are made of various sorts and sizes.

CHANTIER, Fr. a square piece of wood, which is used for the purpose of raising any thing. It serves to place barrels of gunpowder in a proper manner, and frequently to try pieces of ordnance instead of frames.

CHAPE, the metaline part put on the end of a scabbard, to prevent the point of the sword or bayonet from piercing through it.

CHAPE, Fr. a barrel containing another barrel, which holds gunpowder. It likewise means a composition of earth, horse-dung, and wad, that covers the mouth of a cannon, or mortar.

CHAPELET, Fr. a piece of flat iron with three tenons or ends of timber, which is fixed to the end of a cannon.

CHAPERON, Fr. A cap with a pad, and a pointed tail hanging behind, in use only a few centuries back. These caps were made of different sorts of stuffs, and of two different colours. At the time of the famous league, which ended
ended when Henry of Navarre mounted the French throne, the opposite factions were distinguished by the colour of their chaperons. The same had taken place at the time of the disturbances between the dukes of Orleans, or Burgundy, and of Armagnac.

CHAPITEAUX, Fr. two small boards which are joined together obliquely, and serve to cover the touch-hole of a piece of ordnance.

CHAPLAIN. Previous to the commencement of the late war, each regiment had its chaplain. Regimental chaplains have been reduced since that period, and there remains now on the establishment, a chaplain general, who directs the performance of church service throughout the army; and for which duty, a certain allowance is given.

CHARACTER, in a general sense, implies any mark used for representing ideas, or objects.

Mathematical Characters} are

Military Characters} certain marks invented for avoiding confusion, and more clearly conveying the thoughts of those in those sciences; the chief of which are as follow:

+ is the mark of addition, and when placed between two numbers, shews that the latter is to be added to the former, thus 5 + 3 = 8 is five, add three, makes eight.

— is the mark of subtraction, thus: 5 — 3 = 2 is from five, take three, there remains two.

The qualities called negative, are those which have the mark—before them without any preceding number, but such a mode of writing is asserted by Mr. Baron Mézéron, in his use of the negative sign, and by Mr. Frend, in his excellent treatise on Algebra, to be neither useful nor proper.

+ in algebra is the sign of the real existence of the quality it stands before, and is called an affirmative, or positive sign. It is also the mark of addition, and signifies, that the numbers, or quantities on each side of it are added together.

— This is the note of negation, negative existence, or non-entity. It is the sign of subtraction, and signifies that the numbers, or quantities which come after it, are to be taken from the numbers, or quantities which stand before it.

N. B. + signifies a positive or affirmative quantity, or absolute number; but — signifies a fictitious or negative number or quantity. Thus — 8, is 8 times less than nothing. So that any number or quantity with the sign X being added to the same number, or quantity with the sign — their sum will be equal to nothing. Thus 8 added to — 8 is equal to 0, but — 8 taken from x 8, is equal to 16.

X is the sign of multiplication. It signifies into, or multiplied by.

÷ is the mark of division, and signifies, that the numbers, or quantities before it are to be divided by the numbers after it.

= are the signs of equality, and signify, that the quantities and numbers on the one side of it are equal to the quantities and numbers on the other.

√ is the sign of radicality, and shews (according to the index of the power that is set over, or after it) the square, cube, or other root, that is extracted, or is to be so, out of any quantity.

∛ is the sign of the cube root, and signifies the extraction of it, as in the square root above.

∞ is the sign of continued, or geometrical proportion.

:: is the mark of geometrical proportion disjunct, and is usually placed between two pair of equal ratio; as 3 : 6 :: 4 : 8, shews that 3 is to 6, as 4 to 8. Or a : b :: d : e, and are thus read, as a is to b, so is d to e, &c.

> or — are signs of majorit; thus a > b expresses that a is greater than b.

< or — are signs of minorit; and when we would denote that a is less than b, we write a < b, or a — b, &c.

± signifies more or less such a quantity, and is used often in extraction of roots, completing of squares, &c.

Artillery Characters, most generally used, are as follow:

C. qr. lb. which signify centners, or hundreds of 112 pounds, qr. quarters of 28 pounds, lb. pounds. Thus a piece of artillery with 14 : 3 : 16, is 14 hundred 3 quarters, and 16 pounds.

Pr. signifies pounder. Thus 24 pr. is a 24 pounder.

T. C. qr. lb. signifies tuns, centners, M quarters,
quarters, pounds; and 28 lb. is one quarter; 4 qr. is one centner, or 112 pounds; and 20 C. is one ton.

lb. oz. dr. mean, pounds, ounces, and drams: 16 dr. is one ounce, and 16 oz. is one pound.

lb. oz. dwt. gr. are pounds, ounces, penny-weights, and grains; of which 24 gr. make one penny-weight, 20 dwt. make one ounce, and 12 oz. one pound of troy-weight.

Characters in fire-works, are the following.

M Means meal-powder.
☑ Corned powder.
☐ Salt-petre.
☐ Brimstone.
☐ Crude Sulphur.
☐ Charcoal.
☐ Sea-coal.
☐ Beech raspings.
☐ Steel or iron filings.
☐ Brass-dust.
☐ Glass-dust.
☐ Tanners dust.
☐ Cast-iron.
☐ Crude antimony.
☐ Camphor.
☐ Yellow amber.
☐ Lapis calaminaris.
☐ Gum.
☐ Lamp-black.
☐ Ising-glass.
☐ Spirit of Wine.
☐ Spirit of turpentine.
☐ Oil of spike.

Characters, used in the arithmetic of infinites, are dots over letters, denoting the character of an infinitesimal, or fluxion. Thus the first fluxions of $x$, $y$, $z$, being marked thus, $\dot{x}$, $\dot{y}$, $\dot{z}$; the second are $\ddot{x}$, $\ddot{y}$, $\ddot{z}$; and the third

$\dddot{x}$, $\dddot{y}$, $\dddot{z}$.

Geographical Characters, are $\phi$, $\varphi$, $\psi$, &c. which signify degrees, minutes, seconds, thirds. Thus 40º, 35', 18", 55", is read 40 degrees, 35 minutes, 18 seconds, 55 thirds. It is also used in the elevation of pieces of artillery.

CHARBON. See AIGREMORE.

CHARDONS pour monter à l'assaut, Fr. Cramp-irons used by scaling parties. Previous to the cramp-iron being known, the soldiers to prevent their slipping in the attempt of storming a rampart, used to take off one shoe. At present they use the cramp-iron, or chardon de fer, which is fixed over the shoe by means of a strap with a buckle, or is screwed in the heel. We do not imagine this second method to be so safe as the other, especially when the attempt is extremely hazardous.

CHARDONS, Fr. Iron points in the shape of a dart, which are placed on the top of a gate, or wall, to prevent persons from getting over it.

CHARGE, in gunnery, implies the quantity of powder, shot, ball, shells, grenades, &c. with which a gun, mortar, or howitzer, is loaded.

As pieces of artillery are of various denominations, and consequently made use of on several occasions, their charges must of course have many variations.

CHARGE, is also the attack of cavalry; and charge bayonet is a word of command given to infantry, to rush on the enemy whom they are to charge at the point of the bayonet. To sound a charge, is the sound of the trumpet as a signal for cavalry to begin the attack.

CHARGE, in military law, is the specification of any crime, or offence for which a non-commissioned officer or soldier is tried before a court-martial. In all charges of this nature, the time and place, when and where the crime or offence was committed, must be set forth with accuracy and precision.

CHARGE, Fr. The French technically use this term in two different senses, viz. charge précipitée and charge à volonté. Charge précipitée is given when the four times are expressly marked, as charges vos armes, un, deux, trois, quatre; and applies chiefly to the drill. Charge à volonté is executed in the same manner as the charge précipitée, with this difference, that the soldiers do not wait for the specific words.

CHARGE de mine, Fr. The disposition of a certain quantity of powder, which is used for the explosion of a mine.

CHARGED cylinder, in gunnery, implies that part of the chance of a gun, which contains the powder and ball.

CHARGER, any horse belonging to an officer on which he rides in action or parade, &c.
Chargers (Chargeoirs, Fr.) are either handiers, or little flasks that contain powder for loading or priming.

Retourner la charge, Fr. To return to the charge in regular order.

Chargier, Fr. To load a piece of ordnance, or a fire-arm.

Chargier une armée, ou une troupe ennemie, Fr. To get into close action with an enemy, so that wounds may be mutually given and received.

Chargier avec l'arme blanche, Fr. To charge with fixed bayonet, or sword in hand.

Chargier en Colonne, Fr. To advance to the charge in column.

Chargier en flanc, Fr. To advance against either of the flanks of an enemy.

Chargier une mine, Fr. To place the quantity of gunpowder necessary for the explosion of a mine.

Chargier en queue une troupe, ou une arme, Fr. To take a troop, or an army in the rear, and to charge it sword in hand.

Charges militaires, Fr. Military commissions and appointments.

Charriage, Fr. Land-Carriage.

Charier du canon, Fr. To convey ordnance. It is likewise used to express the carriage of ammunition and military stores.

Chariot, a car, in which men of arms were anciently placed. These were armed with scythes, hooks, &c.

The person who drove the chariot was called the charioteer.

Chariots de Guerre, Fr. Armed chariots.

Chariot, Fr. Wagon.

Chariots d'une Armée, Fr. Wagon-train.

Chariots d'artillerie, Fr. Artillery-wagons.

Chariot couvert, Fr. a covered wagon.

Chariot à porter corps, Fr. a wagon upon four wheels, which is used for the carriage of a piece of ordnance that is not mounted.

Chariot à ridelles, Fr. A four-wheeled wagon with railing round its sides: it is used in the conveyance of cannon balls, shells and ammunition.

Chariots des vivres, Fr. Four-wheeled wagons covered at top with painted canvas thrown over hoops for that purpose. They are generally used to convey bread and stores to an army.

Charpentier, Fr. A Carpenter.

Charpentier Soldat, Fr. An enlisted man who is employed in carpentry work for military purposes.

Charpie, Fr. Lint. Such as is used in dressing wounds.

Charrons, Fr. Wheelwrights.

Chart, or sea-Chart, is a hydrographical map, or a projection of some part of the earth's superfaces in plano, for the use of navigators and geographers.

Plane-Chart, is a representation of some part of the superfaces of the terraqueous globe, in which the meridians are supposed parallel to each other, the parallels of latitude at equal distances, and consequently the degrees of latitude and longitude every where equal to each other.

Chart of reduction, is that where the meridians are represented by right lines, inclining towards each other; thence it appears by construction, that these charts must correct the errors of the plane ones. But since these parallels should cut the meridians at right angles, and do not, they are defective, insomuch as they exhibit the parallels inclined to the meridians.

Mercators-Chart, is that where the meridians are straight lines parallel to each other, and equidistant: these parallels are also straight lines, and parallel to each other; but the distance between increases from the equinoctial towards each pole, in the ratio of the secant of the latitude to the radius.

Globular-Chart, a meridional projection, wherein the distance of the eye from the plane of the meridian, upon which the projection is made, is supposed to be equal to the sine of the angle of 45°. This projection comes the nearest of all to the nature of the globe, because the meridians therein are placed at equal distances.

Chorographic-Charts, are descriptions of particular countries.

Heliographic-Charts, descriptions of the body of the sun, and of the maculae or spots observed in it.

Selenographic-Charts, particular descriptions of the spots of the moon, her appearance and maculae. Hevelius has written very accurately on Selenograph-
Telegraphic Charts, are descriptions of the telegraph on paper.

Topographic Charts, are specific delineations of military positions, in any given tract of country. Companies of topographers have been formed among the French, for the purpose of accurately and expeditiously pointing out to generals and commanding officers, all the relative points of locality, &c.

CHARTAGNE, Fr. A strong entrenchment, most generally concealed from the view of the enemy, and which is used in woods and forests, for the defence of important passages.

CHASE of a gun. See CHACE.

To CHASE the enemy. To move after him on horseback in full speed. To pursue a ship at sea.

Donner la CHASSE, Fr. To pursue a flying enemy.

CHASSE, Fr. To drive away. To force an enemy to quit a position, &c.

CHASSE, Fr. A charge of coarse powder which is thrown into the bottom of the cartouche, to facilitate the explosion of the fire-work it contains.

CHASSE-Coquins. Fr. See Bandoulière. CHASSEURS, Fr. Light infantry men, forming a select body upon the left of a battalion, in the same manner that grenadiers are posted on the right. They must be particularly active, courageous and enterprising.

CHASSEURS, Fr. See Hunters.

CHASSEURS à cheval, Fr. A species of light troops in the French service.

CHASSIS, Fr. a square platform made of wood, which is used in mining.

CHASSIS de galerie, Fr. Beams of different lengths, which the miners use to support the earth in proportion as they advance into the gallery. These beams support other transversal ones which prevent the earth falling down; the whole is called chasseau de mineur.

CHASSIS à secret, Fr. A particular method of drawing lines upon a sheet of paper, and folding it in such a manner, that when the words which are written in the intervals are read, they appear incomprehensible, except to the person who is provided with a corresponding sheet, and who by placing it upon the one received, unravels the significance of its contents.

CHAT, Fr. a piece of iron having one, two or three very sharp prongs, or claws; arranged in a triangular shape, when it has three prongs. This piece of iron is fixed to a shaft. It is used in the examination of a piece of ordnance, and by being introduced into the bore, shews whether it be honey-combed, damaged, or otherwise defective.

There is another species of chat which differs a little from the one we have just described. It consists of two branches of iron, that are fixed to the end of a piece of the same metal, and have, each of them two steel prongs or claws. One of these branches contains a hinge with a spring so fixed, that when the chat is put into the bore, the least cavity releases the spring, and the defect is instantly discovered. Master-Founders, who by no means like the invention, call the common chat le diable, the devil; and they distinguish the one with two branches, by terming it la malice du diable, the malice of the devil.

CHAT, Fr. A kind of turret formerly in use amongst the French, for the conveyance of the troops who were going to besiege a town.

CHATEAU, Fr. A small castle which stands by itself, and is sometimes occupied by a troop or company of soldiers who mean to hold out.

CHATELET, Fr. In former times a small castle or fortress. The officer who had the command of it was called Chatelein.

CHATIMENT, Fr. Punishment. Chastisement.

CHATIMENT Militaire, Fr. Military punishment.

CHAUTER les pièces, Fr. to search, to probe, or examine pieces of ordnance with a chat, in order to discover whether there are any defects within the bore of a cannon.

CHAUDIERES, Fr. are vessels made use of in military magazines, to boil pitch in, for various purposes.

CHAUFFAGE Militaire, Fr. A ration of wood or other fuel.

CHAUFFE, Fr. a spot where the wood is collected and burnt in a foundry. The chauffe stands three feet under the side of the furnace, the flames which issue from it, spread over every part of the inside of the furnace, and by their intense heat dissolve the metal.

CHAUF-
CHAUFFER, une troupe, une forteresse, Fr. To keep up such a hot and continual discharge of ordnance or musketry against an armed body of men, or fortified place, that they must either retreat or capitulate.

CHAUSSEE, Fr. Any paved way which is raised across a morass, &c. It also signifies the broad road.

CHAUSSE-Trapes, Fr. are what we call crows feet; they consist of nails with 4 or 5 points, of which one always stands upward, above the level of the ground; each point is 4 or 5 inches long. They are usually fixed in different parts of a breach, or in an place which is accessible to cavalry, to prevent its approach; sometimes they are of use to obstruct the passage of cavalry through the streets.

CHAUSSE, or Rés de CHAUSSE, an old expression for the level of the field or the plain ground.

CHECAYA. The second officer in command among the Janizaries; the Aga's lieutenant.

CHEEKS, a general name among mechanics, for those pieces of timber in their machines, which are double and perfectly corresponding to each other. In the construction of military carriages, &c. the term is used to denote the strong planks which form the sides.

To CHEER. To incite; to encourage: to inspire; to huzza.

CHEERS. A military term used among the English in the same sense that the wood acclamations obtains among the French. Signs of joy; assurances of success before or after an engagement; testimonies of loyalty and affection on the appearance of a chief magistrate, general, &c. expressed by huzzas.

CHEF, Fr. The chief or head of a party, troop, company, regiment, or army. The person who has the principal command.

CARR, Fr. Chef has various significations in the French service. With regard to private soldiers, it serves to mark out the corporal or oldest soldier, who has the management of their provisions in quarters, or in the field; this person was called chef de chambrière. A chef de chambrière among the Romans, was called a decanus.

CHEF d'escadre, Fr. A general officer, who commands any part of an army, or division of a fleet. His duty, in the sea-service is nearly the same as that of a brigadier general on shore. Chef d' escadre sit upon all general courts-martial, and rank according to the dates of their commissions.

CHEFS de files, Fr. The front rank of a battalion, consisting generally of the best and bravest soldiers. When an engagement takes place, par file by files, the order of the battalion is necessarily changed; that which was rank becomes file, and what was file becomes rank.

CHEF de file, Fr. The man who stands on the right of a troop or company.

CHEF de parti, Fr. The head of a detachment, or reconnoitring party. The person who is at the head of others when some particular cause is espoused. It also signifies the principal leader in a tumult of insurrection.

CHEF du nom et armes, Fr. When an illustrious family in France was composed of several branches, he that represented the eldest branch was distinguished by this denomination. By illustrious families the reigning houses were equally understood. This distinction exists still amongst those nations that have retained their nobility: most likely it has taken its origin from the letters of nobility granted to military men, on account of some exploit.

CHELSEA HOSPITAL. A noble edifice which was built by Charles the 2d on his restoration, and afterwards improved by his successor James the 2d. Non-commissioned officers and private men, who have been wounded or maimed in the service, are entitled to the benefit of this hospital. There are in and out-pensioners belonging to the establishment, and the provisions of it extend to the militia under the following restrictions; serjeants who have served fifteen years, and corporals or drummers who have served twenty, may be recommended to the bounty. Serjeants on the establishment may likewise receive that allowance, with their pay in the militia. But serjeants who have been appointed subsequent to the passing of the 26th of George the 3d, are not entitled to it under twenty years service.

CHEMIN-Couvert. See COVERTWAY.
CHE

CHEMIN des rondes, in fortification, a space between the rampart and low parapet under it, for the rounds to go about it.

CHEMINER, Fr. In fortification, to carry on some particular work, such as a trench, &c. towards a given object.

CHEMISE, Fr. an obsolete term to signify the revetement made of brick work, which was formerly constructed to secure works made of earth, especially those that were formed of sandy soil, and would necessarily require too large a talus to support the weight.

The modern term is ouvrage revetu, place revetue.

CHEMISE a feu, Fr. A piece of cloth which is steeped in combustible matter, and is made use of against a scaling party.

CHEMISE de feu, Fr. A French seafort, to signify several pieces of old sails of various sizes, which after they have been pitched, and thoroughly soaked in other combustible matter, such as oil of petrol, camphor, &c. may be nailed to an enemy’s ship or boarding her, and when set fire to, will consume the same.

CHEMISE de maille, Fr. A shirt of mail, or body lining made of several scales or iron rings, which was worn under the coat to protect the body of a man.

CHEMISE de coup de main de surprise, Fr. A shirt made of cloth highly bleached, and of which a general provides a number when he premeditates a coup de main. This chemise must not come below the waist, in order that it may be got over the coat and cartouch box. The General directs these shirts to be made either with two sleeves, with one or without any at all. A coup de main of this kind must be kept secret till the moment of its execution. This stratagem is practised to prevent a soldier from attacking his brother soldier.

CHEMISTRY, the art of examining bodies, and of extracting from them any of their component parts.

CHESS, a nice and abstruse game, supposed to have been invented during the siege of Troy. This game is particularly adapted to military capacities.

CHEVAL de bois, Fr. A wooden-horse, a military chastisement, which common prostitutes who followed the French army, were subject to undergo, by exposing them, we presume, on a wooden-horse.

CHEVAL eclappe, Fr. A lame horse.

CHEVAL encloué, Fr. A horse that is rendered useless for the moment, from having been pricked in being shod.

CHEVAL morveau, Fr. A horse that has the flanks.

CHEVAL d’ordonnance, Fr. A horse which is impressed in a town or village for some military purpose.

A-CHEVAL, Fr. To horse! A notice given by sound of trumpet for dragoons to mount.

ETRE a CHEVAL sur une rivière, sur une chaussée, Fr. To be encamped or drawn up on each side of a river or road.

CHEVALER, Fr. To prop; to support.

CHEVALER, in the manege, is said of a horse, when, in passing upon a walk or trot, his off fore leg crosses the near fore leg every second motion.

CHEVALET, Fr. A sort of belltent, formerly used in the French service, when an army encamped. It resembles in some degrees the wigwam of the Indian.

CHEVALET, Fr. Several pieces of wood, which, being fastened together, form a sort of a rafter for troops to cross rivers upon.

CHEVALET d’armes, Fr. A covered rack which is made in the front of a line of encampment for the regular distribution and security of the firearms belonging to the different troops or companies. This is sometimes called faisceau d’armes, a pile of arms.

CHEVALIER, in a general sense, signifies a knight or horseman.

CHEVALIERS Errants, Fr. Knights-errant, or adventurers who were continually wandering about in search of love adventures, and of opportunities to try their skill in arms.

CHEVAUX-de-frise, in fortification, a large joist or piece of timber, about 5 or 6 inches square, and 10 or 12 feet in length; into the sides whereof are driven a great number of wooden pins, about 6 feet long, and 1½ inch diameter, crossing one another at right angles, and
and pointed with iron. They are used on numberless occasions, as to stop up the breaches, to secure the avenues of a camp from the inroads both of horse and foot. They are sometimes mounted on wheels, with artificial fires, to roll down in an assault, &c. They were first used at the siege of Groningen, in 1658.

CHEVAUX LEGERS, Fr. A corps of cavalry, which, during the monarchy, was composed of two hundred gentlemen, making part of the King of France's guard. It has been noticed to the honor of this corps that they never lost their kettle drums, nor their colours. They were established by Henry IV. who first exclusively confined the hommes d'armes to the navires of Natteau.

CHEVAUX à la pâturé, Fr. Horses out at grass.

CHEVAUX au piquet, Fr. Horses at picket.

CHEVAUX au sec, Fr. Horses fed upon dry forage, such as corn, &c.

CHEVAUX au verd, Fr. Horses kept upon green forage.

CHEVAUX des vignes, Fr. Horses belonging to the quarter master general's department.

CHEVET, Fr. a small wedge which is used in raising a mortar, it is placed between the frame and swell of the mortar.

CHEVET du canon, Fr. A large wedge, which is sufficiently strong to support the breech of a piece of ordnance upon its carriage.

CHEVETAIN, Fr. A term anciently used among the French to signify the leader of a troop or company. The chevetain was the same as Capitaine or Connétable, with this difference, that the commission only lasted during the time of hostilities.

CHEVILLE d'affût, Fr. An iron bolt which goes across the whole of a gun carriage.

CHEVILLE à oreilles, Fr. An iron bolt of the above description which has rings.

CHEVILLE outrièrre, Fr. A large flat headed nail, which confines the avant-train to the gun carriage of a piece of ordnance.

CHEVILLES de travaux militaires, Fr. large nails used in the artillery. See Nails.

CHEVISANCE, Fr. enterprise, feat, or achievement.

CHEVRE, Fr. a crab or gin. See CHEVRETTE.

CHEVRETTE, a kind of gin. Among the many inventions for raising guns or mortars into their carriages, this engine is very useful: it is made of two pieces of wood about 4 feet long, standing upright upon a third, which is square: they are about a foot asunder, and parallel; pierced with holes opposite one another, to hold a strong bolt of iron, which may be raised higher or lower at pleasure: it may be used with a hand-spike, which takes its poise over this bolt, to raise anything by force.

CHEVROTINES, Fr. leaden bullets of small calibre; there are generally 60 to a pound weight.

CHIAJA-Boch. The third general officer in command among the Janizaries. We may judge of the power of the Aga, who is chief commandant of the Janizaries, from the rights and authority of his second lieutenant: he is captain of the richest company, which he governs despotically, he inherits the whole property of all the Janizaries who die without issue, or leave no relations behind them: and appoints his subaltern officers to be governors of the fortified towns.

CHIAUS. The captain of a company of Janizaries: this officer, of high rank, has two captain lieutenants under his command.

CHICANE, Fr. This word literally means trick, chicanery. In war it signifies the various expedients which are resorted to by able officers to preserve a post or place that is besieged.

CHICANES de Fosse, Fr. A very serious and bloody contest between the assailants and the besieged, when the former endeavour to become masters of the covert-way and of the ditches. Besides courage and even rashness, much sang-froid, intelligence, and judicious contrivances are requisite in those who direct either the attack or the defence.

CHIEF or CHIFFTAINE, the head leader, or commander of any clan in time of war, was so called, especially among the Scotch.

CHIEN d'une arme à feu, Fr. that part
part of the cock of a musquet or pistol which holds the flint.

CHIFFRES, Fr. Cyphers, certain characters, consisting of different names and words which are used in military correspondence.

CHILIARENS. The name given in Athens to a captain who commanded 1000 men.

CHIORME, Fr. the crew of galley slaves and bonavoglers or volunteers.

CHIRURGIE, Fr. Surgery.

CHIRURGIEN. See Surgeon.

CHIRURGIEN-Major, Fr. Surgeon-Major.

CHIRURGIEN particulier, Fr. A subordinate surgeon who is employed by the surgeon major, and attends at hospitals on wounded officers and soldiers.

CHIRURGIEN d’un régiment, Fr. A surgeon who is attached to some particular corps, and has pay and allowances in the same.

CHLAMIS. A short cloak which composed part of the military dress of the Greek: it was worn over the tunic. The Roman Emperors also adopted the chlamis for their military dress, and called it paludamentum.

CHOC, Fr. A warm and unexpected action which takes place between adverse armies, or bodies of armed men, who endeavour to maintain a post, to force a passage, or to get possession of an open town.

CHIROGRAPHY, in engineering, is the art of making a drawing or map of a country, province, or district.

CHIROGRAPHY, Chirographie, Fr. A general description of a country. It is not limited as Geography or Topography; the first comprehending the description of the earth, and the second of any particular part of it with its dependencies.

CHURCHWARDENS. The only proper sense in which they can be taken with respect to military matters, relates to the militia. They are to pay, when ordered by two deputy lieutenants, half the price of volunteers, to persons chosen by ballot, on penalty of 5l. They are likewise, with the consent of the inhabitants, to provide volunteers, and make a rate for the expense, which must not exceed 6l. per man. They are liable to have the rates on places where the militia has not been raised, levied upon them. One penny in the pound is allowed them for all the money they collect. In the counties of Kent and Sussex, they possess the power of constables, for the purposes specified in the 26th of the King.

CICATRICE, Fr. a scar; the mark which a wound leaves upon the surface of the human body.

CIDARIS, Fr. the turban or cap worn by the kings of Persia, Armenia, Pontus, and Egypt.

CILICE. A round table upon which the Roman and Greek soldiers used to lay down their shields when they returned from an expedition.

CILICES, Fr. Coarse tissues of horse or goat’s hair, quilted with seaweeds or cow-hair stuffed between. The ancients used to hang these cilices over the parapets, the ditches and breaches, to stop the dart or arrow that were shot from balistae or catapultae.

CILICIA, or Cicilia. A dress made of goat’s-hair, worn by the troops in ancient times, and invented by the Cilicians. When properly woven it is water proof.

CIMIER, Fr. a heavy ornament, which the ancient knights or chevaliers in France and in other countries were accustomed to wear upon their helmets; small figures were afterwards substituted in their stead.

CIMITER. See Scimitar.

CINETTERE, Fr. Scimitar.

CINCTUS; the appellation given to a Roman soldier, who was bound to carry arms and to fight. He received at the same time the cingulum (a belt), to be stript of which was reckoned the utmost disgrace.

CINQUAIN, in ancient military history, was an order of battle, to draw up 5 battalions, so that they might make 3 lines; that is, a van, main body, and reserve. Supposing the 5 battalions to be in a line, the 3d and 4th advance and form. the van, the 3d falls back and forms the rear, the 1st and 5th form the main body upon the same ground. Lastly, every battalion ought to have a squadron of horse on both the right and left wings. Any number of regiments, produced by multiplying by 5, may be drawn up in the same manner.

CINQUENELLES, Fr. thick ropes which
which are used in artillery for the purpose of throwing a bridge of boats or pontoons across a river.

CIRCUITOR, a Roman Officer who after having received his orders from a Tribune, began to visit the posts, and to ascertain whether the sentinels were alert and steady at their posts.

CIRCLE, in mathematicks, is a plane figure, comprehended under one line only, to which all right lines drawn from a point in the middle of it, are equal to one another.

CIRCUIT, (circuit, Fr.) that space which immediately surrounds a town or place; it also signifies the march of a body of men, who do not move in a direct line towards any given object.

CIRCUMFERENCE, (Confluence, Fr.) a curve line which goes round any perfect globular substance. It is this curve line which geometricians divide into 360 equal parts, called degrees; each degree into 60 equal parts, called minutes; each minute into 60 seconds, and each second into 60 tiersces; which latter division has been imagined or invented for the purpose of measuring the opening of an angle.

CIRCUMFERENTOR, an instrument used by engineers for measuring angles.

CIRCUMSPECT, (circuitpect, Fr.) a person who observes everything, conceals what he designs to put in execution, and is cautious with regard to everything he says or does. Such ought every commanding officer of a regiment and every general of an army to be.

CIRCUMSCRIPTION, (circumspection, Fr.) dignified reserve, great prudence, and marked discretion. These are qualifications essentially necessary to every man who holds a public situation.

CIRCUMVALLATION, or line of circumvallation, in military affairs, implies a fortification of earth, consisting of a parapet and trench, made round the town intended to be besieged, when any molestation is apprehended from parties of the enemy, which may march to relieve the place.

Before the attack of a place is begun, care is to be taken to have the most exact plan of it possible; and upon this, the line of circumvallation and the attack are projected. This line, being a fortification opposed to an enemy that may come from the open country to relieve the besieged, ought to have its defences directed against them; that is, so as to fire from the town: and the besiegers are to be encamped behind this line, and between it and the place. The camp should be as much as possible out of the reach of the shot of the place; and the line of circumvallation, which is to be farther distant from the place than the camp, ought still more to be out of the reach of its artillery.

As cannon are never to be fired from the rear of the camp, this line should be upwards of 1200 fathoms from the place; we will suppose its distance fixed at 1400 fathoms from the covert way. The depth of the camp may be computed at about 30 fathoms, and from the head of the camp to the line of circumvallation 120 fathoms, that the army may have room to draw up in order of battle at the head of the camp, behind the line. This distance, added to the 30 fathoms, makes 150 fathoms, which being added to the 1400, makes 1550 fathoms constitute the distance of the line of circumvallation from the covert way. The top of this line is generally 12 feet broad, and 7 feet deep: the parapet runs quite round the top of it; and at certain distances it is frequently strengthened with redoubts and small forts; the base 18 feet wide, the height within 6, and on the outside 5 feet, with a banquette of 5 feet wide, and 1½ high. See CONTRAVALLATION, or Countervallation.

CIRCUS, in military antiquity, a very capacious building, of a round or oval form, erected by the ancients for exhibiting shews to the people.

CIRE préparée, Fr. a composition which is made of yellow wax, tallow, and pitch, and is used as a sort of mastick gum to close up the heads of fuses, &c.

CISEAUX, Fr. chisels used by miners, to loosen earth from the sides of the excavation, without making a noise; which the miner effects by striking the chisel with his hand.

CITADEL, a fort with 4, 5, or 6 bastions, raised on the most advantageous ground about a city, the better to command it; and commonly divided from it by an esplanade, the more effectually
tually to hinder the approach of an enemy; so that the citadel defends the inhabitants if they continue in their duty, and punishes them if they revolt. Besiegers always attack the city first, that, being masters of it, they may cover themselves the better against the fire of the citadel. Having bastions it is thereby distinguished from a castle. Sometimes the citadel stands half within, and half without the ramparts of the place.

CITERNE, Fr. a cistern; well; every fortified town or place should have one.

CITERNEAU, Fr. a small well which is arched over for the purpose of holding rain water.

CITOYEN, Fr. citizen; the inhabitant of a place.

CITOYEN-fidélat. Fr. an armed citizen; a volunteer.

CIVIC-CROWN, among the ancient Romans, was a crown given to any soldier who had saved the life of a citizen. It was composed only of oaken boughs, but accounted more honourable than any other.

CIVIERE, Fr. a small handbarrow, which is carried by two men, and is much used in the artillery.

CLAIE, Fr. a kind of hurdle in the shape of a rectangle, made of twigs well interwoven: these claires are used during a siege, for want of blinds, to cover a lodgement, a sap, or the passage over a ditch, and are covered over with earth to protect the workmen against fire works.

CLAIRES poisées, Fr. pitched hurdles. These are used with great advantage to form causeways in a marshy soil, when the waters have been drained.

CLAIRON, Fr. a species of trumpet which is shriller in its sound than the ordinary kind.

CLAN, a term used among the Scotch for a number of families subject to one head, or chief, who led them to war.

CLARENCIEUX, the second king at arms, so called from the duke of Clarence, third son to king Edward III.

CLARIGATION, in Roman antiquity, a ceremony which always preceded a formal declaration of war. It was performed in the following manner: the chief of the heralds went to the territory of the enemy, where, after some solemn prefatory indication, he, with a loud voice, intimated, that he declared war against them for certain reasons specified; such as injury done to the Roman allies, or the like.

CLARINETTE, Fr. a clarinet; a shill musical instrument, resembling the hautboy, which is used in regimental bands.

CLAT. See HURDLES.

CLAYES. See HURDLES.

CLAYONAGES, Fr. Hurdles with which the timber work of a gallery is covered. They are likewise used in saps.

CLÉ. To clear the trenches. See TRENCHES.

ClÉF d'un état, d'un pays, Fr. literally signifies the key of a state or country. Any fortified place which must necessarily be taken before any irruption, can, with safety, be made into a country. Thus Luxemburg was called the key of the Austrian dominions towards France, as she formerly stood.

ClÉF de mouset, de carabine, de pistolet, Fr. an iron instrument with only one square hole, and a handle: it serves to cock the piece.

CLERK, in the general acceptation of the term, a writer in a public office, an officer of various kinds. See Johnson. Every military department belonging to Great Britain has subordinate persons of this description.

CLÉRÈ of the general meeting, for the levying, &c. of militia-men. In time of peace, this person has authority to adjourn any such meeting, when no lieutenant or deputy attends. It is his duty likewise to file amended lists of militia-men, to send notice of the time and place of exercise to the chief constables, and to transmit copies of accounts he receives of the commitment of deserted serjeants, &c. to the colonel and adjutant of the county battalion.

CLERK of the sub-division meeting. His functions are to give notice of the meeting to the deputy lieutenants, &c. and to transmit lists of men enrolled to the commanding officer; to appoint another meeting when there is not due attendance, and give notice of the same; to certify, gratis, in what list any person's name is inserted; to transmit copies
pies of rolls to the clerk of the general meeting; to transmit a list of the persons intoned to the commanding officer and adjutant; to enter on the roll the time of apprehending substitutes who desert.

Clerk of the peace is to transmit copies of qualifications to the county lieutenant; to enter qualifications; to cause dates, &c. of commissions to be inserted in the Gazette; and to transmit an annual account of qualifications to the secretary of state; to transmit an account of the arrival from abroad of the colonel, to the officer commanding in his absence; to deliver the annual certificate of the state of the militia, or certify his not having received one to the quarter sessions; to file certificates of officers service, and certify their names to the high constable; to transmit copies of certificates from the county lieutenants, &c. to the treasury, and the receiver general of the land-tax; to certify to the solicitor of the treasury the omission at the quarter sessions of assessing money on places where the musta has not been raised. He is liable to penalty for neglecting to record, &c. certificates.

Clerk of the battalion. The colonel or commanding officer of every militia regiment in time of peace may appoint a clerk to his battalion, who is to act as paymaster.

When the militia is embodied, the paymaster may appoint some intelligent sergeant to act in the capacity of clerk. The same regulation holds good in the line.

There is likewise a regimental clerk, who acts under the serjeant major. See REGIMENTAL BOOK.

Clerk of the check, an officer who has the check and control of the yeomen of the guard; also an officer in the ordnance, who conjointly with the clerk of survey is a check upon, and must sign all the accounts of the store-keeper before they are passed by the board.

Clerk of Survey, an officer in the ordnance in the store-keeper's office, who must survey the stores, and see them kept in order. He also signs the store-keeper's accounts before they pass the board.

Clerk of the Stores, an officer under the board of ordnance, who is responsible to the commissary for all ordnance stores under his charge; keeping an account of all issues or receipts.

CLICH, a sabre in use among the Turks: the blade of which is crooked and very broad. The Turks have also another kind of sabre, which is sharp only at one edge; the back of the blade is tipped with a piece of strong iron; this they call gadara; it is not so much falcated as the cliche. They have a third kind of sabre, straight, sharp at both edges, especially towards the point which is blunted: this they call palas.

CLIDE, or Jancilde, a long piece of timber withheld by a counter-poise, which, upon the latter being let loose, would throw a heavy load of stones into a fortress: the Clide was still in use under Charlemain.

CLIENTS, Fr. Noblemen who formerly served in the French armies under the pennant of a knight, the banner of a banneret, &c.

CLOCHE, Fr. a bell.

CLOCHEES SUJETTES A LA TUXE MILITAIRE, Fr. Bells subject to military requisition. The moment a town, that has been battered with cannon, surrenders, the inhabitants are compelled to redeem the bells, belonging to the churches, and divers utensils made either of brass or of some other metal. This kind of tribute is at the disposal of the chief of the artillery, who, as he thinks proper, divides it between the officers under his command; such at least was the custom during the old French monarchy.

CLOTHING. The clothing of the British army is determined by a permanent board, composed of the commander in chief, and a certain number of general officers, who act under the king's immediate authority. A considerable alteration has lately taken place in almost all articles which, under this head, are supplied to the soldiers. Those under the name of half mounting have been wholly laid aside.

The annual clothing of the infantry of the line, or fencible infantry, serving in Europe, in North America, or at the Cape of Good Hope, (Highland corps excepted) consists in a coat, waistcoat, or waistcoat front, a pair of breeches,
unlined, except the waistband, and with
one pocket only; a cap made of felt
and leather, with brass plate, cockade,
and tuft. The felt crown of the cap,
cockade, and tuft to be supplied annu-
ally, the leather part and brass plate,
every two years. Two pair of good
shoes, of the value of 3s. 6d. each pair,
are to be supplied annually in lieu of
the half mounting, and each serjeant is
to be credited with the sum of 3s. being
the difference between the value of the
former articles of half mounting for a
serjeant and private man. Some ex-
ceptions are made with respect to high-
land corps, and regiments serving in
the East and West Indies. For further
particulars, see Regulations, published
by authority, 22 April, 1803.

COLOY, or to cloy guns. See To
NAIL.

CLOUTS. See AXLE-TREE.
CLOUX, Fr. See NAILS.

To CLUB, in a military sense, to throw
into confusion; to deform, through igno-
norance, or inadvertency.

To CLUB a battalion implies gen-
erally a temporary inability in the com-
manding officer to restore any given
body of men to their natural front in
line or column. This occurs after some
manoeuvre has been performed, and is
occasioned by false directions being
given to the different component parts.
Ignorant and unexperienced officers
may frequently commit this error;
sometimes however, the circumstance
may arise from an erroneous move-
ment of a division or company, notwithstanding
that the word of command was cor-
rect. An able officer in that case will
instantly know how to unravel the se-
veral parts. The less informed and the
less capable may find a relief in sound-
ing the disperse, which see. It does
not, however, always follow, that be-
cause an officer may occasionally com-
mith this error with respect to the mi-
pune movements of a battalion, he must
therefore be unequal to the superior
functions of command; or that when
a man, who has risen from the ranks,
is perfectly master of the mechanical
arrangement of inferior movements, he
should be able to act upon the en-
larged scale of locality and position.
The military science which is required
in each of these cases essentially differs
in its appropriate exercise, but both are
necessary.

CLY-MORE, a great two-handed
sword, formerly in use among the high-
landers, two inches broad, doubly edged;
the length of the blade, 3 feet 7 inches;
the handle, 14 inches; of a plain trans-
verse guard, 1 foot; the weight, 6
pounds and a half. These swords were
the original weapons of England, as
appears by the figure of a soldier found
among the ruins of London, after the
great fire in 1666.

COAT of mail, armour made of
scales or iron rings.

COCARDE-militaire, Fr. Amongst
all nations the cockade has succeeded
to the scarf: it is not long, however,
since the Dutch continued to wear the
scarf crossways, and the Austrians over
their belts. From the colour or colours
of the cockade, it is discovered what
country a soldier belongs to. When
first this mark of distinction was intro-
duced, it was reckoned a badge of
honour. With regard to the scarfs
they were attended with great inconve-
nience, since an officer or private might
easily be seized by it, thrown from his
horse, or at least stopped in his flight.
From this very reason the French within
forty years have given up the shoulder
knots formerly worn by their cavalry
and dragoons.

COCK, that part of the lock of a
musket, which sustains the two small
pieces of iron called jaws, between
which the flint is fixed.

To COCK, to fix the cock of a mus-
quet or pistol, so as to have it ready
for an instant discharge.

COCKADE, a ribbon worn in the
hat. This military mark succeeded the
scarf that was formerly worn by the
officers and soldiers belonging to Euro-
pean nations, which are principally dis-
tinguished in the following manner. In
the army and navy of Great Britain,
black silk ribbon for the officers, and
hair cockades for the non-commissioned
officers, private soldiers and marines;
ligh blue, pink and white ribbons mix-
ed, called tricolor or three-coloured,
distinguish the French; red marks the
Spaniard, black the Prussian and Au-
istrians, green the Russian, &c. Under
the old government of France, officers
were not permitted to wear a cockade,
unless
unless they were regimentally dressed; and, singular as it may appear, the officers and men belonging to a certain number of old regiments in the Prussian service do not wear any mark in their hats. In England the cockade is worn in and out of regiments, by every species of military character.

CODE, (code, Fr.) a collection of laws, rules, and regulations, by which the civilized proportion of mankind is governed.

Military Code, (code militaire, Fr.) Rules and regulations for the good order and discipline of an army. Of this description are our articles of war; a revision of which is much wanted at this time.

COEFFER, Fr. to cap, or put a head-piece on anything.

COFFER les fusées à bombes, Fr. To stop the vents or apertures of shells with any sort of mastick composition.

CŒUR, Fr. the heart. This word is frequently used among the French to signify courage, intrepidity, manhood, &c. Hence the expression in Corneille’s Cid: Roderigue! as tu Cœur? which may be thus translated—Roderigues, art thou a man of resolution?

COFFER, in fortification, a hollow lodgment sunk in the bottom of a dry ditch, from 6 to 7 feet deep, and from 16 to 18 feet broad; and the length of it, the whole breadth of the said ditch, from side to side. The besieged generally make use of these coffers to repulse the besiegers, when they attempt to pass the ditch: they are distinguished only by their length from Caponiers; the difference between coffers and the traverse and gallery, consists in this, that the latter are made by the besiegers, and the former by the besieged. They are covered with joists, hurdles, and earth, raised 2 feet above the bottom of the ditch; which rising serves instead of a parapet, with loop-holes in it.

COFFRE. See COFFER.

COFFRE d’une batterie, Fr. the solid work which covers the pieces of ordnance that are planted in a battery, as well as the soldiers who are attached to the guns.

COFFRE à feu, Fr. a machine filled with combustible materials for the purpose of doing mischief to a scaling party, or of blowing up a ship, &c.

COGNIZANCE, judicial notice, trial, judicial authority. In a military sense, implies the investigation to which any person or action is liable. During the suspension of civil authority, every offence comes under military cognizance, is subject to military law, and may be proceeded upon according to the summary spirit of its regulation. Hence, a drum-head court-martial is the strongest instance of military cognizance.

COHORT, (cohorte, Fr.) in Roman antiquity, a name given to part of the Roman legion, comprehending about 600 men.

COIN, ingunery, (coin d’artilleur, Fr.) a kind of wedge to lay under the breech of a gun, in order to raise or depress the metal.

COIN de manœuvre militaire, Fr. A particular manner in which the ancients used to dispose their troops on the front of the army, to break the line of the enemy. This disposition consisted in giving a great depth, and allowing only a small front, to the body of troops, and was called faire la tête de porc. This last title was given to an officer who commanded a column.

COLGIAT, a large glove which the Turks wear in the field. The colgiat covers the arm up to the elbow, and while it protects the hand, it helps them in parrying the blows that are struck at their heads.

Royal Military COLLEGE, a new institution which has been created by the immediate sanction of his Majesty, with the consent of parliament, and under the direction of the commander in chief, for the time being.

This establishment consists of two departments:

The first, or senior department, is calculated to instruct officers, who have already acquired a sufficient knowledge of regimental duties, &c. in the higher branches of their profession. Their attention is particularly directed to those functions which relate to the Quartermaster-general’s department in the field.

The second, or junior department, is meant for the education of young men, who have not yet received any commissions in the army, but who are intended from early life, for the profession of arms.

The
The following particulars constitute the general outline of this praise-worthy institution:

The commander in chief for the time being is always to be considered as the chief governor of the establishment. He is President of the Supreme Board of the College; the members of which are, the Secretary at War, and such General and Staff officers as his Majesty may, from time to time, think proper to nominate. It is their peculiar province to see, that the regulations of the institution be duly observed, that the original intentions of the king and legislature be unequivocally fulfilled, and that the whole be conducted with economy and credit to the country.

There is constantly resident in the college, a governor and lieutenant-governor, who must both be military officers. The former not under the rank of major-general, and the latter not under that of lieutenant-colonel in the line. These are the immediate functionaries of the place, and to them is intrusted the entire direction of the establishment; subject only to the instructions and orders that may occasionally be issued from the Supreme Board of the College.

At the head of each department are placed a Commandant and a Director of Instruction. These must likewise be military men, and bear the king's commission. They are, at all times, accountable for their respective departments, being under the immediate control of the governor and lieutenant-governor of the College.

The commandants of departments, in conjunction with the Directors of Instruction, form a Collegiate Board, at which the resident governor, or, in his absence, the lieutenant-governor constantly presides.

Public examinations are made, at stated periods, by this board, in order to ascertain the progress of learning, and the degrees of improvement. The president and members of it likewise enter into the interior economy of the place, controul the expenditure of the establishment, and maintain the statutes of the College as ordered by his Majesty; subject nevertheless to the control and occasional direction of the Supreme Board, to which the collegiate one is in every respect subordinate.

The staff, and other officers of each department are under the immediate orders of their respective commandants; who are enjoined to conduct their departments in strict conformity to the existing rules and discipline of the king's service.

The establishment is founded upon principles of the strictest economy; and the expense of being at the institution, with all the advantages of theoretical instruction and practical improvement, does not exceed the necessary charges and disbursements to which every officer is subject when he lives with his regiment.

It is a standing order of the institution, that officers must constantly appear in uniform; and they must in all respects conform to the rules, regulations, and customs of his Majesty's service.

Leave of absence is granted, during the months of December and January, to officers studying in the senior department of the college; but at no other season of the year, except for a few days, and then only under circumstances and in cases of urgent necessity.

Senior department.

The number of officers which can be admitted at a time to the studies of the senior department, is limited to 50; and it is required as indispensably necessary, that they should be perfectly conversant in all the details of regimental duty.

They must likewise have made themselves masters of the French language, be versed in mathematics, and in the science of field fortification and cannoneer; and be well instructed in the art of drawing military plans, &c.

Every thing which relates to the different branches belonging to the senior department is conveyed in French, in order that officers may be enabled to improve the knowledge they acquire at the establishment, by reading with facility, the military writers that are most in estimation. The majority of such authors being found among the French, that language is of course the most cultivated; by which means the first object of acquirement will not only be obtained, but it will ensure to the general staff of the army a disposable body of intelligent officers that are compe-tent in a continental tongue.
The instruction is not elementary, or
given upon first principles only. The
attention of the officers is directed to
higher branches, and the lessons they
receive are exemplified by practice in
the field; by taking ground, &c.
The particular and more immediate
duties appertaining to the general staff,
in which the faculties of the mind are
principally applied, consist in taking
(d’espionner, or at sight) military sur-
veys of ground without any mechanical
process or aid of instruments; and to
express the same on paper with the
most accurate perspicuity.

It is therefore necessary, that the of-
ficers of the senior department should
be able to judge of the advantages and
disadvantages of ground relative to offen-
sive and defensive operations; to employ
geometrical and trigonometrical opera-
tions on the ground; to chuse the
site or position of entrenchments and
batteries, by which every part of a
camp may be defended, and its leading
avenue, &c. be secured against the
possibility of surprise. They must
likewise be masters of a theory that
may be adapted to every case in
which field fortification can be em-
ployed, to trace camps on the ground,
and to prick out the lines of entrench-
ments, &c. with dispatch and accuracy,
in conformity to the strict rules of cas-
tration: to be thoroughly conver-
sant in the theory of camp out-duites,
and of the grand guards of armies: to
know how to reconnoitre ground for a
given number of columns moving in
route of march, and to place or distrib-
ute the same with attention to the
conveniences of forage and water, and
to the security of the magazines.

To reconnoitre the route of a column
in advancing, to estimate the labour of
opening the several communications, to
calculate the number of artificers that
are requisite, and the time that is ne-
necessary to clear the route for the march
of a column, and to detail the same in
an accurate manner upon paper.

To reconnoitre the route of a column
in retreat, specifying in a clear and
accurate manner upon paper, the several
points in retreat that are favourable to
each arm composing the rear guard,
when they may halt, and act as cover-
ing parties to the retiring column.

To reconnoitre and take up ground
for a given number of troops on a de-
defensive position, and to place the same; to
establish a chain of posts, to construct
batteries, throw up abatis, and other
means of defence, adapted to the partic-
ular circumstances of the ground made
choice of for the position.

To reconnoitre the ground upon which
any given number of troops might be
encamped under circumstances of
aggression. In taking this position for the
purpose of acting offensively, particular
attention must be paid to the future
movements of the army, by providing
the readiest means of directing and sup-
porting its operations.

Marches and movements constitute so
essential a branch of military tactics, that
on them almost wholly depends the issue
of a campaign. It is consequently ex-
pected, that every officer belonging to
the senior department, should be able to
calculate the march of a column under
all the various and desultory circum-
stances which attend the movements
of troops. He must accurately ascer-
tain the ground, the defiles, the width
of roads, obstacles, &c. and the
length of the several columns. The
hours occupied in marching, in defiling,
passing obstacles, &c. must come with-
in this calculation.

It must be remarked, that this is a
route of march which has in view only
to convey a body of troops from one
position to another, without being con-
ected with military operations relative
to the enemy.

To calculate the march of several col-
umns with respect to each other.

To reconnoitre routes for the march
of several columns in advancing; to
form the columns of march so as to
correspond with the field of battle
which they are to occupy, and to point
out the routes by which they are se-
verally to arrive. The remark which
we have already made applies to this
part likewise.

To regulate an order of march, and
to ascertain the arrival of several col-
umns on the field, with regard to the
appropriate manner of deploying, and
their relative dispositions, whether with
a view to their encamping, or to form-
ing in order of battle.

To reconnoitre routes for the march
of
of several columns in retreat, for the purpose of forming columns of march according to the circumstances of the retreat, and in conformity to the ground to which they retire.

N. B. It will be observed, that this and the following movements are marches made relative to a plan of operation.

To regulate the retreat and relative support of the rear guards attached to the several columns.

To estimate the resources of a country, in a green and dry forage, in cattle, grain, horses and carriages, together with the population.

To draw out plans of resources, general plans of operations and subordinate ones of position, and cantonments.

According to the season of the year, and the state of the weather, officers are employed in acquiring the theory, or applying in practice on the ground, the several points of instruction to which their attention has been directed.

It is required of them, individually, to reconnoitre a given tract or line of country.

The military positions they take up, as well as the disposition they make of troops, whether in camp or in order of march, are invariably represented by plans in drawing, and all instruction is exemplified by applications which are made in the field, and are adapted to the local circumstances of ground. In order to render the different lessons familiar to the mind, and to make them practically easy, imaginary marches are made from one supposed camp to another, and the various orders which relate to the movements of troops are given out and explained, as if they were to be actually carried into effect. Points of attack or defence are taken up, ambuscades are laid, and all the chicanes of what the French so justly call la petite guerre, is entered into with as much promptitude and caution, as if the enemy were in the neighbourhood of the college. The manoeuvres of light troops are particularly practised; and the different instructions which have been published in French on that branch of military tactics by Mons. Jarry are practically taught, as time and circumstances permit.

The elements of field fortification, and the higher branches of attack and defence, are not only inculcated with the greatest perspicuity, but they are reduced to practice by imaginary lines of circumvallation and contravallation; by posts and positions suddenly taken, and quickly fortified; whilst the manifold feints and stratagems of war which have been practised by the best generals, are locally attempted, for the double purpose of applying practice to established facts, and of seizing some new idea that may grow out of ancient practice.

In order to add practical knowledge to theory, and to adapt the observations of established military writers to local experience, every survey or reconnoitring of country, for the retreat or advance of columns; for offensive or defensive positions; for encampments, or the construction and erection of batteries, &c. is made upon spots that are actually in the neighbourhood of the establishment; and every object of instruction is applied to the local circumstance of the ground as it actually exists. It is required, that plans of these different surveys, &c. should at all times accompany, and be given in, with the lesson of instruction.

Officers of the senior department must not only be well acquainted with these particulars, but they must further know how to regulate the cantonments of an army.

Whenever an officer has completed his studies, he is reported to the commander in chief, as having qualified himself for the quarter-master general’s department; he then returns to his regiment, (having had his name previously registered at the college) in order that he may be employed on the general staff of the army, when his services are required.

When an officer wishes to be admitted to the Military College, his application must be addressed to the commander in chief, for the time being, through the medium of the colonel or commanding officer of his regiment, who sends it, under cover, to the official or public secretary at the Horse Guards, with his own certificate of the good conduct of the applicant.

When an officer, thus admitted, is found deficient in any of the branches of
of elementary knowledge, which he is expected to have acquired previous to his entrance into the senior department, he may have the advantage of instruction from the professors and masters of the junior department. It would, however, be more gratifying to all parties, were such officers to qualify themselves before they quit their corps.

The same allowances which are established for troops in barracks, are made to officers who attend the instructions of the senior department.

Every officer admitted to this department is required to have a horse to attend his duty in the field, and regular rations of forage, &c. are issued to him for his keep.

The officers of the senior department mess together, and their table is regulated by specific statutes of the college.

**Junior department.**

This department is calculated to receive three hundred students from the age of fourteen to sixteen. Fifty out of this number may be cadets of the Hon. East India company's service; one hundred the sons of noblemen and gentlemen who are intended for the army; one hundred the sons of officers actually in the service; and fifty the sons of officers who have died, or have been disabled, in his Majesty's service, and are left in pecuniary distress.

The students are formed into four companies; and proper persons are appointed for their care and superintendence.

They are to wear an established uniform, and to be conducted as a military body; regard being had to their youth, and certain instructions adopted for its government.

The course of study which is arranged for this department is of a preparatory nature, leading gradually to branches of a higher class that are fitted for the staff; and adding to classical knowledge, every accomplishment that is required to form the character of a perfect gentleman and officer.

The students are taught the several branches of mathematics, field fortification, together with the general principles of gunnery and artillery service. They are instructed in drawing military plans, military movements, and perspective. They are also made acquainted with the first rudiments of war, the science of military manoeuvre, with geography and history, as well as with the German and French languages. Professors and masters are appointed to teach the Hindoo and Persian tongues, as being immediately necessary to the service of India. Masters are likewise provided to instruct cadets in the geography of India, and to make them familiarly acquainted with the local knowledge of the settlement for which they are severally intended.

The Directors of Instruction are made particularly responsible for the proper management of the studies, and different elementary branches which constitute an essential part of the establishment.

The professors and masters are employed generally to instruct in both departments, under the control of the chief director.

The whole establishment, which has military knowledge and improvement for its basis, is conducted upon strict military principles, and in scrupulous conformity to the rules and discipline which are issued by authority for the government of the army at large.

A sufficient number of masters are constantly resident in the college, for the instruction of such students as may wish to continue their classical studies. Frequent lessons are given them on moral and natural philosophy.

They are likewise taught riding, swimming, fencing, and the sabre and sword exercise.

The instruction of the department is divided into two parts, forming a junior and senior division of study.

Public examinations are held in this department, in order to remove students from the lower to the higher division of study; and also for the purpose of granting certificates to such as are qualified to act as commissioned officers in the service, at an age under what is required by the present regulations of the army.

From this department students will join the regiments into which they severally enter; and after having obtained some experience, by going through the different duties of a regimental officer, they will be qualified to return to the College, and to enter into the senior
department, if they are disposed to study the service of the general staff.

The public examinations are held in presence of one or more visitors or inspectors, nominated by the Commander in Chief; and it is required, that they should be members of the Supreme Board of the College.

The expence attending the education of a young gentleman in this department, is according to the foundation on which he is admitted to the College.

The sons of noblemen and gentlemen pay 80l. per annum.

The sons of officers in the King’s service, pay 40l. per annum; and orphans, who are the sons of officers that have died in the service, or the sons of those that have been disabled and are straitened in circumstances, are educated, clothed, and maintained free of all expence.

The board, clothing, and accommodation, are included in the several sums above specified.

There are two vacations in the course of twelve months, viz.—At Christmas and Midsummer, for a term not exceeding one month each vacation.

The administration of the funds of the establishment, is under the direction of the Collegiate Board.

The accounts are balanced at the expiration of six months in every year, and are laid before the Supreme Board; at which periods, reports of progress made in the several branches of literature and technical science, and of the public examinations, are made before the committee. These documents, accompanied by well digested remarks and seasonable suggestions, for the preservation of good order, &c. and the improvement of the institution, are laid before his Majesty, by the Commander in Chief, as President and Governor of the College.

The Supreme Board of the College is composed in the following manner:

The Commander in Chief for the time being, President.

The Secretary at War.

A Governor.

The Master-General of the Ordnance.

The Governor of Chelsea College.

The Quarter-Master-General.

The Adjutant-General.

Two honorary members.

The Barrack-Master General.

The Lieutenant-Governor.

The Commandant of the Senior Department.

These are the members of the Supreme Board; and such others may, from time to time be named, as his Majesty shall think fit.

A Secretary to the Supreme Board.

Treasurer to the College.

COLLEGE Royale Militaire, Fr. a general term used among the French to express the place where military instruction was given during their Monarchy. This establishment consisted of several colleges, which were subordinate to the Royal Military School, or Ecole Royale Militaire, of Paris.

On the 28th of March, 1776, the French King gave directions, that ten colleges should be established, over the gates of each of which was written—COLLEGE Royale Militaire; Royal Military College. These colleges were under the immediate care and instruction of the Benedictine Monks, and other religious orders; the most enlightened of which was that of the Jesuits.

The secretary of state held the same jurisdiction over these colleges that he possessed over La Flèche and the Military School in Paris. Great attention has been given to this establishment by Bonaparte since his accession to the Imperial dignity. For particulars respecting the old institution, see the article Royal Military School.

COLLET, Fr. That part of a cannon which is between the astragal and the muzzle.

COLONEL, the commander in chief of a regiment, whether of horse, foot, dragoons, or artillery, in England: but in France, Spain, and some other southern nations, the colonels of horse are called Maîtres de Camp; in Germany, and most northern nations, they are called Rittmeisters. Colonels of horse take place, and command one another according to the dates of their commissions, and not in consequence of the seniority of their regiments. Colonels of foot command in the same manner.

According to some authors, the word Colonel
Colonel is derived from the Italians or Spaniards.

Skinner supposes it may come from colony, colonia, and that the heads or chiefs of colonies may have given the appellation to the officers commanding regiments.

In former times, officers, although at the head of considerable corps, were only styled captains, but not colonels. See Dictionnaire de Trévoux, fol. edit.

A question arises whether the old word Colonel might not have been derived from the Latin Coronarius; either from some ceremony which was performed upon the person receiving the rank, or from his being placed at the head, Corona, of a regiment. The former certainly appears the most probable, as it might have had its origin from the Roman manner of rewarding a general.

The Spaniards have it Coronel; the Italians, Colonnello.

We are inclined to think that it is derived from the Latin Corona, whence Coronarius; and that it came to us from the Spanish. Both the English and Scotch, but particularly the latter, pronounce the word Colonel, and so do the Irish.

Colonel of horse, who is the first officer of the regiment; hence his attention ought to be given to keeping the regiment complete, to have it composed of both men and horses fit for service, and to take particular care to have them well exercised and taught the different evolutions; to be able on all occasions to form themselves according to the ground, or manner in which they may attack, or be attacked.

Colonel of foot, or infantry. His functions are more extensive than those of the cavalry, as the infantry are employed to more different purposes. A colonel of infantry should understand something of fortification, and be well acquainted with field-engineering. He cannot be too careful to maintain union and harmony among his officers; and, to succeed in this, he must acquire their esteem and confidence, and make himself to be respected. The true way to succeed in this, is to keep up a subordination with unalterable firmness; to do justice to every one, to employ all his credit to procure favours to the corps in general, and to the officers in particular, without ever losing sight of the health, comfort and contentment of his men.

Colonel of dragoons is nearly connected with that of horse, to which word we refer the reader.

Colonel of artillery. The commander of a battalion of artillery is one of the most laborious employments both in war and peace, requiring the greatest ability, application, and experience. He is supposed to be a very able mathematician and engineer, to be thoroughly acquainted with the powers of artillery, to understand the attack and defence of fortifications in all the different branches; to be able on all occasions to form the artillery according to the ground or manner in which they may attack or be attacked; in short, he should be master of every thing belonging to that important corps.

Colonel of engineers, should be a very able mathematician and mechanic, he should be master of fortification, and be correctly versed in the art of planning, constructing, attacking and defending. See Engineer.

Lieutenant-Colonel, is the second person in command of a regiment. Under his direction all the affairs of the regiment roll. His military qualifications should be adequate to the size and the importance of the corps he has the honour to serve in.

Colonel general of the French infantry. An appointment of great trust and authority, which was suppressed during the old government of France. A colonel-general was formerly entitled to the nomination of every commission and place of trust in the infantry. He could order courts-martial, and enforce the sentences awarded by them without ulterior reference; and he had a company in every regiment which was called the colonel-general’s company.

This appointment was created during the reign of Francis I in 1544, and became an immediate gift of the crown, under Henry III in 1584.

There was likewise a colonel-general of the cavalry; which appointment was entrusted to two officers under the reign of Louis XIII. One commanded the French and the other the German cavalry.
The appointment of colonel-general of dragoons was created by Louis XIV. in 1668.

**Colonel by brevet, Breveté Colonel, Fr.** One who has obtained the rank of colonel in the army without having that rank in any particular regiment.

**Colonel réforme, Fr.** A reduced half-pay officer, who has the rank of colonel in the army, without having any command or regimental rank, or who has retired from the service retaining his brevet rank.

**Colonelle, Fr.** is the first company in a French regiment. *Madame la Colonelle* is the colonel's wife.

**Colonne, Fr. Column.** This word is variously used in military phraseology.

**Colonne d'artillerie, Fr.** The march or movements of a corps of artillery in regular order, with the several pieces of ordnance, accompanied by stores and ammunition, for the purpose of attacking or checking an enemy.

**Colonne du centre, Fr.** A part of an army which is advancing between other armed bodies, for the purpose of occupying any particular ground, of attacking an enemy, or of avoiding his attack by retreating.

**Colonne de droite, Fr.** A successive movement of troops which form a part of an army, and preserve the same line of march without any interval or interruption. This column of the right has other columns upon its left, and the one which is next to it is called the second column belonging to the right, another the third column of the right, and so on to the last, which alone is called the left column, and is the one upon which the whole army moves.

**Colonne d'équipages, Fr.** The line of march which is observed by the baggage-wagons, &c. In advancing against an enemy these always follow the main army, and precede it when the troops are forced to retreat.

**Colonne de gauche, Fr.** A successive movement of troops (left in front) which form a material part of an army, and preserve the same line of march without interruption. This column constitutes the left of the army, and is its directing body in that point of view, when it advances against or retires from an enemy.

**Colonne de troupe, Fr.** Any successive movement of troops, horse or foot, in regular order.

**Ouvrir une Colonne, Fr.** To be the rear rank of a body of troops that are marching rank and file in any direction.

**Ouvrir une Colonne, Fr.** To be the leading or front rank of a body of troops that are marching in regular order.

**Ouvrir une Colonne, Fr.** To plant signals as marks of direction for troops that are marching in regular order. To clear the way, by removing all sorts of obstacles, &c.

**Colours, in the military art, are large silk flags fixed on half pikes, and carried by the ensign. When a battalion is encamped, they are placed in its front; but in garrison they are lodged with the commanding officer.

The first standard, guidon, or colours, of a regiment, are not to be carried on any guard but that of his Majesty, the Queen, Prince of Wales, or captain-general.

The size of the colours to be 6 feet 6 inches flying, and 6 feet deep on the pike. The length of the pike (spear and ferril included) to be 9 feet 10 inches. The cords and tassels of the whole to be crimson and gold mixed.

**Camp-Colours, are a small sort of colours placed on the right and left of the parade of the regiment when in the field: they are 18 inches square, and of the colour of the facing of the regiment, with the number of the regiment upon them. The poles to be 7 feet 6 inches long, except those of the quarter and rear guards, which are to be 9 feet.

**Colour-guard. See Guard.**

**A pair of Colours, a term used in the British service to signify an ensigny, or the first commissioned appointment in the army.**

**Colours used in the drawings of fortification.** It is necessary to use colours in the drawings of plans and profiles of a fortification, in order to distinguish every particular part, and separate, as it were, the one from the other, so as to make their difference more...
more sensible. The different sorts of colours, generally used in these kinds of drawings, are, Indian-ink, carmine, verdigrise, sep-green, gum-bouche, Prussian blue, indigo and umber.

Indian-ink is the first and most necessary thing required in drawing; for it serves, in drawing the lines, to express hills or rising grounds, and, in short, for all what is called shading in drawings. The best sort of Indian-ink is of a bluish black, soft and easily reduced into a liquid, free from sand or gravel. It is sold in sticks of sixpence a stick to half a crown, according to its goodness and quantity. That made in Europe is good for nothing.

The manner of liquefying it, is by putting a little clear water into a shell or tea-cup, and rubbing it gently 'till the water is black, and of a consistence much like common ink: when it is used for drawing lines, it must be made very black, though not too thick, otherwise it will not easily flow out of the drawing-pen; but when it is for shading, it must be pale, so as to go over the same shade several times, which adds a beauty to the shading.

Carmine, is an impalpable powder, and the fairest red we know of: it serves for colouring the sections of masorary, the plans of houses, and all kinds of military buildings; as likewise their elevation: but then it is made of a paler colour. It is also used for drawing red lines in plans, to represent walls. It is exceedingly dear, being generally sold for a guinea an ounce; but a little will go a great way. It must be mixed with a little gum-water.

Verdigrise, or sen-green, used in drawings, is either liquid in small vials for sixpence a piece, or mixed in little pots or shells, &c. It serves to colour wet ditches, rivers, seas, and in general to represent all watery places.

Sep-green, is a stone of a faint yellowish green, when liquefied with clear water; but when mixed with a little sep-green, it makes a beautiful grass-green; but, as all mixed colours are liable to fade, if verd'iris can be had, it will be much better. Sep-green is very cheap.

Gum-bouche, is a fine yellow in stones, and very cheap. It may be dissolved in water, but without gum: it serves to colour all projects of works; as likewise to distinguish the works unfinished from those that are complete. It serves also to colour the trenches of an attack.

Indigo, is in small cakes, and very cheap; it serves to colour iron, and roofs of buildings which are covered with slates: it must be well ground upon a smooth stone or glass, and mixed with a little gum-water.

Prussian blue, is a kind of friable stone, of an exceeding fine blue: it is used to represent the colour of blue cloth in drawing encampments, battles, &c. It must be well ground, and mixed with a little gum-water.

Smallt, also a good sort of blue, and may be used for the same purposes. It is not dear.

Ultramarine, is an impalpable powder, and of a very delicate-sky-blue. It is a dear colour.

Umber, is a yellowish brown colour in powder: when it is mixed with gum-water, it serves to colour dry ditches, sand and all kinds of earth. By mixing a little red ink with it, it will make a wood colour.

If some tobacco-leaves are steeped in clear water for several hours, and filtered through a woollen cloth, or brown paper, with a little red ink mixed with it, it will make the best earth or wood colour, as lying smoother than any other.

Gum-water, is best when it is made some time before it is used; for which reason take some gum arabic and steep it in clear water for some hours, 'till it is dissolved: then strain it through a woollen cloth or brown paper, and preserve it in phials, well stopped, 'till wanted.

COLUMN, a body of troops formed in deep files and narrow front, the whole advancing with the same degree of movement, and having sufficient space between the ranks and files to prevent confusion. The name of column is also given to several bodies placed behind each other, and intended to march on successively, to form or to keep in order of battle: but in this case they are not to be called, files of troops. There are more or less columns, according to the nature of the ground, but it is not necessary that they should all
all of them, advance the same way in order to meet at an appointed spot. Those officers, who have been taught by experience alone, (which is far from being sufficient if they are ignorant of the theory) will do well to consult l'Art de la guerre par regles & par principes, by Marshal de Puysigur and les Œuvres de Folard. It is next to an impossibility to remember all that is prescribed by those skilful authors; but every officer, who who is anxious to improve his knowledge in the military art, may derive great advantage from the perusal of their works.

Close-Column, a compact solid column, with very little space between the divisions of which it is composed.

Open Column, a column with intervals between the divisions equal to their respective fronts.

COMBAT, a battle or duel. Anciently it was not uncommon for contending powers to adjust their dispute by single combat, when each party chose for itself a champion, who contested the point in presence of both armies.

COMBATANTS, (Combatants, Fr.) Troops engaged in action.

COMBATTRE, Fr. to act against an enemy with offensive weapons, for the purpose of defending one's country and its rights, &c. Hence, tout est soldat pour vous combattre. Every thing is up in arms to fight you.

COMBINAISON, Fr. a calm and dispassionate examination of the various projects and designs which are suggested to the human mind by the multiplied occurrences in warfare.

COMBINEZ ce que fait l'ennemi, Fr. to weigh well the movements of an enemy.

COMBLEAU, Fr. a cord used to load and unload pieces of artillery, also to hoist them on their carriage, the same as other heavy burdens, by means of a crane.

COMBLEMENT des fossés, Fr. When the besiegers have succeeded in rendering themselves masters of the covertway, they contrive, by all possible means, to fill up the ditches, by establishing galleries which protect the workmen, in order that the miners may carry on their operations with more safety; by this means they form an entrenchment which defends them against the sorties or any other attempt that might be made by the besieged.

COMBUSTIBLES, Fr. combustible materials; such as are used in offensive and defensive operations.

COME-in. Soldiers are said to come in, as volunteers, recruits, &c. when invited to join any particular standard.

COME-over. When men desert from an enemy, and join the army that opposes him, they are said to come over. This term is opposed to go over.

To Come-in to, to join with; to bring help. "They marched to Wells, where the Lord Audley, with whom their leaders had before secret intelligence, came in to them." Johnson.

To Come-up, to overtake. To come up with an enemy, is a military phrase much in use.

COMINGE, Fr. a shell of extreme magnitude, which takes its name from the person who originally invented it, containing eighteen inches in diameter, and five hundred pounds in weight.

COMMAND, generally called the word of command, is a term used by officers in exercise, or upon service.

COMMAND, in military matters. All commands fall to the eldest in the same circumstance, whether of horse, dragoons, artillery, foot, or marines. Among the officers of the corps of the British troops, entire or in parts, in case two of the same date interfere, a retrospect of former commissions, or length of service, is to be examined and ended by the judgment of the rules of war.

COMMANDE, a rope made use of in boats and pontoons.

Commands in fortification, are:

A command in front, when any eminence is directly facing the work which it commands.

A command in rear, when any eminence is directly behind the work which it commands.

A command by enfilade, when an eminence is situated in the prolongation of any line of a work, and a considerable part of it may be seen from thence.

To have in command. An official term. As I have it in command from his Royal Highness the Duke of York, &c.

COMMANDANT, is that person who has the command of a garrison, fort,
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fort, castle, regiment, company, &c. called also commander.

COMMANDE, Fr. a person subordinate to and under the orders of another.

Observe: commande, Fr. a work which is overlooked and consequently commanded by some other.

COMMANDEMENT, Fr. in a military sense, means any spot which is higher than another. A commandement is called simple, when the difference between two heights is only 9 feet. It is called double, when the difference is 18 feet; triple when 27, and so progressively, taking 9 feet invariably for the height of each commandement. A commandement may be considered in three lights. In front, in enfilade, and in reverse. The commandement in front, is when you see all the persons who are employed in protecting a work; in enfilade, when you only see them from a flank; and in reverse, when you see them obliquely from behind.

COMMANDEMENT, Fr. a command; a situation of trust which is given to a military officer.

COMMANDEMENT, Fr. an order which is given out by a superior officer.

COMMANDEMENT, Fr. in fortification signifies the elevation and consequently the superiority of a mountain over a plain, or any other ground that it under.

COMMANDEMENT (ordre de), Fr. a right of command which exists among the French between officers of cavalry and infantry. In a fortified post, or town, the officers of infantry have the command over the officers of cavalry; but in an open country the officers of infantry are commanded by the former.

COMMANDER, Fr. to command; to be superior in rank, and to possess authority over others.

COMMANDER, Fr. in fortification, to overwork, to command.

COMMANDERY, a certain benefice belonging to some military order. A body of the knights of Malta are so called.

COMMANDEUR, Fr. A Knight of an order who enjoys some lucrative situation in consequence of his rank.

COMMANDING-ground, implies, as a military sense, a rising ground which overlooks any post, or strong place. There are, strictly speaking, three sorts of commanding grounds; namely.

Front COMMANDING-ground. Every height is called so, that lies opposite to the face of the post which plays upon its front.

Reverse COMMANDING-ground, an eminence which plays upon the rear of a post.

Enfilade COMMANDING-ground, or Curtain COMMANDING-ground, a high place, which, with its shot, scour's all the length of a line, &c.

COMMIS, Fr. Clerk or inferior person, who is employed in any of the French war-departments.

COMMISSAIRE, Fr. Commissariat. This term was used in the old French service, to express a variety of military occupations. The following are the principal designations.

COMMISSAIRE-GENERAL DES ARMÉES. Commissary-general of the armies. This situation was created for the benefit of an individual named Besancon. He had the power of ordering specific reviews of corps to be made, &c. It was, however, discovered, that the powers entrusted to him were of too extensive a nature, and the place was suppressed in the person for whom it had been created.

COMMISSAIRE-GENERAL DE LA CAVALERIE LEGÈRE. Fr. Commissary general of light cavalry. He ranked as the third general officer of the cavalry. A regiment called the commissary general all's regiment was exclusively under his command.

COMMISSAIRE D'ARTILLERIE. Fr. Commissary of artillery. One commissary general superintended in each department of the ordnance, and had one of the three keys which belonged to the general magazine. This officer had the power of giving directions respecting the cleanliness and the general government of the magazines.

COMMISSAIRES PRINCIPAUX D'ARTILLERIE, Fr. Provincial commissaries attached to the ordnance.

COMMISSAIRES ORDINAIRES D'ARTILLERIE, Fr. Provincial commissaries in ordinary attached to the ordnance. These were provincial commissaries, and were distributed among the garrison towns.

COMMISSAIRES EXTRAORDINAIRES D'ARTILLERIE,
tillerie, Fr. Extraordinary commissaries attached to the ordnance. These formed the third class of commissaries under the monarchical government in France. They likewise did duty on board the king’s ships, or in garrison towns.

Commissaire provincial en l'Arsenal de Paris au département de l'Île de France. Provincial commissary belonging to the arsenal in Paris. This officer received his commission from the grand master, in whose gift the situation lay, and had the exclusive privilege of being rendered privy to every alteration or movement that was made in the arsenal.

Commissaire général des poudres et salpêtres, Fr. Commissary general of gun-powder and saltpetre. This place was created with that of the superintendent general of gun-powder and saltpetre, in 1634. This situation, however, did not exclude him from paying the paulet or tax. It was finally suppressed, and the grand master of the ordnance provided a person who exercised its functions.

Commissaire général des fontes, Fr. Commissary general of the founderies. This appointment was bestowed invariably upon those men who had given distinguished proofs of their ability in casting cannon, &c. It was in the gift of the master of the ordnance.

Commissaires des guerres, Fr. Commissaries of the war départements or muster masters general. Peculiar privileges were attached to these appointments; but the persons holding them were subordinate to the governors and commandants of towns and garrisons, without whose permission they could not muster a regiment.

Commissaires ordinaires des guerres, Fr. Commissaries in ordinary, or deputy muster masters. These were subordinate to the former, and were entrusted with the superintendence of hospitals, to see that proper provisions were procured for and distributed among the sick. They likewise gave proper vouchers to account for the absence of soldiers, and regulated what number of extraordinary wagons should be furnished to the troops on marches.

Commissaire provinciaux et ordinaires des guerres, 1st. Provincial or ordinary commissaries of war. Specific duties were attached to their appointments, the discharge of which was principally confined to the different provinces.

Commissaires des guerres entrésumus dans l'hôtel des invalides. Fr. Commissaries of war, specifically attached to and resident in the hotel des invalides. It was their duty to keep a regular roll, containing all the names of the different officers, non-commissioned officers and soldiers, who might be detached on garrison duty, &c. which return was made monthly by them to the secretary at war. Each commissary at every review or inspection of the corps of invalids, had particular directions to mark out those men who appeared capable of serving; and a regular return to that effect was made to the secretary at war.

Commissaire des vivres, Fr. Commissary of stores. The commissary of stores had several deputies, who acted immediately under, and were in every respect accountable to him for the management of their trust.

Commissaire général des fortifications, Fr. Commissary general of Fortifications. This was a very important situation during war, as it was the duty of the commissary general to trace the lines of circumvallation, &c. at a siege; to determine upon the mode of attack and defence, and to see, that the necessary repairs were made.

Commissaire provincial des guerres Fr. provincial commissaries of war created in 1635; they were suppressed and re-established by Lewis XIV. in 1704.

Commissary, in military affairs, is of various denominations, though generally a civil officer appointed to inspect the musters, stores, and provisions for the army. In war-time their number is unlimited.

Commissaries general, and Commissaries of accounts, are appointed by warrant under the king’s sign manual, directing them to obey all instructions given them for the execution of their duty by the lords commissioners of the treasury. These instructions are generally prepared by the controllers of the army accounts, under the orders, and subjected to the subsequent inspection of the treasury.
Commissary-general of the musters, or master-muster general. He takes account of the strength of every regiment as often as he pleases; reviews them, sees that the horses are well mounted, and all the men well armed and clothed. He receives and inspects the muster-rolls, and knows exactly the strength of the army. A new appointment has been created this war in the person of inspector general of cavalry, which answers every purpose for which that of master-muster general was intended.

Commissary-general of stores, a civil officer in the artillery, who has the charge of all the stores, for which he is accountable to the office of ordnance. He is allowed various other deputy commissaries, clerks, and conductors, especially in war-time.

Commissary of the train horses, a civil officer likewise of the artillery, who has the inspection of all horses belonging to the train, the hospital and the bakery; having under him a number of conductors, drivers, &c.

Commissary of accounts is a responsible person who attends each army, where the numbers are of sufficient importance, with a proper establishment, for the purpose of examining and controlling accounts on the spot. All commissaries of accounts make returns of their examinations, and on these documents the comptrollers of the army accounts found the best enquiry into the expenditure which the nature of the subject admits of.

Commissary-general of provisions, has the charge of furnishing the army in the field with all sorts of provisions, forage, &c. by contract: he must be very vigilant and industrious, that the troops may never suffer want. He has under him various commissaries, storekeepers, clerks, &c.

COMMISSION, in a military sense, any situation or place which an individual may hold in the regular army, or militia of Great Britain. All commissaries in the line, guards, or volunteer corps must have the royal sign manual. The former are issued from the war-office, subjecting the individual to the payment of certain fees, according to the rank he holds; which fees are received by the several agents, and by them accounted for to the war-office.

Commissions in the militia do not bear the royal sign manual; that of the adjutant alone excepted, who is generally called a king's officer. Lieutenants or deputy lieutenants of counties affix their seals and signatures to these commissions or appointments; but they must previously have been laid before the King for his approbation. Fourteen days constitute the allotted time; and if his Majesty does not disapprove of the person so recommended, a notification is sent by one of the principal secretaries of state to the lord lieutenant, or to those acting by commission in his absence, or during a vacancy, stating his Majesty's pleasure.

Commission of array. In the reign of Henry II. 1181, an asseize of arms was settled to the following effect. That every person possessed of a knight's fee, was to have a coat of mail, an helmet, a shield, and a lance, and as many of these as he had fees. Every free layman that had in goods or rents to the value of 16 marks, was to have the same arms; and such as had 10 marks were to have a lesser coat of mail, an iron cap, and a lance; the two last of which with a vambois were assigned for the arms of burgesses, and all the freemen of boroughs. These arms were all to be provided before the feast of St Hilary next following.

To enforce these regulations, it was customary for the time, at certain seasons of the year, to issue commissions to experienced officers, to draw out and array the fittest men for service in each county, and to march them to the sea coasts, or to such other quarters of the country as were judged to be most in danger. Of these commissions of array, there are many hundreds in the Gascon and French rolls in the tower of London, from the 36th of Henry III. to the reign of Edward IV. The form of the ancient commissions of array may be seen in Rushworth's historical collection published in 1640. These commissions were again attempted to be revived by Charles I. but they were voted illegal and unconstitutional by the parliament in those days. They would not be so at present.

Commission militaire, Fr. a commission in the army.

Commission militaire, Fr. a temporary
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rary Court or Tribunal established to inquire into capital offences, and to pass sentence on the delinquents.

Non-Commissioned, applies to that particular class of men who act between what are called the rank and file of a battalion, and the commissioned or warrant officers. See SERJEANTS.

COMMITTEE, a select number of persons to whom the more particular consideration of some matter is referred, and who are to report their opinion to the court, &c. of which they are members.

COMMUNICATION, in fortification signifies all sorts of passages, or ways which lead from one work to another. The best, and indeed the only good communications are those which the besieger cannot annoy, or interrupt by his fire. The obstinate defence of a work is rendered almost impracticable, if you are destitute of good communications. Subterraneous galleries, coffers, or caponiers, slopes made on the outside of gorges, may be termed communications. When the ditches are filled with water, floating bridges, &c. serve as communications.

COMPAGNE, Fr. a room or cabin belonging to the chief of a galley.

COMPAGNIE, Fr. a certain number of soldiers under the inspection or management of a chief called captain. A compagnie d'ordonnance was originally composed of fifteen companies of gens d'armes, of one hundred hommes d'armes each. Formerly the word enseigne implied a company of infantry, and the word cornette a company of horse.

COMPAGNIE-Colonel, Fr. Among the French the first company in a battalion, or that which is called the colonel's: among the British this company used to be commanded by the captain lieutenant; but by a recent regulation all companies have their respective captains.

COMPAGNIE-Lieutenant-Colonel, Fr. The second company in a battalion, or that which belonged to the Lieutenant-Colonel. Before a late regulation, these companies were called in the British army field officers' companies.

COMPAGNIES-Franches, Fr. Free corps or companies, which during the old government of France, were put upon a certain establishment in war time.

Company, in a military sense, means a small body of foot or artillery, the number of which is never fixed, but is generally from 50 to 120, commanded by a captain, a lieutenant, and an ensign, and sometimes by a first and second lieutenant, as in the artillery and flank companies of the line. A company has usually 3 or 4 serjeants, 3 or 4 corporals, and 2 drums. In the guards the companies consist of 120 men each, as in the artillery. In the Austrian service a company consists of 200 men.

Free-Company, is one of those corps commonly called irregular; is seldom or never under the same orders with the regular corps of the army, but for the most part acts like a detached army, either by itself, or in conjunction with some of its own kind; therefore their operations are properly considered under the title of the petite guerre.

Independent-Company, that which is not incorporated in a regiment.

COMPARTIMENT de feu, Fr. a specific division of the intermediate spaces belonging to a mine, and the regular allotment of the saucisson or train-bags to convey fire to the furnaces at one and the same time.

COMPARTIMENT du mineur, Fr. See compartiment de feu.

COMPAS de proportion, Fr. a mathematical instrument which facilitates the prompt dividing of the lines on a plan.

COMPASSEMENT de feux, Fr. See COMPARTIMENT.

COMPASSION, Compassion, Fr. According to a French author (see Dictionnaire Militaire par M. Dupain de Montesson) a quality not known in military life. He describes compassion to be a sentiment or impulse of the soul which carries us insensibly towards the relief of every object in bodily or mental distress. A sentiment however, which in war we carefully conceal; repressing every feeling of the heart, becoming obdurate on every occasion, and seeking nothing but the destruction of our enemies. Such are the sentiments of this French writer. British valour is, on the contrary, susceptible of much compassion.

COMPETENCE militaire, Fr. military cognizance.

COMPLEMENT of the curtain, that part
COMPTEPAS, Fr. (from Compter les pas, to count or measure steps or paces,) an instrument which serves to measure the ground a person has run over, either on foot, on horseback, or in a carriage.

COMRADE, (Camarade, Fr.) a fellow soldier, in the same regiment, troop, or company.

CONCQUE, Fr. a piece of ordnance wider about the mouth than at the breech. A kind of shell used by the ancients in lieu of a trumpet.

CONCAVE, (concave, Fr.) any thing hollow, as the inside of a shell, &c. CONCAVITY, (concavité, Fr.) the hollow space which appears in an excavation, &c. Such for instance is the hollow that is made by the springing of a mine.

To CONCERT, (concerter, Fr.) in a military sense, is to digest, arrange and dispose matters in such a manner, that you may be able to act in conjunction with other forces, however much divided, at any given point of offensive or defensive operation.

CONCERTER une opération de guerre, Fr. to concert measures for actual warfare; as to fix on some specific time, describe some direct mode, and adopt the necessary means to carry a plan into execution.

CONCORDAT, Fr. an agreement which was sometimes entered into by officers in the old French service, to create a purse or fund for the use of an individual that quitted the regiment with credit to himself, in order to make way for other officers that were junior in rank. It sometimes happens in the British service, that an officer is allowed to retire on full pay; the moiety of which is made up to him by the officers who remain, and were his juniors.

CONCOURIR au bien du service, Fr. To do every thing in one’s power for the good of the service.

CONDITIONS of peace, (conditions de paix, Fr.) terms upon which peace is made.

CONDUCTEUR, Fr. A person entrusted with the conveyance of military stores, &c.

CONDUITEUR, ou guide, F. An inhabitant of a town or village who is well acquainted with the different roads, and acts as a guide.
CONDUCT, (Conduite, Fr.) that line which is observed by an officer, who is entrusted with the management of others, or has the direction of any particular enterprize. By his good or bad conduct he exhibits proofs of genius, capacity and judgment, or of ignorance and gross incompetency.

CONDUCTORS, (conducteurs d’équipages, Fr.) are assistants to the commissary of stores, to conduct depots, or magazines, from one place to another: they have also the care of the ammunition wagons in the field: they report to the commissary, and are under his command.

CONDUITE d’une troupe, Fr. the charge or management of any body of troops on a march.

CONFEDERATE Troops, (troupes confédérées, Fr.) troops of different nations united together in one common cause against an enemy. Hence the league by which they are so engaged, is called a confédération.

CONFÉDÉRATES, (Confédérés, Fr.) different princes, states, or bodies of people acting together.

CONFEDERATION, (Confédération, Fr.) a compact entered into by two or more powers to act offensively against a common enemy, or to stand upon the defensive; an assembly of people.

CONFÉRENCE, Fr. In military language a communication which is made between two or more persons to settle the conditions of a peace, &c.

CONFIDENCE, in a military sense, implies an explicit reliance upon the skill, courage, &c. of an individual. Next to a perfect knowledge of military tactics, the faculty of securing the confidence of the soldiers is, perhaps, one of the surest means of becoming successful in war. There are instances, indeed, which prove that many victories have been gained by men who had the entire confidence of their army, without being remarkable for much military knowledge: whilst on the other hand, battles have been lost by the most celebrated generals, because they did not possess the good opinion of their men. When confidence and military science go together, an army must be unfortunate not to succeed in the most desperate enterprize.

CONFLICT. See COMBAT.

CONFUSION, (confusion, Fr.) the loose and disorderly state into which a regiment or a whole army is thrown, by defeat.

CONGÉ, Fr. leave of absence. The old service of France admitted of two sorts. The Congé limité, a limited or specific leave, and Congé absolu, a full discharge: in time of war, the latter was always suspended.

CONGÉDIER, Fr. to dismiss.

CONGÉDIER une armée, Fr. to send an army into quarters.

CONGLOMERATE, to gather together, to assemble in a knot.

CONGRESS, (Congrès, Fr.) in military and political affairs, is an assembly of commissioners, deputys, envoyes, &c. from several courts, meeting to agree on terms for a general pacification, or to concert matters for their common good.

CONIC, (conique, Fr.) like a cone. A piece of ordnance wider towards the mouth, than about the breech, is said to be conic.

CONJURATEURS ou Conjurés, Fr. conspirators; persons leagued together for the purpose of assassinating their Prince or Sovereign, or of overthrowing the established government. This term applies generally to any illegal combination of men.

CONJURATION, Fr. Conspiracy. League entered into by persons, who are mutually sworn to support and carry into execution some projected scheme.

CONNÉTABLE de France. Constable of France. This appointment succeeded to that of Grand Sénéchal de France. It was not originally a military place of trust, but merely an office belonging to the king’s household.

CONNÉTABLE de France, Fr. was a particular corps under the immediate command and direction of the Marshals of France; composed of forty-eight mounted guards, who wore a hoqueton, for the king’s service, of a Provost-general, four-Lieutenants and four Escuets.

CONNOSCIANCE, Fr. knowledge of any thing.

CONNOSCIANCE d’un Pays, Fr. the complete knowledge of a country, of its mountains, vallies, rivers, fortified places
places and bridges, &c. also of its
magazines and means of subsistence for
an army.

To CONQUER, (conquerir, Fr.) to
obtain possession, of a town, country,
&c. by force of arms.

CONQUEROR, (conquérant, Fr.) a
warrior who manages his affairs in
such a manner, that he gets the better of
all his enemies, and obtains a com-
plete triumph.

CONQUESTS (Conquêtes, Fr.) terri-
tory, &c. obtained by dint of fighting.

CONSCRIPT, (conscription) a term
anciently applied to the senators of
Rome, from their names being entered
all in one register.

CONSCRIPTS, men raised to re-
cruit the imperial and French armies.
In Bohemia and Hungary, all men cap-
able of bearing arms are unregistered,
and must march whenever there is occa-
sion for their services. The conscripts
in France have been raised during the
present war upon similar principles.

The militia of Great Britain comes
likewise under the appellation, with
the difference, that the men are raised
by ballot, and do not march out of their
native country, unless they be volun-
tarily disposed so to do.

CONSEILLE-DE-GUERRE, Fr. This
term not only signifies a council of war,
at which the French king and his mi-
ner sat to determine upon military
matters, both by sea and land, but it
likewise meant a general or regimental
court-martial.

CONSEILLE-DE-GUERRE SECRET, Fr. A
secret council held by the sovereign
and his ministers to deliberate on a
defensive, offensive or federative war.

CONSIGN, Fr. Parole or counter-
sign.

It likewise means, when used in the
masculine gender, a person formerly
paid by the French government for
constantly residing in a garrison town,
in order to take cognizance of all per-
sons who entered or went out of the
gates. He had a place allotted to him
in the half-moon, and delivered a regu-
lar report to the governor, or com-
mandant of the place.

CONSIGN, Fr. An individual who
is not permitted to go beyond certain
limits, or to leave a house wherein he
is detained by superior command.

CONSIGNER, Fr. To order a per-
son to be stopped. It also signifies
to regulate things in a town or garrison
so as to ensure public tranquility.

CONSPIRATION, Fr. Conspiracy.
CONSPIRATION CONTRE LE SERVICE DES
ROI, Fr. A conspiracy against the
king's service. During the existence of
the old government of France, any
conspiracy, collusion, or unlawful un-
derstanding, which was discovered to
exist against the king, his governors,
commandants, or other inferior officers,
was reckoned a capital military offence;
and by an order which took place on
the 1st of July, 1727, it was enacted,
that every person convicted of the
crime should be broken upon the
wheel.

CONSTABLE, chief. A person
employed under the militia establish-
ment of Great Britain, to issue, when
directed, orders to the constables to
return lists of men liable to serve,
and to give notice to the constables of
the number of men appointed to serve,
and direct them to give notice to the
men chosen. To forward notice of the
time and place of exercise to the con-
stables, and of the orders for embody-
ing the militia. To order proper per-
sons to furnish carriages for the militia,
as well as for every other part of the
British army on its march, and to be
repaid their extra expenses by the
county treasurer. To transmit to the
petty constables, certificates from the
ercler of the peace of the service of
officers. Constables are allowed one
penny in the pound of the money they
collect; but they forfeit fifty pounds
whenever they neglect to assist in
raising money to be assessed where the
militia has not been raised.

CONSTABLES are to attend subdivi-
sion meetings, with lists of men liable
to serve, and verify them; likewise to
produce returns on oath of the days
notice was given to the men chosen by
ballot. On their refusing to return
lists, they are liable to be imprisoned,
or to suffer fine. It is their duty to
affix notice of the time and place of
exercise on the church doors. They
are paid for their trouble in the same
manner as the chief constables are, but
are only subject to 20l. penalty, for
neglect-
neglecting to assist in raising money
directed to be assessed where the militia
has not been raised.
They may likewise apprehend persons
suspected of being deserted sergeants,
corporals or drummers, belonging to
the militia.

High Constable and Marshal were
officers of considerable weight and digni-
ity, not only in France, but through-
out all the feudal governments of Eu-
rope. The title of constable or comes
stapuli, according to the ingenious
author of an essay on military law,
explains the original nature of this
office, which was that of commander of
the cavalry; and as these once con-
stituted the principal strength of the
imperial or royal armies, this officer
became naturally the commander in
chief of those armies. The office of
marshal appears originally to have been
of a much inferior nature, the person
who exercised it being the actual super-
intendent of the stables, or chief of the
equerries, whose duty was to furnish
the provender for the horses, and to
oversee their proper management. But
in process of time this office grew into
high consideration, and the marshal sub-
ordinate only to the constable, became
the second in command of the armies,
and in the absence of the latter supplied
his place. See Marshal.

The powers of the constable as a field
officer, were extremely ample and digni-
fied. The constable was subordinate
only to the king in the command of the
army; and even when the king was ac-
tually in the field, the efficient command
of the troops seems to have been in this
officer, and all the general orders were
issued jointly in the sovereign's name
and in the constable's.

CONSTANCE, Fr. Courage, per-
sistence and resolution: qualities
which are essentially necessary in war
to make troops undergo a variety of
hardships, in order to get the better at
last.

CONSTITUTION d'un pays, Fr.
The nature of a country; its local ad-
vantages or disadvantages with respect
to military operations.

CONSUL, the person invested with
the powers of the consulate.

Consul chief; or 1 The first or
premier Consul, Fr. 2 chief magistrate
of three persons, each bearing the title
of consul, according to the late con-
stitution of France. The duty of the
chief consul was to command, direct,
and superintend all the military esta-
ishments of the country, and, when-
ever it was judged expedient, to lead
her armies into battle. Bonaparte,
in consequence of the revolution which
took place in 1799, was appointed chief
consul. He has since been created and
acknowledged Emperor of the French.

CONSULAR, relating, or appertain-
ing to the consul.

CONSULATE, a civil and military
power which was originally instituted
by the Romans, on the extinction of
their kings in Tarquin the Proud. It
revived in France, and was the
principal feature of her late constitu-
tion.

CONSULSHIP, the office of consul.

CONSUMPTION, (consommation,
Fr.) the expenditure or waste of stores,
ammunition, &c.

CONTACT, a touching, or the point
or points where one body touches an-
other.

CONTAGION, Fr. a species of
pestilential disease which gets among
soldiers that lie encamped upon marshy
grounds, &c.

CONTINER une Armée, un Enne-
mi, Fr. To keep an army or an
enemy in check. Of this description was
supposed to be the confederacy formed
at Plnitz in 1792, to check the French
Revolution. But its issue proved, that
partial views gained the ascendancy
over the common cause; and that in-
stead of weakening the French, its
incongruous materials only served to
strengthen them.

CONTINGENT, something casual
or uncertain, that may or may not hap-
pen.

The Contingent bill of a regiment
is an account of extra charges, which
depend on the accidental situation or
circumstances, that may attend any
regiment in its due course of service.

Contingent (contingent, Fr.) the
quota of armed men or pecuniary sub-
sidy which one state gives another.

CONTOUR, Fr. the limits of a
country, of a town, camp, plan, or draw-
ing; it is the basis or foundation of
each.
CONTRABAND, this term is applicable to various foreign commodities which are either totally prohibited by the English laws, or are subject to severe penalties and heavy duties. For the encouragement of the fair trader, and in order to secure the revenue from illicit encroachments, the light dragons are frequently employed upon the coast to prevent the smugglers from carrying contraband goods into the country. Other troops are sometimes put upon this service, but light horsemen are best calculated to do the duty.

CONTRAINDRE, Fr. to levy contributions on a town, village, &c. either in money or provisions.

CONTRAITE, Fr. The exaction which is made when a town or country is put under contribution.

CONTRAMUER, in fortification, is a wall built before another partition-wall to strengthen it, so that it may receive no damage from the adjacent buildings.

CONTRAVALLATION, (contra-vallation, Fr.) a line formed in the same manner as the line of circumvallation, to defend the besiegers against the enterprises of the garrison: so that the army, forming a siege, lies between the lines of circumvallation and contravallation. The trench of this line is towards the town, at the foot of the parapet, and is never made but when the garrison is numerous enough to embarrass and interrupt the besieger by allays. This line is constructed in the rear of the camp, and by the same rule as the line of circumvallation, with this difference, that as it is only intended to resist a body of troops much inferior to a force which might attack the circumvallation, so its parapet is not made so thick, nor the ditch so wide and deep: 6 feet are sufficient for the first, and the ditch is 8 feet broad, and 5 feet deep.

Among the ancients this line was very common, but their garrisons were much stronger than ours; for, as the inhabitants of towns were then almost the only soldiers, there were commonly as many troops to defend a place, as there were inhabitants in it. The lines of circumvallation and contravallation are very ancient, examples of them being found in histories of the remotest antiquity. The author of the military history of Louis le Grand pretends however, that Caesar was the first inventor of them; but it appears from the chevalier de Follard's treatise on the method of attack and defence of places, used by the ancients, how little foundation there is for this opinion. This author asserts, with great probability on his side, that these lines are as ancient as the time in which towns were first surrounded with walls, or, in other words, were fortified.

CONTRAVENTION Militaire, Fr. responsibility; every commanding officer, whatever his rank may be, is responsible for all the offences committed by the troops under his command.

CONTRABANDE, Fr. See CONTRABAND.

FAIRE LA CONTRABANDE, Fr. to smuggle.

CONTRABANDIER, Fr. a smuggler.

CONTRÉ-approches, Fr. Lines in fortification or trenches which a besieged garrison or invested army makes to defeat the attempts of its adversaries.

CONTRÉ-batteries, Fr. Batteries which are erected for the purpose of answering those of an enemy, who besieges a place, or gives battle.

CONTRÉ-finesse, or CONTRÉ-TUS, Fr. A stratagem employed to oppose or prevent the effect of another: it is also called contre-mine.

CONTRÉ-forts, Fr. Brick-work which is added to the revetement of a rampart on the side of the terre-pleine, and which is equal to its height. Contré-forts, are used to support the body of earth with which the rampart is formed. They are likewise practised in the revetements of countercarps, in gorges and demi-gorges, &c. The latter are constructed upon a less scale than the former. It has been suggested by an able engineer in the French service, to unite contré-forts, and consequently to strengthen them, by means of arches.

Contré-forts likewise form a part of the construction of powder-magazines, which are bomb-proof.

CONTRA-garde, ou conserve, ou contré-face, Fr. In fortification, counter-guard; a work which only surrounds the faces of another work, and from which it is separated by the ditch or fossé. These counter-
counter-guards are built in front of a bastion, or half-moon, to prevent the enemy from attacking the latter, until the former are destroyed.

Contré-ligne, Fr. a sort of temporary fortification which is thrown up with earth, and stands between a besieged town or fortress and a besieging army, in order to prevent the sorties of the former.

Contré-marche, Fr. See March.

Contré-mine, Fr. See Mine.

Contré-mineurs, Fr. See Mine.

Contré-mort, Fr. a second parole or countersign, which is given in times of alarm.

Contré-mur, Fr. an outward wall erected round the principal wall of a town.

Contré-ordre, Fr. a counter-order.

Contré-queue d'yrondé, Fr. a work in fortification, which has two faces or sides, making a reentrant angle, by joining together towards the inside of the work. It has also two branches, which with the faces, contain a narrower space towards the enemy than on the other side.

Contré-ronde, Fr. a round which is made subsequent to another, to see if the first round was gone according to order.

Contré-signe, Fr. The signature or name of a prince, minister, or of any privileged person, which is written on the outside of a letter, and renders it post free, &c.

Contré-signer, Fr. to counteign.

Contré-temps, Fr. When two persons, fighting with swords, thrust at the same time without parrying: the thrust is equally dangerous for both parties, and is called a contré-temps, or counter-thrust.

Contré-tranchées, Fr. trenches made against the besiegers with their pampet; they must communicate with several parts of the town, in order that the garrison be able to retire into it hastily, after having broken or stopped the communications; otherwise it would be losing time to erect a work which you would be obliged to demolish, or to fill up, when you had reached the third parallel.

Contribute au succès d'une entreprise militaire, Fr. to do every thing in our power, either by personal exertion, or by the means of others under our command, towards the successful issue of a battle, &c. and to contribute thereby to the glory and welfare of our country.

Contribute, (contribuer, Fr.) to furnish from good will and patriotism, or from compulsion, money, stores &c. for the support of an army.

Contribution, in military history, is an imposition or tax paid by countries who bear the scourge of war, to secure themselves from being plundered and totally destroyed by the enemy. When a belligerent prince, wanting money, raises it on the enemy's country, and is either paid in provisions or in money, and sometimes in both, he is said to do so by contribution.

Contrôle, comptrol, or contrrole, is properly a double register kept of acts, issues of the officers or commissioners in the revenues, army, &c. in order to ascertain the true state thereof.

Contrôles, Fr. See Mustermolls.

Contrôleurs des guerres, Fr. Muster-masters. This term was likewise applied to signify various other appointments belonging to the interior arrangement of the French army, viz. contrôleurs général d'artillerie, contrôleurs des hôpitaux militaires. See Superintendant of military hospitals.

Contrôleurs général des vivres, See Commissary general of stores.

Contusion, (contusion, Fr.) the effect of a ball or of any other hard substance upon the human frame, when it is struck, without breaking or tearing the skin.

Convalescent, recovering, returning to a state of health. Hospitals have been established during the present war in different districts, for the preservation of our troops. Among others, there is in each district a convalescent hospital.

List of Convalescents, is a return made out by the surgeon belonging to a battalion, hospital, &c. to ascertain the specific number of men who may shortly be expected to do duty.

Convention, (convention, Fr.) an agreement which is entered into by troops that are opposed to one another, either for the evacuation of some
some particular post, the suspension of hostilities, or the exchange of prisoners.

CONVENTIONS entre Souverains pour restitution des déserteurs, Fr. agreements or stipulations made between neighbouring powers to check desertions. In conformity to these conventions, all deserters whatever are arrested within the dominion of a sovereign, who has passed an agreement of the kind with the prince, from whose army they have deserted. The intelligence is forwarded to the commandant of the nearest town, who sends for the deserter, and forwards him to his corps, where the expenses of his escort are repaid.

CONVENTIONS secrètes entre les officiers d'un corps, Fr. certain secret agreements which are entered into by the officers of a regiment.

CONVERSION, Fr. a sudden motion of the troops whilst manouvrering, or in battle, which is made either by wheeling from the right or from the left. There are two sorts of conversions: the one upon the flank, and the other upon the center.

CONVERSION, quart de conversion, Fr. a wheel which comprehends the quarter of a circle, and turns the front of a battalion where the flank was, when the flank is attacked.

CONVEX, (convexe, Fr.) externally round, as a globe, cannon ball, &c.

CONVEXITY, (convexité, Fr.) the external surface of any round body or substance.

CONVOCATION, Fr. the act of summoning various persons belonging to a state, for the purpose of discussing matters which relate to civil or military matters.

CONVOQUER, Fr. to call together.

CONVOY, (convoyer, Fr.) This term is used among the French, both for sea or land: in the latter sense it corresponds with our term, to escort.

CONVOY, (convoi, Fr.) in military affairs, a detachment of troops employed to guard any supply of men, money, ammunition, provision, stores, &c. conveyed in time of war, by land, or sea, to a town or army. A body of men that marches to secure any thing from falling into the enemy's hand, is also called a convoy. An officer having the command of a convoy, must take all possible precautions for its security. He must endeavour, before its march, to procure good intelligence concerning the enemies out-parties. And as the commanding officer of the place from which the convoy is to march, and those of such other places as he is to pass by, are the most proper persons to apply to for assistance, he must therefore take such measures as will enable him to keep up a constant intercourse with them. The conducting a convoy is one of the most important and most difficult of all military operations; so much so, that a general officer sometimes commands it.

CO-OPERATE, (coopérer, Fr.) to put a well digested plan into execution, so that forces, however divided, may act upon one principle and towards one end.

COOK, each troop or company has cooks, who are excused from other duties.

COPPER. No other metal is allowed to the magazines, or barrels of gunpowder.

COQUILLES à boulet, Fr. shells or moulds. They are made either of brass or iron; two are required for the casting of a cannon-ball; but they never close so effectually as to prevent the liquid metal, which has been poured in, from running somewhat out of the part where they join. This excrecence is called the beard, which is broken off to render the ball completely round.

CORBELLES, Fr. large baskets, which being filled with earth, and placed one by another along the parapet, serve to cover the besieged from the shot of the assailing enemy. They are made wider at top than at the bottom, in order to afford loop-holes, through which the men may fire upon the besiegers. Their usual dimensions are one foot and a half high, as much in breadth at the top, and eight or ten inches at the bottom.

CORDAGES, Fr. All sorts of ropes which are used in artillery, &c.

CORDE, Fr. Cord, in geometry, and fortification, means a straight line which cuts the circumference into two parts, without running through the center.
powers, who are embarked in the same cause, and who communicate together in order to secure ultimate success.

_Military Correspondence_, (correspondance de guerre, Fr.) See Military Secretary.

_Secret Correspondence_, (correspondance secrète, Fr.) secret intelligence; or a correspondence which is maintained between the general of an army, and one or more confidential agents that are employed to watch the enemy.

_Corsair_, (corsaire, Fr.) in naval history, a name given to the piratical cruisers of Barbary, who frequently plunder the merchant ships of countries with whom they are at peace.

_Corselet_, a little cuirass; or according to others, an armour, or coat made to cover the whole body, anciently worn by the pike-men, who were usually placed in the front and on the flanks of the battle, for the better resisting the enemy's assaults, and guarding the soldiers posted behind them.

_Corteau_, Fr. a warlike machine in use among the ancients.

_Corvéé_, Fr. a species of hard labour for the repair of public roads, &c., to which a certain number of soldiers, and sometimes the inhabitants of towns and villages, were subjected during the French Monarchy. This personal tax was done away at the Revolution, and turnpikes have since been established throughout France and its subject departments. _Corvéé_ likewise means a job.

_Cosecant_, the secant of an arch which is the complement of another to 90°.

_Cosine_, the right sine of an arch which is the complement of another to 90°.

_Cosmography_, (Cosmographie, Fr.) a science which teaches the structure, shape, disposition, and connection of all the different parts of the globe, likewise the manner of delineating them on paper: it is composed of two parts, viz. astronomy and geography.

_Cossacks_, in military history, a wild irregular people, who inhabit the Ukraine, and live by plunder and piracy, in small vessels on the Black Sea. A set, the fixed at the end of a pole was their ancient weapon. They are now a regular militia, and use the same arms as the Croats and Pandours, being very active and well mounted.

_Cotangent_, the tangent of an arch which is the complement of another to 90°.

_Cote, Fr. side_. The whole extent or length of a branch in fortification; the distance or space between two given points, or the demi-gorges of two neighbouring bastions.

_Cote extérieure du poligone_, Fr. exterior side of the polygon. The line which is drawn from the capital of one bastion to another.

_Cote intérieure du poligone_, Fr. interior side of the polygon. The line which is drawn from the angle of one gorge to the angle of the gorge most contiguous to it. See sides of the Poligone.

_Coter_, Fr. to mark upon the plans and profiles of works of fortification, the exact measurement thereof divided into toises, feet, inches, and lines: the figure which is used to distinguish the different parts of the work is called the _Cote_: so that when it is necessary to repair a bastion, the engineer instantly knows the defective part.

_Cotiser_, Fr. to give one's allotted proportion of money or provisions, &c. for the use of an army.

_Cotoyer une armée_, Fr. to keep a parallel line with an enemy, so as to prevent him from crossing a river, or to seize a convenient opportunity to attack him.

_Cotte d'armes_, Fr. the military dress of the ancient Gauls, the length of which frequently varied; sometimes it hung to the ground both before and behind, with the sides sloping; sometimes it came just above the knee, and at other times just below the knee. In subsequent years it was only worn by the _héraults d'armes_ and _les gardes de la manche_, as we may have seen in our days. Those Gauls that were opulent displayed great magnificence in their _cotte d'armes_. Since that period the privilege has descended to the sons of grandees and noblemen.

_Cottereaux_, Fr. a banditti that formerly infested France, particularly the province of Berri. They were destroyed by Philip Augustus in 1163. Their only weapon was a large knife.

_Coucher,
To prevent Coventry's military from marching too far, it's necessary to express the situation of every force that takes part in the operation and especially to see which the officers who are not upon a good footing with the officers commanding the man who leads him, cannot be great attention to the drill. But the command is carried out by skilled officers, directed by the term Coventry. The best way that an officer can answer the intentions of his force is by exercising it in the measurement of ground by the regular pace of a foot, and the line of advance. This instruction is given to cavalry officers, as well as to the infantry. The best way to cover this is to use security of cover and protection. Thus, the 5 or 6 feet on the border of the ditch towards the country are covered by the execution of the parter. The direction is given by the term Coventry as COVENTRY, which is the first place in the order of the march.

Secondly, any turning or deviation is marked from a direct line, that is made by a river, canals, roads, or branch of a river, as Curzon, a winding of the river.

COUNCIL, P.R., of the Eighteenth Century, with a gout and a fat, aged, white, and a mustard-colored waistcoat, holds his interval exactly. When he one.
COUNCIL of war, an assembly of principal officers of an army or fleet, called by the general or admiral who commands, to concert measures for their conduct.

COUNTER-APPROACHES, lines or trenches made by the besieged, when they come out to attack the lines of the besiegers in form.

Line of COUNTER-APPROACH, a trench which the besieged make from their covered way to the right and left of the attacks, in order to scour or enflade the enemy's works.

COUNTER-Battery, a battery used to play on another in order to dismount the guns. See BATTERY.

COUNTER-breastwork. See FAUSSE-BRAYER.

COUNTER-forts, in fortification, are certain pillars and parts of the wall, distant from 15 to 20 feet one from another, which are advanced as much as may be in the ground, and are joined to the height of the cordon by vaults, to sustain the chemin de rondes, or that part of the rampart where the rounds are gone, as well as to fortify the wall, and strengthen the ground. See BUTTRESSES.

COUNTER-guards, in fortification, are small ramparts, with parapets and ditches, to cover some part of the body of the place. They are of several shapes, and differently situated. They are generally made before the bastions, in order to cover the opposite flanks from being seen from the covert way; consisting then of 2 fences, making a salient angle, and parallel to the face of the bastion. They are sometimes made before the ravelins. See FORTIFICATION.

COUNTER-round. See Rounds.

COUNTER-mines. See MINES.

COUNTER-trenches. See SIEGE.

COUNTER-working, is the raising of works to oppose those of the enemy.

COUNTER-swallow's tail, in fortification, is a kind of an out-work very much resembling a single tenaille.

To COUNTERMAND, is to give contrary orders to those already issued; to contradict former orders, &c.

COUNTERMURF, a wall built up behind another, in order to encrease the strength of any work.

COUNTERMARCH, (contre-marche, Fr.) a change by wings, companies, sub-divisions, or files, whereby those who were on the right take up the ground originally occupied by the left; generally used in changing the front. See MARCH.

COUNTERSCARP, in fortification, is properly the exterior talus, or slope of the ditch, on the farther side from the place, and facing it. Sometimes the covert way and glacis are meant by this expression. See FORTIFICATION.

COUNTERSIGN, in a general acceptance of the term means any particular word, such as the name of a place or a person, which, like the parole, is exchanged between guards, entrusted to persons who visit military posts, go the rounds, or have any business to transact with soldiers in camp or garrison. It ought always to be given in the language best known to the troops.

COUNTERVALLATION, or line of countervallation, a trench with a parapet, made by the besiegers, between them and the place besieged, to secure them from the sallies of the garrison; so that the troops which form the siege are encamped between the lines of circumvallation and countervallation. When the enemy has no army in the field, these lines are useless.

COUNTY-lieutenant. See LIEUTENANT OF COUNTY.

COUNTY-treasurer. See TREASURER OF COUNTY.

COUP-DE-MAIN, a desperate resolution in all small expeditions, of surprise, &c. The favourable side of the proposed action must ever be viewed; for if what may happen, arrive, or fall out, is chiefly thought upon, it will, at the very best, not only greatly discourage, but, in general, produce a total failure. The very name of an expedition implies risk, hazard, precarious warfare, and a critical but desperate operation, or COUP-DE-MAIN.

COUP-d'œil, Fr, in a military sense, signifies that fortunate aptitude of eye in a general, or other officer, by which he is enabled by one glance on the map, or otherwise, to see the weak parts of an enemy's country, or to discern the strong ones of his own. It also signifies to catch a ready view, and thereby to secure an accurate knowledge of the enemy's position and movements in action. By possessing a ready coup-d'œil,
COU

d'eil, a general may surmount the
greatest difficulties, particularly in of-
tensive operations. On a small scale this
toxulty is of the greatest utility. Ac-
tions have been recovered by a sud-
den conception of different openings
upon the enemy, which could only be
ecartained by a quick and ready eye,
during the rapid movements of opposing
armies. General Désaix, at the battle
of Marengo, gave a striking proof of the
importance of this faculty.

COUPE, Fr. the rough draft or
sketch of a drawing which represents
the inside of a building, &c.

COUPE-gorge, Fr. a disadvantageous
position; a situation in which a body of
men must be exposed to every sort of
danger; literally, a cut-throat place.

COUPELLE, Fr. A kind of tin or
cooper shovel, which is used in the ar-
tillery to fill the cartridges with gun-
powder, &c.

COUPER une communication, un
corps, un pont, une retraite, une troupe,
Fr. to cut off a communication, to in-
terrupt a convoy, break down a bridge,
cut off a retreat, or any armed body of
men.

COUPURES, in fortification, are pas-
ses, sometimes cut through the glacis,
of about 12 or 15 feet broad, in the re-
centering angle of the covert-way, to
facilitate the sallies of the besieged.
They are sometimes made through the
lower curtain, to let boats into a little
haven built in the reentrant angle of the
counterscarp of the out-works.

COUPURE, Fr. a ditch that is dug to
prevent a besieging army from getting
too close to the walls of a fortified
town or place.

COURAGE, (Courage, Fr.) a quali-
ty of the mind, which is sometimes na-
tural and sometimes acquired. It is
equally necessary to the officer and sol-
dier. The French make a difference be-
 tween bravery and courage. They
may soldiers may be very brave, and yet
not have courage enough upon all oc-
casions to manifest their bravery. A
general who is determined upon an
emergency to risk neck or nothing, al-
ways knows how to inspire his troops
with courage, (provided they be well
disciplined, for if not, he can do no-
thing,) and in that respect the famous
Turane and Maurice of Nassau, who
had often a superior force to oppose,
were wonderfully skilful. Fernand
Cortez, who had only five hundred men
of infantry, and twenty horse, to make
the conquest of Mexico, perceiving that
his troops, (which he called an army,) 
were frightened at the great number of
Indians mustering against them, order-
ed his ships to be set on fire. He con-
quered the enemy; but we must con-
fect, that he had to deal with barbarians,
who mistook his twenty horsemen for
sea monsters, and the firing from the
musquetry and artillery, for the thun-
der from above. All manner of stra-
tagem must be recurred to, in order to
revive or inspire courage. A general,
for instance, who, at the head of an in-
ferior force cannot avoid a battle,
causes it to be rumoured, that the en-
cemy will give no quarter, and that he has
heard the report from his spies.

COURAGE Miltiaire, Fr. military
prowess. A peculiar degree of hardi-
hood, by which the mind is driven to
acts of uncommon boldness and enter-
prise.

COURANTIN, Fr. a squib; a term
used among French artificers.

COURCON, Fr. a long piece of iron
which is used in the artillery, and serves
to constrain, or tighten cannon.

COUREURS, Fr. a name used
among the French to signify light armed
troops that are mounted, and go upon
reconnoitring parties, or in pursuit of
a flying enemy. It literally means ren-
ners. Those who, on a march, leave
their ranks to go marauding, are also
called couriers.

COURLER, in a military sense,
means a messenger sent post, or express,
to carry dispatches of battles gained,
lost, &c. or any other occurrences that
happen in war.

COURRERS des vivres, Fr. were two
active and expert messengers attached
to the French army, whose duty con-
sisted wholly in conveying packets of
importance to and from, and in taking
charge of pecuniary remittances.

COURIR aux armes, au butin, à la
gloire. To rush or run to arms in order
to prevent being surprized; to hasten
after, or to seek with enthusiasm, the
means of acquiring glory.

COURROIS, Fr. stirrup-leathers.
Dragoons are sometimes punished with
these
the following words: "in such an oath, in the presence of the governor of the state where the

the president is to be sworn in, and of the cabinet, or of any officer in the army or navy, and that the oath be administered by the governor."
The oath. "I, A. B. do swear, that I will not, upon any account, at any time whatsoever, disclose or discover the vote or opinion of any particular member of the court-martial, unless required to give evidence thereof as a witness by a court of justice in a due course of law. "So help me God." 

And no sentence of death shall be given against any offender in such case by any general court-martial, unless 9 officers present shall concur therein; and if there be more officers present than 13, then the judgment shall pass by the concurrence of two-thirds of the officers present; and no proceeding or trial shall be had upon an offence, but between the hours of 8 o'clock in the morning and 3 in the afternoon, except in cases which require an immediate example.

Provided always, that the party tried by any general court-martial in the kingdom of Great Britain or Ireland, or in Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, or Sark, or the islands thereto belonging, shall be intitled to a copy of the sentence and proceedings of such court-martial, upon demand thereof made by himself, or by any other person or persons on his behalf (be or they paying reasonably for the same) at any time not sooner than 3 months after such sentence: and in case of trials by any general court-martial at Gibraltar or Minorca, at any time not sooner than 6 months after the sentence given by such court-martial; and in case of trials by any general court-martial in His Majesty's other dominions beyond the seas, at any time not sooner than 12 months after the sentence given by such court-martial; whether such sentences be approved or not; any thing in this act notwithstanding.

Provided also, and be it enacted by the authority aforesaid, that every judge advocate, or person officiating as such at any general court-martial, do, and he is hereby ordered to transmit, with as much expedition, as the opportunity of time and distance of place can admit, the original proceedings and sentence of such court-martial to the judge advocate general in London: which said original proceedings and sentence shall be carefully kept and preserved in the office of such judge advocate general, to the end that the persons intitled thereto may be enabled, upon application to the said office, to obtain copies thereof, according to the true intent and meaning of this act.

Provided always, and be it hereby declared and enacted, that no officer or soldier, being acquitted, or convicted of any offence, be liable to be tried a second time, by the same or by any other court-martial, for the same offence, unless in case of an appeal from a regimental to a general court-martial; and that no sentence given by any court-martial, and signed by the president thereof, be liable to be revised more than once. Nor can any officer or soldier be tried for any offence committed by him more than 3 years prior to the issuing the warrant, unless he hath purposely absented himself to avoid such trial.

A regimental Court Martial cannot sentence to the loss of life or limb. The colonel or commanding officer approves the sentence of a regimental court-martial.

A garrison Court Martial resembles a regimental one in as much as the members are not sworn, and only differs by its being composed of officers of different regiments. The governor, or other commanding officer of the garrison, approves the sentence. For further particulars respecting courts-martial, see Regimental Companion, vol II.

Court of enquiry, an assemblage of officers who are empowered to enquire into the conduct of the commander of an expedition, &c. or to see whether there is ground for a court-martial, &c. Courts of enquiry cannot award punishment, but must report to the officer by whose order they were assembled. Courts of enquiry are also appointed to examine into the quality and distribution of military stores.

Courtine, Fr. See Curtain in fortification.

Cousin, Fr. a sort of wedge, or small piece of wood which is placed under the breech of a cannon in order to point it properly, and to keep it steady in the proposed direction.

Cousinet, Fr. a wedge of wood which is fixed between the carriage and the center part of a mortar, and serves to keep it in a prescribed degree of elevation.
COUSSINET à mouquetaire, Fr. a bag formerly worn by a French soldier on his left side beneath the cross-belt. It hung upon hooks near the butt of his musket.

CÔUSTILLE, Fr. an offensive weapon which was occasionally used by the troops in the fifteenth century, in the time of Charles VII; it was longer than the common sword, sharp edged from the hilt to the point, of a triangular shape, and very slender.

CÔUSTILLER, Fr. a person so called an account of his being armed with a soustille.

CÔUTEAU, Fr. a knife.

CÔUTEAU de chasse, Fr. a hanger.

CÔUTEAU de bois, ou spatule, Fr. a wooden instrument in the shape of a short blunt blade. It is used in, pressing down earth or hay between a shell and the inside of a mortar, in order to keep the former compact and steady.

CÔUTELAS, Fr. See CUTLASS.

COUVERT, Fr. cover.

COUVRE-FACE, Fr. a term used by some engineers, and among others by Coehorn, to express the counter-guard: others, particularly Montalembert, convey by Couvre-face général a second line of complete investment.

Le COUVRE-FEU, Fr. a signal made by the ringing of a bell, or beat of drum, to give notice to the soldiers or inhabitants of a fortified place, that the gates are shortly to be shut. It literally means the covering or extinction of fire or light. See CURFEEW.

COUVRIR, Fr. to cover, defend, conceal.

COUVRIRE une ville, un port, une troupe, un pays, un magasin, un entrepôt, une armée assiégante, Fr. to lie encamped in front of a town, bridge, body of men, any particular ground or post, magazine, or between a fortified place and the main besieging army, so as to prevent the approaches of an enemy. To this end temporary works should be erected, defended by chosen troops, who must be attacked and beaten, before possession can be obtained of any of the above-mentioned objects.

COUVRIRE une marche, un mouvement, une communication, &c. Fr. to conceal the march or movement of an army, by means of detachments, which are sent forward for that purpose.

CRAB. See Gin.

CRAIKE. The constabulary of this place, as far as it regards the militia, is deemed a part of the North Riding of Yorkshire, and is subject to the jurisdiction of the Lord Lieutenant.

CRAMPONS, Fr. grappling hooks. Iron instruments distributed amongst the troops intended to storm a rampart, and which they fastened to their shoes by means of a strong strap of leather; to be able to climb up. A piece of iron fixed at the extremity of the ladders was also called crampon.

CRANE, an instrument made with ropes, pulleys, and hooks, by which great weights are raised.

CRANEQUINIER, Fr. Formerly an archer who served both on foot and horseback; his bow was very light; in the origin it was made of wood, next of horn, and finally of iron: it was bent by means of an iron bandage, called cranquein, which was fastened round the waist. The Dukes of Burgundy used to have six hundred of them in their suite. He was also called cranqueier.

CRAPAUD, ou affut, Fr. Crapaud literally means a toad. It is a sort of gun-carriage without wheels, on which a mortar is carried to attack or defend a fortified place.

CRATES, engines of war used by the ancients to cover the workmen in proportion as they drew nearer to the walls of a besieged town.

CRAVATES, Fr. a foreign corps of cavalry in the old French service, the true denomination of which should be Croate, since the men who composed it came from Croatia. Their service is the same as that of the hussars, pandours, &c. Their horses were excessively swift. They wore pantaloons like the Hungarians.

CREDIT, (crédit, Fr.) trust reposed, with regard to property: correlative to debt. Johnson. It is customary, upon the arrival of troops that are to continue quartered in a town, village, &c. to warn the inhabitants not to give credit to the men.

CREDITS. Se Debts and Credits.

CREMAILLE, in field fortification, is when the inside line of the parapet is broken in such a manner as to resemble the teeth of a saw; whereby this advantage
vantage is gained, that a greater fire can be brought to bear upon the defile, than if only a simple face were opposed to it; and consequently the passage is rendered more difficult.

Redoubts en Crémaillère, or Cré-
maille, are such as are constructed as above mentioned.

Crenaux, Fr. in fortification, small openings or loop holes which are made through the walls of a fortified town or place. They are extremely narrow towards the enemy, and wide within; so that the balls from the besiegers can scarcely ever enter, whereas two or three soldiers may fire from within.

Crenalé, Fr. embattled; having loop holes.

Cresset, any great light upon a beacon, light-house, or watch-tower.

Crette, Fr. a tuft of feathers, a plume, a tassel, generally worn in the helmet. These crests, which the cavalry wore of a greater length than the infantry, were considered as an ornament, and as proper to frighten the enemy: in the origin they were made of horse-hair; and according to Herodotus were invented by the Ethiopians. Not long after, feathers were adopted, and the red ones had the preference, on account of their being of blood colour. Sometimes the ancients would have three of these plumes in their helmets; probably to mark their rank, the same as the Turks have two or three tails.

Crette, in fortification, implies the earth thrown out of the ditch in a fortification, trench, &c. The most elevated part of a parapet or glacis.

Crette d'un chemin couvert, d'une pièce de fortification, d'une montagne, d'un rocher, &c. Fr. the peak or highest part of a covert way, or of any work in fortification; the summit of a hill, rock, &c.

Crevasse, (créatase, Fr.) a chasm or hollow space which is made by time or mismanagement in a piece of ordnance, &c.; it also signifies a crack in a wall.

Crie, Fr. the acclamation or shout which is made by soldiers when the enemy gives way, and a battle is won. Also the sound given by the voice in challenging a sentry.

Crie des armes, Fr. a savage custom which is still preserved by the Turks and other uncivilized nations, whenever they go into action. It was formerly practised among the French, Spaniards, and the English, &c. The national exclamations were Montjoie and St. Denys for France, St. James for Spain, St. George for England, St. Malo or St. Yves for the Dukes of Brittany, St. Lambert for the Principality of Liege, &c. The war-hoop may likewise be considered in this light. It is still practised among the savages of America. See War-hoop.

Every species of noise however is now exploded in Europe. When two armies are upon the point of engaging, a dead silence prevails; the eye and ear of the soldier being rivetted to the word of command; and when he comes into close contact with the enemy, nothing is heard besides the noise of drums, trumpets and cymbals, to which are added the discharge of ordnance and the fire of musketry.

In making any desperate assault, or in charging bayonet, or when one battalion is directly opposed to another, or squadron to squadron, French soldiers frequently use the crie des armes; tue, tue: and the Spaniards vociferate amat. Silence and calmness in the soldier, with steadiness and observation in the officer, are nevertheless superior to such ungovernable effusions. The former must contribute to regularity, the latter seldom fail to create disorder.

Cri, Fr. a machine which is used to move forwards or drag up a piece of ordnance, a mortar, &c.

Crinière, Fr. that part of the caparison which covers the horse's neck. The name of crinière is also given to a bunch of curling horse-hair worn upon the helmets of the dragoons, and that flows down on the sides like a garland.

Crimp, (Racoleur, Fr.) a person who makes it his business to entice others into a military life, generally by unfair means.

Criques, Fr. small ditches which are made in different parts of a ground, for the purpose of inundating a country, in order to obstruct the approaches of an enemy.

Crista, the plume that was worn among the ancients.
CROATS, in military history, light irregular troops so called; generally people of Croatia. They are ordered upon all desperate services, and their method of fighting is the same as the Pandours. They wear a short waistcoat, and long white breeches, with light boots, and a cap greatly resembling the hussar cap. Their arms are a long firelock with rifled barrel, and short bayonet, a crooked hanger, and a brace of pistols. The late empress queen had 5000 of these troops, the greatest part of which had no pay, but lived by plunder, in the acquisition of which they are remarkably dexterous.

CROC, au CROCHET de Salle, Fr. a pole with an iron hook, used to place the gabions and fascines.

CROCHET de tranche, Fr. the further end of a trench or bouyon, which is purposely carried on to conceal the head of the bouyon, in order to prevent it from being enflamed; and to serve as a small place of arms from whence soldiers may fire against sullying parties.

CROCUS, a calcined metal used by soldiers to clean their musquets, &c.

CROISADE, in military history, CRUSADE, signifies a holy war, or an expedition of the Christians against the Infidels for the recovery of the holy land, and so called from those who engaged in it wearing a cross on their clothes.

CROIÈR une entreprise, une manœuvre de guerre, un projet, Fr. to mar or cross any particular project, military manœuvre, plan, &c. with a good or bad design. The motive, in this case, may proceed from a sincere love of one's country, or from vanity and jealousy.

CROIX de St. Louis, Fr. The cross of St. Louis, a French order which was purely of a military nature. It was instituted by Louis, surnamed the Great, in 1693.

In 1719 the number of grand crosses to be distributed in the French army was limited, with appropriate allowances in the following manner:

445 Commandeurs and chevaliers. 12 grand crosses at 6000 livres, 13 commandeurs at 4000 livres, 27 ditto at 3000, 35 chevaliers at 2000, 38 ditto at 1500, 106 ditto at 1000, 1 ditto at 900, 99 ditto at 800, 45 ditto at 600, 25 ditto at 500, 35 ditto at 400, 5 ditto at 300, and 4 ditto at 200.

The King was Sovereign Grand Master of the Order. Land and sea officers wore it promiscuously. The cross consisted of an enamelled golden fleur de lis, which was attached to the buttonhole of the coat by means of a small ribbon, crimson coloured and watered.

On one side was the cross of St. Louis with this inscription, Ludovicus Magnus instituit, 1693; on the reverse side a blazing sword with the following words, Béllice virtutis præmium.

This is the only order which could be properly and strictly called military. There were several others during the old French government, which we judge superfluous to our present undertaking.

CROQUANT, Fr. The name of a faction which committed great depredations towards the end of the sixteenth century, in several provinces on the other side of the Loire. In 1593, the peasantry of Perigord, Limousin, and Poitou assembled in large bodies, appointed their commanders, refused to pay the taxes, over-ran the country, and gave no quarter to any of the nobility that had the misfortune to fall into their hands. They were named Croquants, from the word croquer, to devour, to piller.

CROQUIS, Fr. a rough sketch taken of any thing.

CROSS, the ensign, or grand standard borne by the crusaders in the holy war.

Cross-fire, in the art of war, is when the lines of fire of two or more adjoining sides of a field redoubt, &c. cross one another; it is frequently used to prevent an enemy's passing a defile. It may be two ways obtained: first by constructing the redoubt with the face opposite to the defile, tenanted; that is, forming a re-entering angle. The other way is, to defend the defile by two redoubts, whose faces command the passage; flanking each other at the same time.

Cross-bar shot, shot with iron bars crossing through them, sometimes standing 6 or 8 inches out at both sides: they are used at sea, for destroying the enemy's rigging. At a siege they are of great service in demolishing the enemy's palisading, &c.
CROSS-bars. See CARRIAGES.

Cross-bow, a massive weapon used to propel arrows, &c., previous to the use of gun-powder.

CROW, an iron bar, used as a lever in moving heavy ordnance or carriages, &c.

CROWS-feet, in the art of war, are four pointed irons, so made, that what way soever they fall, one point is always uppermost. The short ones are about 4 inches in length, and the long ones 6 or 7. The short ones are thrown on bridges, &c., and the long ones on the earth, both to incommode the cavalry, that they may not approach without great difficulty.

CROWN-work, in fortification, an out-work that takes up more ground than any other. It consists of a large gorge, and two sides terminating towards the country in two demi-bastions, each of which is joined by a particular curtain, forming two half bastions and one whole one: they are made before the curtain, or the bastion, and generally serve to enclose some buildings which cannot be brought within the body of the place, or to cover the town gates, or else to occupy a spot of ground which might be advantageous to the enemy. See FORTIFICATION.

CROWNED horn-work, in fortification, is a horn-work, with a crow-work before it.

CROWS, in ancient military history, were of various uses and denominations, viz.

Oval Crown, corona ovalis, given to a general, who without effusion of blood, had conquered the enemy.

Natal Crown, corona navalis, distributed to those who first should board an enemy's ship.

Camp Crown, corona castrensis, the reward of those who first passed the palisades and forced an enemy's camp.

Mural Crown, corona muralis, the recompence and mark of honour due to those who first mounted the breach at the assault of a besieged town.

Civic Crown, corona civica, more esteemed than the preceding: it was the distinguishing mark of those who had saved the life of a Roman citizen in battle. It was given to Cicero for dissipating the conspiracy of Cataline, and denied to Caesar, because he imbrued his hands in the blood of his fellow-citizens.

Triumphal Crown, corona triumphalis, the symbol of victory, and presented to a general who gained any signal advantage to the republic.

Grass Crown, corona graminea, was delivered by the whole Roman people to any general who had relieved an army invested or besieged by the enemy. The other crowns were distributed by the emperors and generals; this was given to Fabius by the Roman people, for obliging Hannibal to decamp from Rome.

Olive Crown, corona olivæ, the symbol of peace, and presented to the negotiators of it.

CRUCHES à feu, Fr. earthen pots with two handles, filled with grenades, having the intervals between them filled with powder: these fire-pots are first stopped with a sheep-skin fastened round the neck; a match is next fixed to each handle; these are set fire to, and threw upon the enemy, on their approach to storm the walls; the moment the pots break, the fire from the matches communicates to the powder and to the grenades.

CRUPELLAIRES. Fr. the nobility amongst the ancient Gauls, all of them fervestis, that is to say, covered with iron; they served on foot, until pursuant to a regulation of Charles VII. king of France, they were named homines d'armes, and each of them was obliged to keep four horses.

CUBE, a solid contained between six equal square sides. The solidity of any cube is found by multiplying the superficial content of any one of the sides by the height. Cubes are to one another in the triplicate ratio of their diagonals.

CUBE-root, is the side of one of the squares constituting the cube.

CUBIC-foot, implies so much as is contained in a cube, whose side is 1 foot or 12 inches.

Cubic hyperbola is a figure expressed by the equation \( x y = a \), having 3 asymptotes, and consisting of 2 hyperbolas, lying in the adjoining angles of the asymptotes, and not in the opposite angles, like the Apollonian hyperbola, being otherwise called, by Sir Isaac Newton, in his enumeratio lineum tertii ordinis, an hyperbollimus of a parabola;
bola; and is the 65th species of lines, according to him.

Cubic number, is that which is produced by multiplying any number by itself, and then again the product by that number.

Cubic parabola, a curve of the second order, having infinite legs, diverging contrary ways.

CUE or QUEUE, the hair tied in form of a tail. All the British soldiers, excepting the grenadiers and light infantry, are now ordered to wear their hair cue’d.

CUILLER à Canon, Fr. A copper ladle or scoop, which is used to draw the cartridge out of the gun.

CUIRASSE, a piece of defensive armour, made of plate, well hammered, serving to cover the body, from the neck to the girdle, both before and behind, called breast and back-plate.

CUIRASSIERS, a sort of heavy cavalry armed with cuirasses, as most of the German horse are. The several German powers have regiments of cuirassiers, especially the Emperor, and the King of Prussia. The late King of France had also one regiment; but we have had none in the English army since the Revolution.

CUISH, from Cuisse, Fr. thigh. The ancient armour, which covered the thighs, was so called.

CUISINES, Fr. kitchens; ditches dug by the soldiers ' in rear of the camp to cook their victuals.

CUISSARS, Fr. are plates or scales made of beaten iron, which formerly served to cover the thighs.

CUTTE, Fr. a technical word to express the preparation of saltpetre for the making of gunpowder. See Salpetre.

CUL de chaudron, Fr. the hollow or excavation left after the explosion of a mine.

CULASSE, Fr. See Breech of a Gun.

CULATE, Fr. that part which stands between the touch-hole of a cannon and the button.

CULBUTER une Colonne, to overthrow a column. This term is frequently used when cavalry attack infantry by rapidly charging it.

CULCITE. Mattresses used from time immemorial; at first they were made of dried herbs, next of feathers, and finally of wool. In proportion as the Romans relaxed from their former severe discipline, they would carry mattresses with them, notwithstanding they were forbidden. During the siege of Numantia, Scipio finding that all prohibitions were superfluous, set the example to his troops; insisted upon having no bed made for himself, but constantly slept on a bundle of hay. It is not necessary, however, that an agenar should lie on the bare ground for ever; let it suffice that he has done so once; he stands more in need of sleep than any other man in his army; he is exposed to be summoned up frequently in the course of the night; besides, the fatigues and agitation of mind which he has undergone on the preceding day, require that he should enjoy some repose to be able to resume the labour of the morrow.

CULÉE d’un pont, Fr. butment of a bridge.

CULOT, Fr. the thickest part of a shell.

CULVERIN, See CULVERIN-ordinary, CULVERIN of the largest size See Cannon.

CUNEUS. See Wedge.

CUNETTE. See Cuvette.

CURFEW-bell, a signal given in cities taken in war, &c. to the inhabitants to go to bed. The most memorable curfew in England, was that established by William the Conqueror, who appointed, under severe penalties, that, at the ringing of a bell, at 8 o’clock in the evening, every one should put out his lights and fires, and go to bed, &c.

CURTAIN, in fortification, is that part of the body of the place, which joins the flank of one bastion to that of the next. See Fortification.

Angle of the Curtain. See Fortification.

Complement of the Curtain. See Fortification.

Compot of the Curtain. See Fortification.

CURTELASSE, See Cutlass.

CURTELAX, 
CURTODE, Fr. that piece of stuff which covers the holster of a pistol.

CUSTREL, the shield-bearer of the ancients was so called.

CUT, the action of a sharp or edged instrument. There are six cuts established for the use of the cavalry, to be made with
with the broad sword or sabre. See Sword Exercise.

To Cut off. To intercept, to hinder from union or return. In a military sense, this phrase is variously applicable, and extremely familiar.

To Cut off an enemy’s retreat, is to manoeuvre in such a manner as to prevent an opposing army or body of men, from retiring when closely pressed, either to their entrenchments, or into a fortified town from which they had marched or sallied. Whole armies may be cut off either through the mismanagement of their own generals, by extending the line of operation too far, or through the superior talents of an individual, who in the midst of the hurry, noise, and desolation, which invariably attend a pitched battle, suddenly takes advantage of some opening in the wings or center, and cuts off a material part of his enemy’s line. This happened at Marengo. When one army is superior to another in numbers, and is commanded by a shrewd and intelligent officer, it may always cut off a part at least of the opposing forces that come into action. Bacon observes that the king of this island, a wise man, and a great warrior, handled the matter so as to cut off their land forces from their ships.

To Cut short. To abridge: as the soldiers were cut short of their pay.

To Cut up. When the cavalry are sent in pursuit of a flying enemy, the latter are generally cut up.

To Cut through. A small body of brave men, headed by a good officer, will frequently extricate itself from apparent captivity, or destruction, by cutting its way through superior force. British soldiers have frequently exhibited proofs of this extraordinary effort of natural courage.

Cutler, a military artificer, whose business is to forge, temper, and mount all sorts of sword-blades.

Cutting-off. See Retrenchment.

Cuvette, in fortification, is a small ditch of 10 or 12 feet broad, made in the middle of a large dry ditch, about 4 or 4½ feet deep, serving as a retrenchment to defend the ditch, or else to let water in, if it can be had during a siege, and afford an obstacle, should the enemy endeavour to cross the fossé.

Cyclopoedia. See Cyclopoedia.

Cycloid, a curve formed by a point in a circle revolving upon a plane. Thus every point in the outer rim of a carriage wheel in motion moves in a cycloid.

Cylinder, or concave cylinder of a gun, is all the hollow length of the piece or bore. See Cannon.

Charged Cylinder, the chamber or that part which receives the powder and ball.

Vacant Cylinder, that part of the hollow or bore which remains empty when the piece is loaded.

Cymar, a slight covering; a scarf.

Cymbal (Cymbale, Fr.) a war-like musical instrument in use among the ancients, made of brass and silver, not unlike our kettle-drums, and, as some think, in their form, but smaller. They are now used by the British and other European nations, in their martial music.

Czar, in military history, a title of honour assumed by the great dukes, or, as they are now stiled, emperors of all the Russians. This title is no doubt, by corruption, taken from Caesar, emperor; and the Czars accordingly bear an eagle as the symbol of their empire. The first that bore this title was Basil, the son of Basilides, about the year 1470. The Empress is called the Czarina or Tzarina.
DAGGER, in military affairs, a short sword or poignard, about 12 or 13 inches long. It is not long since duellists fought with sword and dagger.

DAGUE, Fr. dagger, a short thick poignard which was formerly used when individuals engaged in single combat.

DAM. See Dyke.

DAMAS, Fr. a sabre made of the best polished steel, and well tempered: it is excessively sharp, and is so called from Damascus in Syria, where the first of the kind were manufactured.

DAMASQUINÉ, Fr. is said of a poignard, sabre, sword, musket, pistol, shield, helmet, or lance, that is ornamented with gold or silver.

DAME, Fr. among miners any portion of earth which may remain after the explosion of a mine has taken place. It likewise means a piece of wood with two handles used to press down turf or dirt in a mortar.

DAME, ou quille, Fr. a small turret which is erected upon a rampart wall, or on the top of a building, to overlook the country, and prevent soldiers from deserting.

DANGERS pour les troupes de terre, Fr. dangers to which land forces are exposed. Under this title are comprised unknown defiles, certain passages in a country that have not been reconnoitred; bridges which from the stratagem of the enemy are rendered unsafe; rocks, straits of rivers, a wood, a forest, an ambuscade; a height in the shape of a curtain, behind which troops are concealed; marshes, sandy grounds; false information; traitors; weariness; the want of pay and of provisions; hard treatment, want of discipline; the bad example given by the officers; neglect; unbounded security; bad morals; plunder allowed unseasonably; all the above are things which at various times may expose an army; but a wise and prudent general knows how to remove all dangers of the kind.

DANSE militaire, Fr. a military dance used among the ancients.

DARD, Fr. a dart.

DARD d, feu, Fr. a javelin trimmed with fire-works, that is thrown on ships or against places which you wish to set on fire.

DARDER, Fr. to throw a dart or any other pointed weapon.

DARDEUR, Fr. a person who throws a dart.

DARE, a challenge or defiance to single combat.

DARRAIN. See Battle-array.

DARSE, Fr. the interior part of a port, which is shut with a chain, and where galleys and other small craft are sheltered.

DART, in ancient military history, implies a small kind of lance, thrown by the hand.

DAUPIHIN, a title given to the eldest son of France, and heir presumptive to the crown, on account of the province of Dauphiny, which in 1343 was given to Philip of Valois, on this condition, by Humbert, dauphin of the Viennois.

DAUPHIN, Fr. a warlike engine used by the ancients to pierce through and sink the galleys of their enemy. It threw a heavy mass of lead or of iron with such impetuosity as to do great execution. This engine is mentioned in the account of the naval engagement in which the Athenians, under the command of Nicias, were defeated by the Syracusans.

DAUPHINS des canons, Fr. dolphins which are made in relief on the tramions of field pieces.

DAY, in a military sense, implies any time in which armies may be engaged, from the rising of one day's sun to that of another. According to Johnson it signifies, the day of contest, the contest, the battle. Hence a hard-fought day.

DAYSMAN, an umpire of the combat was so called.

DEBAN-
DEBANDEADE. A la débandade, helter-skelter.  
Se battre à la débandade, to fight in a loose, dispersed manner.  
Laisser à la débandade, to leave at random, or in disorder.

DÉBANDEMENT, Fr. the act of being out of the line, or irregularly formed. This may often occur among the best disciplined corps, or even in a whole army. An extraordinary circumstance may sometimes be productive of a débandement. It may likewise happen when a corps is exercising, on account of the men not being well dressed.

DEBAK. See DISEMBARK.

DÉBAUCHER, Fr. to debase, seduce, or entice a soldier from the service of his King and country. During the reign of Louis XV. and in former reigns, it was enacted, that any person who should be convicted of having debauched or enticed a soldier from his duty should suffer death. By a late act of parliament it is made a capital offence to entice or seduce a soldier from any regiment in the British service.

DEBENTURE, is a kind of warrant, given in the office of the board of ordnance, whereby the person whose name is therein specified, is intitled to receive such a sum of money as by former contract had been agreed on, whether wages, or otherwise. Debenture, in some of the acts of parliament, denotes a kind of bond or bill, first given in 1649, whereby the government is charged to pay the soldier, creditor, or his assigns, the money due on auditing the account of his arrears. The payments of the board of ordnance for the larger services at home are always made by debentures; and the usual practice has been to make those payments which are said to be in course of office, at a period which is always somewhat more than three months after the date of each debenture, and which can never exceed six: to pay, for instance, at once for the three months of January, February, and March, as early as possible after the 30th of June.

Debentures are generally made up at the Pay-Office, by virtue of warrants from the War-Office, with the state of regimental charges annexed, after which is issued the final, or clearing warrant. See WARRANT.

DÉBILLER, Fr. to take off the horses that are used in dragging boats up a river.

DÉBLAYER un Camp, Fr. To evacuate a camp for the purpose of cleaning and purifying the ground.

DÉBLAYER les terres d'un fossé, Fr. to throw away the superfluous earth which is not used in constructing a parapet.

DÉBORDEMENT, Fr. This word is applied to that excess and want of good order among troops, which induce them to overrun a country that is friendly or otherwise. Debordement was the ancient appellation given to the irruption of a tribe of barbarians, who came from afar to invade a strange country.

DÉBORDER, Fr. to extend to the right or left so as to be beyond the extreme points of a fortified town or place.

DÉBOUCHÉ, Fr. the outlet of a wood or narrow pass.

DÉBOUCHÉ de tranchée, Fr. the opening which is made at the extremity of a trench, in order to carry the work more forward, by forming new boyaus, and to attack a place more closely.

DÉBOUCHEMENT, Fr. the marching of an army from a narrow place into one more open.

DÉBOUCHER, Fr. to march out of a defile or narrow pass, or out of a wood, village, &c. either to meet an enemy or to retire from him. It also signifies to begin a trench or boyau, in fortification, in a zig-zag direction from a preceding one.

DÉBOUCHER une grosse bouche à feu, Fr. to take the wadding out of a piece of ordnance.

DÉBOURRER, Fr. to take the wadding out of a cannon or musquet.

DÉBRIS d'une armée, Fr. the remains of an army which has been routed.

DEBTS and CREDITS. Every captain of a troop or company in the British service is directed to give in a monthly statement of the debts and credits of his men; and it is the duty of every commanding officer to examine each list, and to see, that no injustice or irregularity has been countenanced or overlooked in so important an object as every money matter between officer and soldier most unquestionably is.
DÉBUSQUER, Fr. to drive an enemy's party from an ambuscade or post.
DÉCAMPER, Fr. to leave one camp in order to go and occupy another.
DÉCAGON, in fortification, is a polygon figure, having 10 sides, and as many angles; and if all the sides and angles be equal, it is called a regular decagon, and may be inscribed in a circle. The sides of a regular decagon are, in power and length equal to the greatest segment of an hexagon inscribed in the same circle, and cut in extreme and mean proportion.
DÉCAGON, Fr. See DECAgon.
To DECAMP, to march an army or body of men from the ground where it before lay encamped. It also signifies to quit any place or position in an unexpected manner. See CAMP.
DÉCAMPEMENT, Fr. the breaking up of an encampment.
DÉCANUS, in Roman military history, an officer who presided over ten other officers, and was head of the contubernium, or serjeant of a file of Roman soldiers.
DÉCHARGE, Fr. the act of firing off a musquet.
DÉCHARGE GÉNÉRALE, Fr. a general discharge.
DÉCHARGE D'ARMES SUR UN MORT, Fr. a discharge of musquetry over a dead body.
DÉCHARGEURS, Fr. are men appointed to attend the park of artillery, and to assist the non-commissioned officers, &c. who are employed on that service. It is the duty of the former to keep a specific account of articles received and consumed, in order to enable the latter to furnish their officers with accurate statements.
DÉCHIRER LA CARTOUCHE AVEC LES DENTS, Fr. to bite cartridge.
To DECIMATE, to divide any body of men into as many tenths as the aggregate number will afford, and to make them cast lots for the purpose of being punished.
To DECIMATE SOLDIERS, DÉcimer des soldats, Fr. to chuse one out of ten, by lot, either by way of punishment, or for the purpose of being employed upon some public work.
DÉCIMATION, in Roman military history, a punishment inflicted upon such soldiers as quitted their post, or behaved themselves cowardly in the field. The names of all the guilty were put into an urn or helmet, and as many were drawn out as made the tenth part of the whole number; the latter were put to the sword, and the others saved.
DÉCIMER, Fr. See DECIMATE.
DECLARATION OF WAR, (Déclaration de guerre, Fr.) a public proclamation made by the herald at arms to the members, or subjects of a state, declaring them to be at war with any foreign power, and forbidding all and every one to aid or assist the common enemy, at their peril.
To DECLARE WAR, (déclarer la guerre,) Fr. to make it publicly known, that one power is upon the eve of acting offensively against another.
DÉCLICQ, Fr. a machine that serves to drive stakes in the ground.
DÉCLIVITY, as opposed to activity, means a gradual inclination, or obliquity reckoned downwards.
DÉCOIFFER, Fr. to take off the cover that is placed on the priming match which leads to the sucession of a mine.
DÉCOIFFER UNE FUSÉE, Fr. to take off the wax or mastic composition by which the inflammable matter is confined. This term is also used with regard to shells. The French sometimes say, grater la fusée de bombes; to scrape off the fuse of a bomb.
DÉCOMBRE, Fr. to carry away the loose stones, &c. which have been made in a breach by a besieging enemy.
DÉCOMBRES, Fr. the rubbish which is the consequence of a breach being made in a work; or any other loose ruins that may have been occasioned by time.
DÉCOMPTE, Fr. in a general sense, discount or deduction made on any given sum or allowance.
DÉCOMPTE also signifies a liquidation, or balance, which from time to time was made in the old French service, between the captain of a company and each private soldier, for monies advanced or in hand; hence Payer le décompte aux troupes, to pay whatever sum or sums may be due to the troops, after having deducted monies that had been advanced. Dic. de l'Acad. In the British service every infantry soldier is settled with on the 24th day in each
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<tr>
<td>Each month. The cavalry is paid every second month.</td>
<td>DÉCRIRE un pays, Fr. to give a general and sometimes a particular description of a country, which requires precision and correctness in the person who makes either a verbal or written description.</td>
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<td>DÉCONFIRE, Fr. discomfit; route.</td>
<td>DÉCURIO, in Roman military history, a commander of ten men in the army, or chief of a decury.</td>
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<td>DÉCOUCHER, Fr. to sleep out of quarters.</td>
<td>DÉCURITY, ten Roman soldiers ranged under one chief, or leader, called the Decurio.</td>
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<td>DÉCOUDRE, être en découdre, Fr. to be on bad terms; to be determined to fight.</td>
<td>DÉDANS d'une ville de guerre, Fr. the inside of a fortified town, i.e. all the works which are within the line of circumvallation.</td>
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<td>DÉCOURAGER, Fr. to dishearten.</td>
<td>DEEP, a term used in the disposition or arrangement of soldiers that are placed in ranks before each other; hence two deep, three deep, &amp;c. Troops are told off in ranks of two, or three deep, and on some occasions in four or more.</td>
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<tr>
<td>DÉCOUVERTE, Aller à la découverte, Fr. To patrole. In the old French service, the party ordered to perform this duty, when in a garrison, usually went three miles round the fortifications to pick up stragglers who could not account for themselves, and to secure spies, should any be lurking about.</td>
<td>DÉFAIRE, Fr. to defeat...</td>
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<tr>
<td>Aller à la DÉCOUVERTE, when applied to any party that is detached from the army, signifies to reconnoitre the enemy. Cavalry are usually employed upon this duty.</td>
<td>DÉFAITE, Fr. defeat. The loss of a battle. An army is vaincu (overpowered) when the field of battle is lost; it is défaite when besides the loss of the field of battle, there are a great number killed, wounded and made prisoners. The word défaite is only applicable to an army, but never to a detachment; in the latter case it is said to have been overpowered.</td>
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<td>DÉCOY, a stratagem to carry off the enemy's horses in a foraging party, or from the pasture; to execute which, you must be disguised, and mix on horseback in the pasture, or amongst the foragers on that side on which you propose to fly: you must then begin by firing a few shots, which are to be answered by such of your party as are appointed to drive up the rear, and are posted at the opposite extremity of the pasture, or foraging ground; after which they are to gallop from their different stations towards the side fixed for the fight, shouting and firing all the way: the horses being thus alarmed, and provoked by the example of others, will break loose from the pickets, throw down their riders and the trusses, and setting up a gallop, will naturally direct their course to the same side; insomuch that, if the number of them was ever so great, you might lead them in that manner for several leagues together: when you are got into some road, bordered by a hedge, or ditch, you must stop as gently as possible; and without making any noise, the horses will then suffer themselves to be taken without any opposition. It is called in French Haraux; and Count Saxe is the only author that mentions it.</td>
<td>DEFAULT. See DESERTER.</td>
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<td>DÉCOYED, an enemy is said to be decoyed when a small body of troops draws him into action, whilst the main body lies in ambush ready to act with the greatest effect.</td>
<td>DEFEAT, the overthrow of an army.</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEFENCE. See MUTINY.</td>
<td>DEFECTION. See MUTINY.</td>
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<tr>
<td>DEFENCE, in fortification, consists of all sorts of works that cover and defend the opposite posts; as flanks, parapets, cazemattes, and fausse-brays. It is almost impossible to fix the miner to the face of a bastion, till the defences of the opposite one are ruined; that is, till the parapet of its flank is beaten down, and the cannon, in all parts that can fire upon that face which is attacked, is dismounted. See FORTIFICATION.</td>
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| Active DEFENCE, generally considered, means every species of offensive operation which is resorted to by the besieged, to annoy the besiegers. Such, for instance, is the discharge of heavy ordnance from the walls, the emission of shells, and the firing of musquetry. A mass of water may likewise be understood to mean active defence, provided it
it can be increased according to the exigency of the service, and be suddenly made to overflow the outworks, or entrenchments of the besieging enemy. Mines which are carried beyond the fortifications may likewise be included under this head.

Passive Defence is chiefly confined to inundations, and is effected by letting out water in such a manner, that the level ground which lies round a fortified town or place may be entirely overflowed and become an inert stagnant pool. Mere submersion is, in fact, the distinguishing character of this species of defence, which does not afford any other movement than what naturally arises from the greater or lesser elevation of the waters, without the means of urging them beyond a given point.

Distant Defence, consists in being able to interrupt the enemy’s movements by circuitous inundations; to inundate, for instance, a bridge, when a convoy is passing, or to insulate batteries, the heads of saps or lodgments which have been made in the covert-way, is to act upon a distant defence. By this species of defence an enemy’s communications may be perpetually intercepted, and his approaches so obstructed as to force him to leave dangerous intervals.

See Belidor’s treatise on Hydraulic Architecture.

Line of Defence, represents the flight of a musquet-ball from the place where the musqueteers stand, to scour the face of the bastion. It should never exceed the reach of a musket. It is either fichant or razant: the first is when it is drawn from the angle of the curtain to the flanked angle; the last when it is drawn from a point in the curtain, razing the face of the bastion.

Line of Defence is the distance between the salient angle of the bastion and the opposite flank; that is, it is the face produced to the flank. See Fortification.

Defence of rivers, in military affairs, is a vigorous effort to prevent the enemy from passing; to effect which, a careful and attentive officer will raise redoubts, and if necessary join curtains thereto: he will place them near the banks as possible, observing to cut a trench through the ground at the windings of the river, which may be favourable to the enemy, and to place advanced redoubts there, to prevent his having any ground fit to form on, &c. See Rivers.

To be in a posture of Defence, is to be prepared to oppose an enemy, whether in regard to redoubts, batteries, or in the open field.

To DEFEND, to fortify, secure, or maintain a place or cause.

DÉFENDANT, Fr. a synonym of flanquant: the flank defends the curtain and the opposite face of the bastion: the half-moon defends the horn-work, or crown-work; the covert-way defends or protects the approaches of the glacis, in an entrenchment the ridan protects the space which connects it with another ridan; a place of arms defends the approach on four sides.

Défense, Fr. être en état de défense, technically signifies to be in a state of defence, or able to resist. The French usually say: cette redoute est en défense; this redoubt is in a state of defence.

Défense, Fr. prohibition. An order issued by some superior officer forbidding the troops of a garrison or camp to do certain things. See Line of Defence.

Défenses d’une place, Fr. the works of a fortified place. See Defence in Fortification.

DEFENSIVE, serving to defend; in a state or posture of defence.

DEFENSIVE-WAR. See WAR.

DEFIANCE. See CHALLENGE.

DEFICIENT, wanting to complete, as when a regiment, troop, or company has not its prescribed number of men.

Défi d’armes, Fr. a challenge, or provocation to fight, much in practice some centuries back.

Défilé, in military affairs, a narrow passage, or road, through which the troops cannot march, otherwise than by making a small front, and filing off; so that the enemy may take an opportunity to stop or harass their march, and to charge them with so much the more advantage, because the rear cannot come up to the relief of the front.

Défilé, among the French is also called jiètre.

To Défilé, is to reduce divisions or platoons into a small front, in order to march
March through a défilé; which is most conveniently done by facing to either the right or left, and then wheeling to either right or left, and marching through by files, &c. It has been mentioned by a writer on military manoeuvres, that defiling should be performed with rapidity, for this obvious reason, that a body of men which advances towards, or retires from an approaching enemy, may get into line, or into columns prepared for action, without loss of time. There may, however, be exceptions to this general rule. For instance, if the regiment is passing a bridge, either retreating or advancing, and the bridge is not firm, the pressure upon it must be as little as possible; because if it should break down, the regiment is suddenly separated, and the remainder may be cut to pieces. In passing a common défilé the pace must be proportioned to the nature of the ground.

DEFLING a lodge. See Enfilade.

DÉFORMER, Fr. in a military sense, signifies to break; as déformer une colonne, to break a column.

DEFY. See Challenge.

DÉGAGER un soldat, Fr. to give a soldier his discharge, either on account of his having served his time, of his being inform, or in consequence of his paying a small sum to procure a substitute.

DÉGARNIR une fortiss, une ligne, un poste, &c. to dismantle a fortiss, a line of fortification, a post, by withdrawing the troops, and sending away the cannon.

DÉGAST, Fr. the laying waste an enemy's country, particularly in the neighbourhood of a town which an army attempts to reduce by famine, or which refuses to pay military exactions.

DÉGORGEOIR, Fr. a sort of steel picket used in examining the touch-hole of a cannon.

DÉGORGER, Fr. to clear out some obstruction.

DÉGORGER une embrasure, Fr. to lower the earth in an embrasure, so as to have a perfect view of any object against which a piece of ordnance is to be pointed.

DÉGOURDI, Fr. polished. It is said proverbially of a soldier who understands his duty well, that he is a man dégourdi; in the like manner it is said of a clumsy, awkward recruit, that he must be dégourdi, that is to say, that he wants a proper drilling.

DEGRADATION, (Degradation, Fr.) in a military life, the act of depriving an officer for ever of his commission, rank, dignity, or degree of honour; and taking away, at the same time, title, badge, and every other privilege of an officer.

DÉGRADATION sur les ouvrages par le feu de l'ennemi, Fr. vide Ouvrages dégradés.

DÉGRADER, Fr. to degrade. The character of a soldier in France was formerly, and we presume still is, so scrupulously watched, that criminals were never delivered over to the charge of the civil power, or sent to be executed, without having been previously degraded; which was done in the following manner:

As soon as the serjeant of the company to which the culprit belonged, had received orders from the major of the regiment, to degrade and render him incapable of bearing arms; he accosted him cap-a-pie, taking care to place his right hand upon the butt-end of the musquet, while the soldier remained tied. He then repeated the following words: finding thee unworthy to bear arms, we thus degrade and render thee incapable of them. "Te trouvant indigne de porter les armes, nous t'en degradons." He then drew the musquet from his arm backwards, took off his cross-belt, sword, &c. and finally, gave him a kick upon the posteriors. After which the serjeant retired, and the executioner seized the criminal. See Drum-out.

DÉGRADER un officier, un soldat, Fr. to take away an officer's commission, and declare him unworthy to serve. To order a front rank man into the rear, as matter of disgrace, or to drum him out of a regiment.

DÉGRÉ, Fr. See DEGREE.

Degré de latitude, Fr. a portion of land between two parallels.

Degré de longitude, Fr. a portion of land between two meridians.

DEGREE. Though this term properly belongs to geometry, nevertheless it is frequently used both in fortification, and gunnery. Hence it will not be
be improper to declare, that it is a division of a circle, including a 360th part of its circumference. Every circle is supposed to be divided into 360°, parts called degrees, and each degree into 60°, other parts, called minutes; each of these minutes being divided into 60° seconds, each second into thirds, and so on.

DÉGUISEMENT de nom & de qualité, Fr. disguise of name and rank.

DÉHARNACHER, or DÉHARNACHEMENT, Fr. to unsaddle a horse, and take off every part of his harness and armor.

DÉHORS, in the military art, are all sorts of out-works in general, placed at some distance from the walls of a fortification, the better to secure the main places, and to protect the siege, &c. See Fortification.

DELATOR, an informer. Under the Roman emperors this contemptible species was very common. Tacitus informs us, that the tyrants encouraged them to carry on that infamous trade by granting them rewards. Caligula allowed them one-eighth of the property of the accused person. The support of the law became an instrument of which the informers took advantage to get a livelihood, but as they consulted only their own interest, they invariably lodged their informations against the most respectable citizens, so that tranquillity and personal safety were entirely out of the question; till at last Titus and Trajan put an end to that public nuisance, and had the informers put to death. The espionage of the present French Government is the same infamous system revived.

DÉLINEATION, an outline, or sketch. See Design.

DELIVER. See Surrender.

DÉLIVRER, une troupe, une ville assiégée, Fr. to relieve a body of men, or besieged town, by forcing the enemy to withdraw.

DELLIS, Fr. select men from Albania who volunteer their services for the armies of the Grand Seignor, and receive no pay: their undaunted courage is superior to that of any other nation. No man was admitted into that body unless he be of a proper height, robust, and of a martial countenance. Previous to their being em-bodied they must give proofs of their valour. Their dress alone is enough to intimidate the foe. The Sanjas and Bucylerbeys select their guard from amongst these Albanians, on account of their courage and fidelity. They are armed with a sabre, a lance, a battle-axe, and sometimes with pistols; but they prefer other weapons to fire-arms, as they may, in their opinion, acquire more glory by making use of the former.

DÉLOGER, Fr. to dislodge; to march off. This term is used among the French both to signify the act of withdrawing or marching away one's self, or of forcing others to retreat and quit a position. Hence, déloger l'ennemi: to dislodge an enemy.

DÉLOGEMENT, Fr. it is said of troops quartered by étape: the same is said of a camp.

DEMANTELER, Fr. to dismantle; to destroy the works of a fortified place.

DÉMENTI, Fr. the lie. A young soldier must know, from the moment he embraces the profession of arms, that this word can never escape with impunity from the lips of a man of honour, and especially of a soldier: in short, upon no occasion whatever, must he use the expression; for amongst civilized nations to give the lie is a very gross insult: amongst military men it is reckoned the greatest offence, and the satisfaction required is not so easily given as it was amongst the Romans, who had nothing more to do than to say to the affronted person, noli te factum esse.

DEMI-BASTION, is a work with only one face and one flank. See Fortification.

DEMI-CANNON, See Cannon.

DEMI-CULVERIN. See Cannon.

DEMI-DIAMÈTRE, Fr. a straight line drawn from the center of a circle to its circumference.

DEMI-DISTANCE des polygones, Fr. is the distance between the exterior polygons and the angles.

DEMI-DISTANCES, Fr. half-distances; as serrez la colonne à demi-distances, close the column at half distances.

DEMI-FILE, Fr. is that rank in a French battalion, which immediately succeeds
DEMONTER une pièce d’Artillerie, Fr. to dismount a piece of artillery; to take it off its carriage.

Démonter le canon d’une forteresse, Fr. To hit a piece of ordnance or artillery belonging to a fortress, so as to destroy its carriage, and by that means render it useless to the enemy.

Démonter une troupe à cheval, Fr. to wound or lame the horses of a troop of cavalry, so as to render them unfit for service.

DEMUNIR, Fr. to take away from a place the provisions and ammunition it contained.

DENISON, a free man, or native of a country or state, as opposed to alien.

DENOMBREMENT, Fr. the complement of a troop or company; also the number of battalions, &c., which compose an army, or of inhabitants that dwell in a town.

DENONCER un soldat, Fr. to give notice to the captain of a troop or company, or to the regiment, of a soldier's intention to desert.

DENONCER une troupe, Fr. to give intelligence of the movement of an armed body of men, of its strength, proposed route, &c.

DENONCIATEUR d’un deserteur, Fr. During the old government of France, a military regulation existed by which any person who discovered a deserter, was entitled to his full discharge, if a soldier; and to one hundred livres, or 4l. 3s. 4d. reward.

DENONCIATEUR, in a general sense, may not improperly be called a military informer. So rigid indeed, were the regulations, (even in the most corrupt state of the French government) against every species of misapplication and embezzlement, that if a private dragoon gave information to the commissary of musters of a troop horse that had passed muster, having been used in the private service of an officer, he was entitled not only to his discharge, but received moreover one hundred livres-in cash, and became master of the horse and equipage; with which he retired unmolested. It is not mentioned in the publication from which we extract this remark, whether the officer was cashiered, but we presume he was.

One hundred and fifty livres were likewise
wise paid to any dragoon, or soldier, who should give information of a premeditated duel; he obtained moreover his discharge.

**Density of bodies.** See Motion.

**Défier** (armé jusqu'aux) Fr. is said of a man who carries as many arms about him as if he was going to fight half a score.

**Déparlement, Fr.** when speaking of the quarters distributed among the troops, the expression used, is to have expedited the départemen de the quarters.

**Déparlement, Fr.** a certain extent of country which is under the same jurisdiction, or authority: any particular district which is subject to the orders, and under the superintendence of a civil magistrate, or military character.

**Déparlement also signifies as with us, a public office, viz. département de la guerre, de la marine; the war, the marine department.**

**Dépasser, (or Déborder), Fr.** To over run. In oblique movements, particular care should be taken not to afford an enemy that advances on the same points with yourself, the means of out-flanking you; which must inevitably happen, should any part of your troops over-run their proper ground. For the instant such an error occurs, your antagonist will only have to form a retired flank, oppose you in front on that part, and charge the remainder in flank, after having cut off all the troops that had over-run.

Se laisser Dépasser, to suffer yourself to be overtaken.

**Dépeches, Fr.** dispatches, letters, &c. which are carried by a special messenger.

**Dépenses secrètes, Fr.** in a military sense, implies secret service money.

**Déperir, Fr.** to waste away; an army is said to be in this state when it is afflicted with a pestilential or epidemic disorder; when it is short of provisions; when the troops do not enter into cantonments as the season requires it, or if they suffer from any other accident.

**Dépeupler, Fr.** to depopulate.

**Déployer, (déployer, Fr.)** to display, to spread out; a column is said to deploy, when the divisions open out, or extend to form line on any given division.

**Deployment, (déploiement, Fr.) or flank march, in a military sense, the act of unfolding or expanding any given body of men, so as to extend their front. According to the system published by authority, a deployment may be made in various ways. The principal one is, from the close column into line. A battalion in close column may form in line on its front, right or left, on its rear, or on any central division, by the deployment, or flank march, and by which it successively uncovers and extends its several divisions.**

In the passage of the obstacle, parts of the battalion are required to form in close column, and again deploy into line; although the division formed upon continues to be moveable. This, however, depends wholly upon the nature of the ground or country, over which the battalion is marching.

**Deployment into line on a front division, the right in front, is effected by halting that division in the alignment, and all the others in their true situations, parallel and well closed up to it; and then by taking a point of forming upon, and dressing by the prolongation of that division. For a minute explanation of the deployments on a rear and central division, see Rules and Regulations, p. 186.**

*Oblique Deployments differ from those movements, which are made when a battalion stands perpendicular to the line on which it is to form. These deployments are frequently made on an oblique line advanced, on an oblique line retired; and when the close column halted is to form in line in the prolongation of its flank, and on either the front, rear, or central division. See Infantry Regulations, p. 192.*

**Déposter un ennemi, ou une troupe, Fr.** to oblige an enemy to quit his position; to drive him out of a fortified place, &c.

**Dépot, any particular place in which military stores are deposited for the use of the army. In a more extensive sense, it means several magazines collected together for that purpose. It also signifies an appropriated fort, or place, for the reception of recruits, or detached parties, belonging to different regiments. The barracks near Maidstone are depots for the British cavalry, but
and the Isle of Wight, is allotted for
the infantry. During hostilities, the
greatest attention should be given to
preserve the several depots which be-
long to the fighting army. Hence the
line of operation should be invariably
connected with them; or rather, no ad-
ance should be made upon that line,
without the strictest regard being paid to
the one of communication.

Depot is also used to denote a par-
cular place at the tail of the trenches,
out of the reach of the cannon of the
place. It is here that the besiegers ge-
erally assemble, who are ordered to
attack the outworks, or support the
troops in the trenches, when there is
reason to imagine the besieged intend
making a vigorous sally.

Depot, likewise means a temporary
magazine for forage, for fascines, gabi-
ons, tools, and every other thing neces-
sary for the support of an army, or for
carrying on a siege.

DÉPOUILLE, Fr. mettre en dépou-
ille, is an expression made use of in cast-
ing of cannon, and signifies to strip it
of the matting, clay, &c.

DÉPOUILLES de l'ennemi, Fr. See
SPOIL.

DEPRESSION, the placing of any
piece of ordnance, so that its shot be
thrown under the point blank line.

DEPRESSED gun, any piece of ord-
nance having its mouth depressed be-
low the horizontal line.

DEPTH, a technical word peculiarly
applicable to bodies of men drawn up
in line or column.

DEPTH of a battalion or squadron,
in military affairs, the number of ranks,
or the quantity of men. Infantry were
formerly drawn up 6 or 8 deep, that is,
it consisted of so many ranks; but now
troops are generally drawn up only 3
deep, and in defence of a breast-work
but 2 deep. When infantry is drawn
up 3 deep, the first rank is called the
front rank; the second, the centre rank;
and the third, the rear rank; and the
files which bind the right and left, are
called the flanks. The cavalry is gen-
erally drawn up 3 deep, and on some oc-
casions only 2 deep.

DEPTH of formation. The funda-
mental order of the infantry in which
they should always form and act, and
for which all their various operations
and movements are calculated, is three
ranks. The formation in two ranks is
to be regarded as an occasional excep-
tion that may be made from it, where
an extended and covered front is to be
occupied, or where an irregular enemy,
who deals only in fire, is to be opposed.
The formation in two ranks, and at
open files, is calculated only for light
troops in the attack and pursuit of a
timid enemy, but not for making an
impression on an opposite regular line,
which vigorously assails, or resists.

DEPTH is not only applicable to men
drawn up in line, and standing at close
or open files two or three deep, but it
may likewise signify the relative depth
of an army marching towards any given
object, in desultory columns.

DEPUTY, a person appointed by
commission to act instead of another.

DEPUTY barrack-masters.

DEPUTY muster-masters.

DEPUTY commissaries.

DEPUTY judge-advocate.

DEPUTY lieutenants. Civil officers
belonging to the militia of Great Bri-
tain, and appointed by the several coun-
ty lieutenants. His Majesty may au-
 thorise any three to grant commissions,
and to act when the county lieutenant
is abroad, or when there is none. If
twenty qualified persons can be found,
it is usual to appoint that number for
each county. For specific qualifications,
see the 26th of George III.

No deputy lieutenants are to be ap-
pointed, till their qualifications have
been delivered to the clerk of the
peace.

They must take the required oaths
within six months after their appoint-
ment; and if they should act without
having given in their qualifications, each
to forfeit 200l.

It is their duty to appoint a clerk of
the subdivision meeting, and they have
besides, the power of appointing a sec-
ond general meeting and subdivision
meetings.

They may direct lists of men liable
to serve to be amended, but they must
certify the number of men in such
lists to the clerk of the general meet-
ning.

They may appoint the number of
men to serve for each place, and may
order the chief constable to give notice

to
to the constables of the number of men to be appointed.

They may cause the men to be chosen by ballot, and order the chief constables to direct the constables to give notice to the men so chosen, when and where they are to appear.

They may proceed to a fresh ballot when the requisite number of men have not been enrolled.

They have also the power of adding lists for two parishes together, and of causing new lists to be made where they have been lost.

They may issue warrants for the attendance of constables, and imprison or fine them for neglect.

They may summon and examine persons on oath, respecting apprentices who are suspected of having been fraudulently bound, and appoint them to serve.

They may hire substitutes for quakers refusing to serve, or to provide substitutes, and they may levy by distress; and if no distress can be found, they may commit the party. They may likewise determine complaints of quakers respecting distress.

They may discharge improper, or unfit persons that have been chosen by ballot, and may cause others to be chosen.

They may, in conjunction with the commanding officer, discharge men declared incapable of service.

They may likewise ballot for men to serve in the room of such persons as have been discharged, or who have served their time according to the regulations.

They may ballot for persons to serve in the room of deserters, provided such deserters do not return before the expiration of three months from their original enlistment. One deputy lieutenant with a justice of the county, may act at subdivision meetings. One may administer oaths, and cause the clerk to enrol persons that have been duly sworn.

Five, in the absence of the lieutenant, may change a proportion of the officers who have served five years, when the militia is not called out for actual service, and may alter subdivisions, and the established allotment of men in divisions.

Three, in the absence of the lieutenant, may summon general meetings for the purpose of appointing what number of additional men shall serve for each district, when the privy council shall fix a greater number for a county than has been appointed by act of parliament.

Deputy lieutenants may likewise appoint the time and place for the annual exercise, if no general meeting of the lieutenancy be held.

Whenever his majesty shall think it expedient to order the militia to be embodied, it is their duty to issue orders to the chief constable to prepare lists, &c.

Three deputy lieutenants, or one lieutenant, must transmit a certificate annually to the clerk of the peace, with a list containing the names of the officers and men of the militia.

DÉROBER une marche, Fr. to steal a march.

DÉROUTE, Fr. The total overthrow of an army, battalion, or of any armed party. See DEFRAT.

DÉROUER l'ennemi, Fr. to disconcert an enemy; to get him into such a precarious situation, that he can form no judgment of the issue of an engagement.

DÉSARCONNER, Fr. to dismount a horseman.

DÉSARMEMENT, Fr. the act of disarming or reducing troops.

DÉSARMER, Fr. to reduce any given number of troops, by taking away their arms, &c.

DÉSARMER une pièce d'artillerie, Fr. to draw the charge out of a piece of artillery; it also signifies to dismount it wholly.

DÉSASSÉGER, Fr. to cause a siege to be raised. (This word is become obsolete; it is not to be found in the Dictionnaire de l'Académie Française; but it is a military expression.)

DÉSAVANTAGE, Fr. disadvantage; a state not prepared for defence. This is said of the infantry when in an open country the enemy oppose a numerous cavalry.

To DESCEND, signifies to leave any position on an eminence for immediate action.

To Descend upon, to invade. When an enemy from surrounding heights suddenly marches against a fortified place, he is said to descend upon it. The term is also applied to troops debarking
barking from their ships for the purpose of invasion.

DESCENDRE la garde, Fr. to come off guard, after being regularly relieved.

DESCENDRE la tranchée, Fr. to quit the trench on being regularly relieved.

DESCENDRE une rivière, Fr. to follow the stream of a river.

DESCENT, (descente, Fr.) hostile invasion of any state or kingdom; the disembarkation of troops on any coast, for the purpose of acting offensively.

DESCENTE de fosse, Fr. a hollow passage which is made by the besiegers, to get under the glacis of a fortress into its fosse.

DESCENTE de fosse souterraine ou couverte, Fr. a hollow passage which may have been effected under ground, or without any opening from above.

DESCENTE de fosse à ciel ouvert, Fr. a passage towards the ditch or fossé of a fortified place, which has not been effected under cover.

DESCENTS into the ditch, (descentes dans le fossé, Fr.) cuts and excavations made by means of saps in the counterscarp beneath the covert way. They are covered with thick boards and hurdles, and a certain quantity of earth is thrown upon the top, in order to obviate the bad effects which might arise from shells, &c.

When the ditch or fossé is full of water, the descent must be made to its edge, after which the ditch must be filled with strong fascines covered with earth. When the ditch is dry, the saps are carried on to the bottom, and traverses are made in order to secure a lodgment, or to render the approaches of the miner more practicable. When the ditch or fossé which is full of water has little or no bank, the descent is simply made over it; care being taken to cover its ensilage or range with blinds and chandeleirs, or to execute it as much out of that line as possible.

DESCENTS, in fortification, are the holes, vaults, and hollow places, made by undermining the ground.

DESLICIER, Fr. this word is expressive of the action of the ancients when throwing stones at the besiegers.

DESEMPEER un camp, Fr. To break up camp; to strike tents for the purpose of marching to some other ground, or in order to meet the enemy.

DESENDROUER, Fr. to take the nail out of a cannon that has been spiked; it also signifies to remove obstructions from any passage that has been incumbered.

DESENROLER, Fr. to give a soldier his discharge, to strike him off the muster-roll.

To DESERT (déséter, Fr.) to go away by stealth after having been regularly enlisted; to abandon any person or cause.

DESERTER, in a military sense, a soldier who, by running away from his regiment, troop, or company, abandons the service.

DESERTERS from the militia may be apprehended by any person in the same manner, that deserters are from the regular army. And every person who shall be discovered in the act of concealing, or assisting a deserter, is to forfeit 5l. Persons apprehending a deserter are entitled to 20s.

Penalty of Desertion. All officers and soldiers, who having received pay, or having been duly enlisted in our service, shall be convicted of having deserted the same, shall suffer death or such other punishment as by a court-martial shall be inflicted.

Any non commissioned officer or soldier, who shall, without leave from his commanding officer, absent himself from his troop or company, or from any detachment with which he shall be commanded, shall, upon being convicted thereof, be punished according to the nature of the offence, at the discretion of a court-martial.

No non-commissioned officer or soldier shall enlist himself in any other regiment, troop, or company, without a regular discharge from the regiment, troop, or company in which he last served, on the penalty of being reputed a deserter and suffering accordingly; and in case any officer shall knowingly receive and entertain such non-commissioned officer or soldier, or shall not, after his being discovered to be a deserter, immediately confine him, and give notice thereof to the corps in which he last served, he, the said officer so offending, shall by a court-martial be cashiered.

Whatsoever officer or soldier shall be
convicted of having advised any other officer or soldier to desert our service, shall suffer such punishment as shall be inflicted upon him by the sentence of a court-martial.

**Justices may commit Deserters.** And whereas several soldiers being duly enlisted, do afterwards desert, and are often found wandering, or otherwise absenting themselves illegally from his majesty's service; it is further enacted, that it shall and may be lawful to and for the constable, headborough, or tythingman of the town and place, where any person, who may be reasonably suspected to be such deserter, shall be found, to apprehend, or cause him to be apprehended, and to cause such person to be brought before any justice of the peace, living in or near such town or place, who hath power to examine such suspected person: and if by his confession, or the testimony of one or more witness or witnesses upon oath, or by the knowledge of such justice of the peace, it shall appear, or be found, that such suspected person is a listed soldier, and should be with the troop or company to which he belongs; such justice of the peace shall forthwith cause him to be conveyed to the gaol of the country or place where he shall be found, or to the house of correction, or other public prison, in such town or place where such deserter shall be apprehended; or to the Savoy, in case such deserter shall be apprehended within the city of London or Westminster, or places adjacent; and transmit an account thereof to the secretary at war for the time being, to the end such person may be proceeded against according to law: and the keeper of such gaol, house of correction, or prison, shall receive the full subsistence of such deserter or deserters, during the time that he or they shall continue in his custody, for the maintenance of the said deserter or deserters; but shall not be intitled to any fee or reward, on account of the imprisonment of such deserter or deserters, any law, usage, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding.

**Reward for taking up Deserters.** And for the better encouragement of any person or persons to secure or apprehend such deserters as aforesaid; be it further enacted by the authority aforesaid, that such justice of the peace shall also issue his warrant in writing to the collector or collectors of the land-tax money of the parish or township where such deserter shall be apprehended, for paying, out of the land tax money arising or to arise in the current year, into the hands of such person who shall apprehend, or cause to be apprehended, any deserter from his majesty's service, the sum of 20s. for every deserter that shall so be apprehended and committed; which sum of 20s. shall be satisfied by such collector to whom such warrant shall be directed, and allowed upon his account.

**Penalty for concealing Deserters, or buying their arms, clothes, &c.** Provided always, that if any person shall harbour, conceal, or assist any deserter from his majesty's service, knowing him to be such, the person so offending shall forfeit, for every such offence, the sum of 5l. or if any person shall knowingly detain, buy, or exchange, or otherwise receive, any arms, clothes, caps, or other furniture belonging to the king, from any soldier or deserter, or any other person, upon any account or pretence whatsoever, or cause the colour of such clothes to be changed; the person so offending shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 5l. and upon conviction by the oath of one or more credible witness or witnesses, before any of his majesty's justices of the peace, the said respective penalties of 5l. and 5l. shall be levied by warrant under the hands of the said justice or justices of the peace, by distress and sale of the goods and chattles of the offender; one moiety of the said first-mentioned penalty of 5l. to be paid to the informer, by whose means such deserter shall be apprehended; and one moiety of the said last-mentioned penalty of 5l. to be paid to the informer; and the residue of the said respective penalties to be paid to the officer to whom any such deserter or soldier did belong: and in case any such offender, who shall be convicted, as aforesaid, of harbouring or assisting any such deserter or deserters, or having knowingly received any arms, clothes, caps, or other furniture belonging to the king, or having caused the colour of such clothes to be changed, contrary
contrary to the intent of this act, shall not have sufficient goods and chattels, whereon distress may be made, to the value of the penalties recovered against him for such offence, or shall not pay such penalties, within 4 days after such conviction; then, and in such case, such justice of the peace shall and may, by warrant under his hand and seal, either commit such offender to the common gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize for the space of three months, or cause such offender to be publicly whipped, at the discretion of such justice.

DESERTEUR. Fr. See Deserted.

DÉSIONNEUR, Fr. dishonor, loss of character.

DESIGN, (dessein, Fr.) in a general sense, implies the plan, order, representation or construction of any kind of military building, chart, map, or drawing, &c. In building, the term ichnography may be used, when by design is only meant the plan of a building, or a flat figure drawn on paper: when some side or face of the building is raised from the ground, we may use the term orthography; and when both front and sides are seen in perspective, we may call it scenography.

DESIGNING, the art of delineating, or drawing the appearance of natural objects, by lines on a plane.

DESIGNS, (desseins, Fr.) premédiated plans, schemes for execution, &c.

DÉSOBEISSANCE, Fr. disobedience of orders. During the war in Italy, (as may be seen in the Histoire de France, vol. 37, by Garnier,) an act of laudable disobedience (if it may be so called) is said to have been committed by a private soldier, whilst an expedition of great moment was taking place under the command of Marshal de Brians.

DÉSOLER, Fr. to rage, to ruin a country by heavy exactions, to destroy it by sword and fire.

DÉSORDRE, Fr. disorder; confusion, such as occurs among troops when they are defeated; the licentious conduct manifested among troops when entering a conquered place. A general loss it always in his power, when his troops enter a conquered town, to prevent their committing any disorder.—Marshal Saxe having taken Prague in 1741 gave, previous to his entering the town, the most positive and strict orders, that not the least disorder should be committed. These orders were so punctually obeyed, that most of the inhabitants did not perceive, till the following day that they had changed their sovereign. The magistrates, through gratitude, went in a body to present to the marshal, a diamond worth 40,000 livres, on a magnificent gold dish: there had been engraved in the setting an inscription relative to the transaction: they likewise caused rich presents, and large bounties to be distributed amongst the French officers and soldiers. When war is carried on in this way, half its calamities are softened down; it secures immortality to the conqueror, at the same time that he acquires the love and the esteem of the conquered. Conquerors of this cast, experience to the very last a pleasing retrospect, which those who only think of filling their pockets, are ever strangers to. The discipline established by Charles XII. was so severe, that even those towns, which were taken by storm, after having been summoned three times, were not plundered without a particular permission proclaimed by the trumpeters of the army; and the pillage was carried on in such good order, that it subsided the instant the second signal was given.

DÉSORDRES, Fr. acts of plunder and depredation.

DÉSEIN topographique, Fr. topographical representation of a thing.

DESTINATION, the place or purpose to which any body of troops is appointed, in order to do or attempt some military service.

DESTINATION d'une batterie, d'une compagnie, d'un régiment, d'un ouvrage, Fr. the particular purpose or object for which a battery, a body of armed men, a regiment, or a work may be erected, posted or stationed, for offensive or defensive measures.

To DETACH, is to send out part of a greater number of men on some particular service, separate from that of the main body.

DETACHED pieces, in fortification, are such out-works as are detached, or at a distance from the body of the place; such as half-moons, ravelins, bastions, &c.
DETACHEMENT, (détachement, Fr.) in military affairs, an uncertain number of men drawn out from several regiments or companies equally, to be marched or employed as the general may think proper, whether on an attack, at a siege, or in parties to scour the country. A detachment of 2000 or 3000 men is a command for a general officer; 800 for a colonel, 500 for a lieutenant-colonel, 200 or 300 for a major, 80 or 100 for a captain, 40 for a lieutenant or ensign, 12 for a serjeant, and 6 for a corporal. Detachments are sometimes made of entire squadrons and battalions. One general rule in all military projects that depend upon us alone, should be to omit nothing that can insure the success of our detachment and design; but in that which depends upon the enemy, to trust something to hazard.

DETAIL of duty, in military affairs, is a roster or table for the regular and exact performance of duty, either in the field, garrison, or in cantonnements. The general detail of duty is the proper care of the majors of brigade, who are guided by the roster of the officers, and by the tables for the men to be occasionally furnished. The adjutant of a regiment keeps the detail of duty for the officers of his regiment, as does the serjeant-major that for the non-commissioned, and the latter that for the privates.

DÉTAIL, Fr. faire le détail d'une armée, d'une compagnie, ou d'un corps de gens de guerre; is to keep a strict eye upon every part of the service, and to issue out instructions or orders, that every individual belonging to a military profession may discharge his trust with accuracy and fidelity. Faire le détail d'une compagnie, likewise means to make up a company's report, &c.

DÉTAIL de fortification, Fr. a private account of the materials and expenses attending a work.

DÉTENDRE, Fr. This word literally means to stretch. The French say, détendre un camp, to strike the tents of a camp.

DÉTENTE, Fr. a trigger.

DÉTERMINER une action ou un mouvement, Fr. to put into motion a project or design which has been previously weighed and concerted; it also means to force the enemy to come to action.

DETONATION, (détonation, Fr.) a sudden and violent inflammation and explosion, such as occurs in the ignition of gunpowder and of nitre.

DÉTRAQUER, Fr. A French expression which is peculiarly applicable to bad horsemanship. It literally signifies, to put out of order; to spoil. A French military writer very properly observes on the subject, that many young riders imagine themselves extremely clever and expert, if they can make their horses exhibit a fine curved neck, &c. by suddenly applying the spurs, and checking on the bit; the consequence of which is, that the poor animal reaches the spot of destination heated and almost gored to death.

DÉTRIPLER les filets, Fr. to take some files out of a battalion, troop, or company, when the men are drawn up three deep.

DÉTROI'T, Fr. any narrow arm of the sea; a canal; a narrow passage, &c.

DÉTROI'T ou Détresse, Fr. the critical state into which an army may be brought by having its line of communication cut off.

DEVANCER une armée, une troupe, Fr. to take an advantageous position in front of an army, or of any other armed body of men, by means of a forced march, &c.

DEVASTATEURS, Fr. A term applied by the French to the Spaniards, on account of their barbarous and inhuman conduct in Mexico and Peru. It now generally signifies soldiers who are not disciplined, and pillage every country they enter.

DEVASTATION, in military history, the act of destroying, laying waste, demolishing or unpeopling towns, &c.

DÉVASTER, Fr. to lay waste.

DÉVASTER un pays, Fr. to plunder and waste a country.

DÉVELOPPER, Fr. to unfold, to unravel; as Se développer sur la tête d'une colonne, to form line on the head of a column.
DEV

DÉVELOPPER une armée, Fr. to draw up an army in regular array.

DEVICE, (devise, Fr.) a motto; the emblems on a shield or standard. The origin of motifs is connected with that of heraldry. The study of motifs will help us to trace back the military expeditions of the remotest antiquity. The standards, the banners, the pennons, the coats of mail, the shields of the ancients, discover historical facts under an unknown cypher, or a motto composed only of a few words. Parables were the motifs of the Hebrews, and hieroglyphics those of the Egyptians. The Greeks, Athenians, Carthaginians, in short, all the European nations had their motifs and emblematical figures; and we may venture to say, that military institutions gave rise to the civil ones.

DEUIL MILITAIRE, Fr. military mourning. The Author of the Dictionnaire Militaire makes the following singular remark respecting military mourning.

With regard to the military mourning which is worn by British officers, it appears, perhaps, singular and not sufficiently dignified in a Frenchman's eye, because the French peasants out of economy adopt the same; it is, however, in my opinion, noble and impressive. Whereas the mourning which our officers observe, is too fantastic and courtier-like, without a sufficient indication of martial sentiment, by which alone it ought to be suggested.

DEVISE, Fr. motto. See DEVICE.

DEVIS d'architecture militaire, & d'architecture civile, Fr. in the first instance the detailed drawing of the fortifications of a town, or the intrenchments of an army; in the latter case, the plan of certain edifices, such as barracks, magazines, arsenals, hospitals, warehouses, &c.

DÉVOIR-MILITAIRE, Fr. a strict and correct observance of military duty.

DEVON. The tinners belonging to that county may be arrayed by the wardens of the stannaries.

DÉVUIDER, in the manage, is applied to a horse that, upon working upon voits, makes his shoulders go too fast for the cropsed to follow easily.

DEY. The chief of the government of Tunis, a vassal to the Grand Turk.

DIABLE, Fr. See Chat.

DIADEEM (Diadème, Fr.) The mark of Royalty worn round the head.

DIAGONAL, reaching from one angle to another; so as to divide a parallelogram into equal parts.

DIAGONAL MOVEMENTS. See ECHELON.

DIAMETER, in both a military and geometrical sense, implies a right line passing through the centre of a circle, and terminated at each side by the circumference thereof. See Circle.

The impossibility of expressing the exact proportion of the diameter of a circle to its circumference, by any received way of notation, and the absolute necessity of having it as near the truth as possible, has put some of the most celebrated men in all ages upon endeavouring to approximate it. The first who attempted it with success, was the celebrated Van Culen, a Dutch-man, who, by the ancient method, though so very laborious, carried it to 36 decimal places: these he ordered to be engraaved on his tomb-stone, thinking he had set bounds to improvements. However, the indefatigable Mr. Abraham Sharp carried it to 75 places in decimals: and since that, the learned Mr. John Machin has carried it to 100 places, which are as follows:

If the diameter of a circle be 1, the circumference will be 3.1415926535, 89 79323846, 2643383279, 5028841971, 69 59937510, 5820974944, 5923078164, 0328690899, 8628034825, 34311706 79, + of the same parts; which is a degree of exactness far surpassing all imagination.

But the ratios generally used in the practice of military mathematics are these following. The diameter of the circle is to its circumference as 113 is to 355 nearly. The square of the diameter is, to the area of the circle, as 482 to 355. The cube of the diameter is, to the solid content of a sphere, as 678 to 355. The cubes of the axes are, to the solid contents of equi-altitude cylinders, as 482 to 355. The solid content of a sphere is, to the circumscribed cylinder as 2 to 3.

How to find the Diameter of shot or shells. For an iron ball, whose diameter is given, supposing a 9-pounder, which is nearly 4 inches, say, the cube root of 2.08 of 9 pounds is, to 4 inches, as
The cube root of the given weight is to the diameter sought. Or, if 4 be divided by 2.08, the cube root of 9, the quotient 1.923 will be the diameter of a 1-pound shot; which being continually multiplied by the cube root of the given weight, gives the diameter required.

Or by logarithms much shorter, thus. If the logarithm of 1.923, which is .283979, be constantly added to the third part of the logarithm of the weight, the sum will be the logarithm of the diameter. Suppose a shot to weigh 24 pounds: add the given logarithm .283979 to the third part of .460070 of the logarithm 1.3802112 of 24, the sum .240494 will be the logarithm of the diameter of a shot weighing 24 pounds, which is 5.5468 inches.

If the weight should be expressed by a fraction, the rule is still the same: for instance, the diameter of a 1½ pound ball or ½, is found by adding the logar-ithm .283970, found above, to .58569714 of the logarithm of ½, the sum .3426764 will be the logarithm of the diameter required, i.e. 2.2013 inches.

As the diameter of the bore or the caliber of the piece, is made ½ part larger than that of the shot, according to the present practice, the following table is computed.

**Diameters of the shots and calibers of English guns.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>lb.</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.1923</td>
<td>2.423</td>
<td>2.775</td>
<td>3.035</td>
<td>3.386</td>
<td>3.498</td>
<td>3.679</td>
<td>3.846</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>Diam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0192</td>
<td>2.541</td>
<td>2.913</td>
<td>3.201</td>
<td>3.568</td>
<td>3.668</td>
<td>3.861</td>
<td>4.083</td>
<td>4.200</td>
<td>Calib.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.220</td>
<td>5.305</td>
<td>5.388</td>
<td>5.490</td>
<td>5.547</td>
<td>5.623</td>
<td>5.697</td>
<td>5.769</td>
<td>5.839</td>
<td>5.908</td>
<td>Diam.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanation.**

The numbers in the first horizontal line are units, and those in the first vertical column tens; the other numbers under the one, and opposite to the others, are the respective diameters of shot and calibers. Thus, to find the diameter of the shot, and the caliber of a 24 pounder, look for the number 2 on the left-hand side, and for 4 at top; then the number 5.547, under 4, and opposite 2, will be the diameter of the shot, in inches and decimals, and the number 58.24, under the first, the caliber of a 24 pounder, &c.
Diameters of leaden bullets from 1 to 29 in the Pound.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.671</td>
<td>1.326</td>
<td>1.158</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>.977</td>
<td>.919</td>
<td>.873</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td>.803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.715</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td>.693</td>
<td>.677</td>
<td>.663</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td>.637</td>
<td>.626</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.615</td>
<td>.605</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.579</td>
<td>.571</td>
<td>.564</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>.550</td>
<td>.544</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>.536</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>.521</td>
<td>.517</td>
<td>.511</td>
<td>.506</td>
<td>.501</td>
<td>.497</td>
<td>.493</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The diameter of musket bores differs about 1-50th part from that of the bullet. The government allows 11 bullets in the pound, for the proof of muskets, and 14 in the pound, or 29 in 3 pounds, for service; 17 for the proof of carbines, and 20 for service; 28 in the pound for proof of pistols, and 34 for service. DIAMETER of powder measures. See Powder Measures.

La DIANE, Fr. The Reveille.

DICTATOR, a magistrate of Rome, elected in times of exigence and public distress, and invested with absolute authority.

DIFFERENCE. The sum paid by an officer in the British service, when he exchanges from half to full-pay. It likewise means the regulation price between an inferior and a superior commission. Officers who retire upon half-pay, and take the difference, subject themselves to many incidental disadvantages, should they wish to return into active service.

DIFFERENCES among officers, of a town, &c. (Differences entre les officiers d'une place, Fr.) disputes, &c. Whenever any differences occur between the staff officers of a town and those of a garrison, in case they do not come under any specific military code, all such differences must be settled by the governor or commandant.

DIGERER un projet, Fr. to weigh well every thing which may conduce to the good success of an enterprise.

DIGGING. See Mining.

DIGLADIATION, a combat with swords.

DIGUE, Fr. See Dyke.

DIGUON, Fr. a staff, at the end of which is suspended a vane or streamer. This term is properly marine.

DIKE or Dyke, a channel to receive water, also a dam or mound, to prevent inundation. Dikes differ from sluices; the former being intended only to oppose the flowing of other water into a river, or to confine the stream by means of strong walls, pieces of timber, or a double row of hurdles; the intervals of which are filled up with earth, stones, or pebbles. When it is found necessary to establish a post upon a dyke, it must be fortified on all sides, since it would otherwise be useless.

DILAPIDATION. Fr. Embezzlement, misapplication of public monies.

DIMACHÆ, in ancient military affairs, were a kind of horsemen, answering to the dragoons of the moderns.

DIMICATION. See Battle.

To DIMINISH or increase the front of a battalion, is to adopt the column of march or manœuvre according to the obstructions and difficulties which it meets in advancing. This is one of the most important movements, and a battalion, which does not perform this operation with the greatest exactness and attention, so as not to lengthen out in the smallest degree, is not fit to move in the column of a considerable corps. See Infantry Regulations, p. 112.

DIRECTEUR Général, Fr. A military post of nominal importance which was originally instituted by Louis XIV. This charge was entrusted to eight lieutenant generals, four to command and superintend the infantry, and four for the cavalry. They possessed, however, little or no authority over the army in general; being subordinate in some degree to the general officer whose corps they might inspect, and to whom they rendered
rendered a correct account of its interior economy. They were likewise assisted by Inspectors General. The four directors were afterwards replaced by the inspectors, from a principle of economy. The permanent ones of that appellation were: Director General of the royal artillery school; Director-General of military hospitals; Director-General of fortification; Director-General of the cavalry; Director-General of stores.

**DIRECTION**, in military mechanics, signifies the line or path of a body in motion, along which it endeavours to force its way, according to the propelling power that is given to it.

**Angle of Direction**, that formed by the lines of direction of two conspiring powers.

**Quantity of Direction**, a term used by military mathematicians for the product of the velocity of the common center of gravity, of a system of bodies, by the sum of their quantities of matter: this is no ways altered by any collisions among the bodies themselves.

**DIRK**, a kind of dagger used by the highlanders in Scotland, which they generally wear stuck in their belts.

**To DISALLOW**, in a military sense, not to admit charges which may be made against the public by officers and agents.

**DISALLOWANCES**, deductions made from military estimates, when the charges against the public do not appear correct.

**To DISARM**. To deprive a soldier of every species of offensive or defensive weapon.

**DISARMED**. Soldiers divested of their arms, either by conquest; or in consequence of some defection.

**DISBANDED**, the soldiers of any regiment, who are in a body dismissed from the conditions of their military service.

**DISBARK.** See **DISEMBARK**.

**DISCHARGE**, in a military sense, is, the dismissing a soldier from the troop or company he belonged to, either at his own request, or when, after long and faithful services he is discharged, and entitled to his majesty's bounty.

This term is also applied to the firing of cannon or muskets; as, a discharge of cannon or small arms.

**DISCIPLINARIAN**, an officer who pays particular regard to the discipline of the soldiers under his command.

**DISCIPLINE**, in a military sense, signifies the instruction and government of soldiers.

**Military Discipline**, by military **Military Constitution**, is meant, the authoritative declared laws for the guidance of all military men, and all military matters; and by discipline is meant, the obedience to, and exercise of those laws. As health is to the natural body, so is a sound military constitution to the military one; and as exercise is to the first, so is discipline to the last. Bravery will perchance gain a battle; but every one knows that by discipline alone the long-disputed prize of a war can be ultimately obtained.

**DISCIPLINE** is the right arm of a general, and **money** is his shield; without those two ingredients, it would be better to be a drum-boy, or a sifer, than the general of an army.

The kingdom of Prussia is an example extant in favour of discipline; for since that state has raised an army, and maintained that army in strict discipline, it has held a very considerable share in the system of Europe; and should it neglect its army, it will sink from the kingdom of Prussia, into the electorate of Brandenburgh.

**Marine Discipline**, is the training up soldiers for sea-service, in such exercises and various positions as the musquet and body may require; teaching them likewise every manoeuvre that can be performed on board ships of war at sea, &c.

**Discipline militaire**, Fr. See **Military Discipline**.

**DISCOBOLES**, Men, who by profession contended for the prize of the **discus** at the Grecian games. The range of the **discus** thrown from a vigorous arm, was considered as a measure which served to name a certain distance, the same as we say, within musket-shot, or cannon shot.

**DISCORD**, (**discord**, Fr.) according to heathen mythology, an ill-tempered goddess whom Jupiter turned out of heaven, on account of her continually setting the gods at variance with one another. She was represented as having serpents instead of hair, holding
ing a lighted torch in one hand, and a
make and dart in the other; her com-
plection was olive colour, her looks wild,
her mouth foaming with rage, and her
hands stained with gore. Ever since
she was driven from the heavens, she
has resided on earth, and is chiefly vi-
able in courts and cabinet councils. She
is continually travelling from the one
to the other, in order to excite all so-
vereigns to wage war against one an-
other; and in the course of her excur-
sions, she often disturbs the peace of
private individuals. This description
is figurative, and ought to convince
young military men, that the slightest
differences between the members of a
corps, may become epidemical, and ruin
the whole corps. Discord among troops
in a garrison town, may be attended
with fatal consequences; for the garri-
sion are interested in obtaining the es-
teem and attachment of the inhabi-
tants, whose assistance they may chance
to be in great need of, should a long
siege take place.

DISCOVERER, a scout, one who
is set to descry the enemy.

DISCRETION, Fr. discretion. Se
rendre à discrétion, to surrender at
discretion, implies to throw one self upon
the mercy of a victorious enemy. The
French likewise say, les soldats vivent à
discrétion dans un pays; which in fa-
miliar English signifies, soldiers live
not-free in a country.

Discretion, (discrétion, Fr.) under
the term are comprehended circumspe-
cption, prudence, wisdom and activi-
ty; qualities which essentially con-
tribute to the ultimate success of an
undertaking.

DISCUS, a quoit, made of stone,
lead, or some other metal, one foot
long, and eight inches wide. It was
used among the Greeks and Romans
at their public games and festivals. He
who threw it highest, or to the greatest
distance, carried the prize. Discus was
also the name of a round shield which
was consecrated to the memory of some
hero, and was suspended in a temple.
There was one to be seen at the Cabin-
et des Antiques in Paris, which had
been found in the Rhone.

DISEMBODIED. See DISEMB-

To DISEMBODY. To disembark.

DISEMBARK, to land from on
board any vessel or craft, used to con-
vey troops on the sea.

To DISEMBARK, (débarquer, Fr.)
to land troops at any given spot upon
the coast, &c.

DISEMBARKATION, (débarque-
ment, Fr.) the disembarking or land-
ing troops.

To DISENGAGE, to clear a co-

column or line, which may have lost its
proper front by the overlapping of any
particular division, company, or section
when ordered to form up. To do this,
ground must be taken to the right or left.
It is, however, a dangerous operation
when the army or battalion gets into a
line of fire. In that case the files that
overlap must remain in the rear, and fill
up the first openings.

To DISENGAGE, is also to extricate
yourself and the men you command
from a critical situation. A battalion,
for instance, which may have advanced
too far during an action, and got be-
tween two fires, may, by an able ma-
neuvre, disengage itself.

To DISENGAGE the wings of a bat-
talion. This is necessary when the bat-
talion countermarches from its center,
and on its center by files. The battalion
having received the word “by wings,
inward face,” is next ordered “by wings, three side steps to the right,
march,” by which the wings are disen-
gaged from each other. In counter-
marching, &c. the leading files must
uniformly disengage themselves.

To DISENGAGE, in fencing, to quit
that side of your adversary’s blade, on
which you are opposed by his guard, in
order to effect a cut or thrust where an
opportunity may present.

DISESUB, Fr. scarcity. The want
of some article of the first necessity; i.
.e. some article of life.

DISGARNISH, (dégarnir, Fr.) to
take guns from a fortress.

DISHONOUR, (deshonneur), Fr.
dishonour; loss of character. The sur-
name of sans reproche was formerly
held in high consideration by military
men; many hardships had they to en-
dure and conditions to fulfil, to deserve
the appellation, and the distinctions at-
tached to it. In the present time it is
thought, and number of military men
are persuaded, that the words sans ré-
proch,
DIS, DIS

proche, only signify that a man has fought with courage and intrepidity; this may be very well altogether, but those military men are grossly mistaken. Whatever is done contrary to the laws of honour, though not in battle, or at a siege, must, nevertheless, be called dishonour.

DISLODGE, to drive an enemy from their post or station.

DISMANTLE, to strip a town or fortress of its outworks.

To Dismantle a gun. To render it unfit for use.

To DISMISS, to discard.

DISMISSED. An officer in the British service may be dismissed generally or specifically. When an officer is dismissed generally, it is signified to him, that his Majesty has not any further occasion for his services. When an officer is dismissed specifically, it is expressly notified, that he is rendered incapable of ever serving again. Sometimes, indeed, this species of dismissal is attended with public marks of extreme disgrace and degradation. In the Austrian service a colonel has been dismissed at the head of his regiment, and has had his sword broken before him, &c. During the late war the colonel of a militia regiment has not only been rendered incapable of ever serving again, but has been expelled the House of Commons for military misconduct. The charges against him, together with the circumstantial proofs of his guilt, and the King's approbation of the sentence were read in the circle of every regiment throughout Great Britain, in 1795, and nothing but a plea of severe indisposition saved the culprit from having the minutes publicly communicated to him at the Horse Guards.

DISMOUNTING, in a military sense, is the act of unhorsing. Thus, to dismount the cavalry, &c. is to make them alight.

To Dismount cannon, is to break their carriages, wheels, axle-trees, or any thing else, so as to render them unfit for service. It also implies dismounting by the gun, &c.

DISOBEDIENCE of orders. Any infraction, by neglect or wilful omission, of general or regimental orders. It is punishable by the 5th art. of the 2d Sect. of the Articles of War.

DISPART, in gunnery, is to set a mark on the muzzle-ring, so that it may be of an equal height with the base-ring: hence a line drawn between them, will be parallel to the axis of the concave cylinder, for the gunner to take aim by it, to hit the mark he is to fire at; for the bore and this imaginary line being parallel, the aim so taken must be true. This exactness cannot be made use of in an engagement, and but very seldom at a siege; for in those cases practice and the eye must be the only guides.

DISPART-frontlet. See FRONTLET.

To DISPEARSE. In a military sense, may be variously understood. In an active one, it signifies to disperse any body of men, armed or unarmed, who may have assembled in an illegal or hostile manner. The cavalry are generally employed on these occasions.

To Disperse, likewise means to break suddenly from any particular order, in line or column, and to repair to some rallying point. Hence to sound the disperse, is to give notice that the battalion or battalions are to retreat from their actual position, in a loose and desultory manner, and to reassemble according to the natural line of formation, taking the colours as their central points to dress by.

DISPLACED, officers in the British service are sometimes displaced from a particular regiment in consequence of misconduct proved upon the minutes of a general court-martial; but they are at liberty to serve in any other corps. The power of displacing an officer is vested in the King only.

To DISPLAY, in a military sense, is to extend the front of a column, and thereby bring it into line. See DEPLOY.

DISPOSE, to dispose cannon, is to place it in such a manner, that its discharge may do the greatest mischief. For instance, to dispose cannon along the front of the line.

DISPOSITION, in a general sense, is the just placing an army or body of men upon the most advantageous ground, and in the strongest situation for a vigorous attack or defence.

DISPOSITION de guerre, Fr. war-like arrangement, or disposition. Under this head may be considered the mode of establishing, combining, conducting and
and finally terminating a war, so as to produce success and victory.

Wisdom and discretion in council point out the form necessary for the establishment of a warlike enterprise, or disposition, afford the means of bringing it to a conclusion, and assimilate all the various parts so as to unite the whole.

The following maxims are in the memoirs of general Montecuculi.

Deliberate leisurely, execute promptly.

Let the safety of your army be your first object.

Leaves something to chance.

Take advantage of circumstances.

Use all the means in your power to secure a good reputation.

The disposition or arrangement of a warlike enterprise may be universal, or particular.

An universal disposition or arrangement of war implies every thing which relates to that system upon an extensive scale; such as the combination of many parts for the ultimate benefit of the whole, &c.

A particular disposition or arrangement of war signifies the detail of minute objects, and the appropriation of various parts, one with another, for the purpose of effecting a general combination. This disposition, (without which the other must prove abortive,) consists in an observance of the strictest discipline by every individual that belongs to a troop or company. To this end, general officers should be scrupulously exact in attending to the inspection of particular corps; specific instructions for regimental economy and discipline should be given, and the strictest regard be paid to the execution of orders.

Dispositions, Fr. the preparations which a good and intelligent general makes, to enable him to attack an enemy, or to defend himself against his attack. We make use of the same term, in military dispositions.

Faire des Dispositions, Fr. to make the necessary arrangements for a battle; or to adopt such measures, that every thing may be in a good state to meet the enemy.

To DISPUTE the ground, (disputer le terrain, Fr.) to fight foot to foot.

Dissipé une armée, Fr. to attack an army in such a manner, that the several battalions are obliged to disperse, and retreat by different routes.

DISTANCE, in military formation, signifies the relative space which is left between men standing under arms in rank, or the intervals which appear between those ranks, &c.

Distance of files. Every soldier when in his true position under arms, shouldered and in rank, must just feel with his elbow the touch of his neighbour with whom he dresses; nor in any situation of movement in front, must he ever relinquish such touch, which becomes in action the principal direction for the preservation of his order, and each file as connected with its two neighbouring ones, must consider itself a complete body, so arranged for the purpose of attack, or effectual defence. Close files must invariably constitute the formation of all corps that go into action. The peculiar exercise of the light infantry is the only exception. See Infantry Regulations, p. 75.

Distance of ranks, open distances of ranks are two paces asunder; when close they are one pace; when the body is halted and to fire, they are still closer locked up. Close ranks, order or distance is the constant and habitual order at which troops are at all times formed and move; open ranks, order or distance is only an occasional exception, made in the situation of parade, or in light infantry manoeuvres.

Distance of files and ranks, relate to the trained soldier, but in the course of his tuition he must be much exercised at open files and ranks, and acquire thereby independence and the command of his limbs and body.

Distance of the bastions, in fortification, is the side of the exterior polygon. See Fortification.

Distribution, (distribution, Fr.) in a military sense, generally applies to any division, or allotment, which is made for the purposes of warfare. Thus an army may be distributed about a country. In a more confined sense it means the minute arrangements that are made for the interior economy of corps; as distribution of pay or subsistence, distribution of allowances, &c.

DISTRICT, in a military sense, one of
of those parts into which a country is divided, for the conveniences of command, and to secure a ready co-operation between distant bodies of armed men. During the present war, Great Britain and Ireland have been divided into several districts; each district being under the immediate superintendence of general officers.

DITCH. See Fortification, Moat.

To drain a Ditch, is to make the water run off into lower ground, by means of small trenches cut for this purpose.

DIVAN, a particular private council of war among the Turks, held by the caplyculy infantry, in the palace of the Sznizteragazy, in order to discuss the military operations of the corps, &c. There is another Divan held by the supreme council of the Grand Signor, at which all the generals attend.

DIVERSION, in military history, is when an enemy is attacked in one place where he is weak and unprovided, in order to draw off his forces from making an irruption somewhere else; or where an enemy is strong, and by an able manoeuvre he is obliged to detach part of his forces to resist any feint or menacing attempt of his opponent. To derive advantage from a diversion, taken in an extended acceptation of the term, it is necessary, that one state should have greater resources than another; for it would be absurd to attack the territories of another before you had secured your own.

It is likewise requisite, that the country you attack by stratagem or diversion, should be easy of access, and the invasion you make must be prompt, vigorous and unexpected, directed against a weak and vulnerable quarter. A little good fortune is however essential to render a diversion perfectly successful, as all the ways and means by which it ought to be made, cannot be reduced to rule.

The most memorable instance of a diversion well executed, which we meet with in history, was performed by Scipio in Africa, whilst Hannibal carried the war into Italy. In 1659, a diversion no less remarkable, was practised by the imperial and allied armies against the Swedes.
DODECAGON, in geometry, is a regular polygon, consisting of 12 equal sides and angles, capable of being regularly fortissed with the same number of bastions.

DODECAHEDRON, is one of the platonic bodies, or five regular solids, and is contained under 12 equal and regular pentagons.

The solidity of a dodecahedron is found by multiplying the area of one of the pentagonal faces of it by 12; and this latter product by 1-3d of the distance of the face from the center of the dodecahedron, which is the same as the centre of the circumscribing sphere.

The side of a dodecahedron inscribed in a sphere, is the greater part of the side of a cube inscribed in that sphere, cut into extreme and mean proportion.

If the diameter of the sphere be 10000, the side of a dodecahedron, inscribed in it will be .35682 nearly.

All dodecahedrons are similar, and are to one another as the cubes of the sides; and their surfaces are also similar, and therefore they are as the squares of their sides; whence as .509282 is to 10.51462, so is the square of the side of any dodecahedron to the superficies thereof; and as .3637 is to 2.78516, so is the cube of the side of any dodecahedron to the solidity of it.

DOG-nails. See NAILS.

DOLMAN, a robe of the Thessonica cloth, which the grand signor makes a present of to the janizaries on the first day of their ramazan, or lent.

DOLON, a long hollow stick, containing a pointed iron, which is thrown at discretion.

DOLPHINS. See CANNON.

DOMMAGE, Fr. in a general acceptance of the term signified in the old French service, the compensation which every captain of a troop or company was obliged to make in consequence of any damage that their men might have done in a town, or on a march. If any disagreement occurred between the officers and inhabitants, with respect to the indemnification, a statement of losses sustained was sworn to by the latter, before the mayor or magistrates of the place, who determined the same. But if the officers should refuse to abide by their decision, a remonstrance was drawn up and transmitted to the secretary at war, with a copy of the same to the intendant of the province. Officers have frequently been displaced or degraded on this account. Hence the term damage is supposed to have been derived from the Latin words damnnum, factura, and signifies the loss or privation of a step.

DONDAINE, Fr. a machine which was used by the ancients to cast round stones and pebbles on their enemies.

DONJON, Fr. a turret; a dungeon.

DONNER, Fr. to charge an enemy, to fire upon him.

DONNER, Fr. is to charge the enemy as soon as the signal for battle is given. Thus it is said, les troupes donnèrent tête baissée: the troops rushed headlong, and broke the enemy's line.

DONNER de l'ingéniosité à l'enemi, Fr. to march in various directions, and by other manoeuvres to disconcert an enemy.

DONS MILITAIRES, Fr. military rewards.

DORYPHORI, the body guards of the Roman emperors; they were armed with a pike, and were forced to take a particular oath; they were held in high consideration, and were promoted to the first military ranks.

DOSSER, in military matters, is a sort of basket carried on the shoulders of men, used in carrying the earth from one part of a fortification to another, where it is wanted.

DOUBLEMENT, Fr. the augmentation of the rank and file of a battalion.

DOUBLER un batalion, Fr. to extend the front of a battalion, so that it covers twice the ground it did in front; or to reduce it in such a manner that it does the same in depth.

DOUBLING, in the military art, is the placing two or more ranks or files into one.

DOUBLE your ranks, is for the 2d, 4th and 6th ranks (when so drawn up) to march into the 1st, 3d, and 5th; so that of 6 ranks they are made but 3; which is not so when they double by half-files, because then 3 ranks stand together, and the 3 other come up to double them; that is the 1st, 2d, and 3d, are doubled by the 4th, 5th and 6th, or the contrary.

DOUBLE your files, is for every other file
file to march into that which is next to it, on the right or left, as the word of command directs; and then the 6 ranks are doubled into 12, the men standing 12 deep; and the distance between the files is double what it was before. By this method, 3 files may be doubled into 6, &c.

To Double round, in military movements, is to march by an inversion of a second line, on the extremity of a first line, thereby to outflank an enemy.

Double tenaille. See Tenaille.

DOUILLE, Fr. a small iron socket which is at the heel of the bayonet, and receives the extreme end of the musquet, so as to be firmly united together.

DOUILLE, likewise signifies the cavity which belongs to the round piece of iron that is fixed to the end of the ramrod, by means of two nails through two small holes, called yeur or eyes, to which the worm is attached.

DRABANTS, a company of two hundred select men, of which Charles IX, of Sweden, was captain. They were a fine body of men, and of tried courage. Charles XII. with one hundred and fifty Drabants, has been known to vanquish one thousand Russians.

DRAGON et DRAGON VOLANT, Fr. some old pieces of artillery were anciently so called. The Dragon was a 40-pounder; the Dragon Volant a 32. But neither the name nor the size of the caliber of either piece is now in use.

DRAGONNADE, Fr. a term given by the Calvinists to the barbarous usage which was exercised against them in France in 1684.

DRAGONNE, Fr. a sword-knot, at the extremity of which hangs a tassel. The sword-knot was originally worn by the Germans, and is (with them) the distinction of an officer when in plain clothes; no other person being permitted to wear a gold or silver one. In Austria the sword-knot is gold lace, edged with a black stripe, in commemoration of the loss of Jerusalem; the British sword knot is made of crimson and gold.

DRAGONNER, Fr. According to the French acceptation of the term, is to attack any person in a rude and violent manner; to take any thing by force; to adopt prompt and vigorous measures; and to bring those people to reason by hard blows, who could not be persuaded by fair words.

DRAGOONS, in military affairs, are a kind of horsemen, or cavalry, who serve both on horseback and foot; being always ready on every emergency, as being able to keep pace with the horse, and to do infantry duty. In battle, or on attacks, they generally fight sword in hand after the first fire. In the field they encamp on the right and left of the lines. They are divided into brigades, regiments, and squadrons. Their martial music consists of drums and trumpets. The first regiment of dragoons in England was raised in 1681, and called the royal regiment of dragoons of North Britain. This name is derived from the Latin word Draconarii, used among the Romans.

To DRAGOON, is to persecute by abandoning a place to the rage of the soldiery.

DRAG-ropes. See Ropes.

DRAIN, in the military art, is a trench made to draw water out of a ditch, which is afterwards filled with hurdles and earth, or with fascines, or bundles of rushes and planks, to facilitate the passage over the mud. See Trench.

DRAKE, a small piece of artillery.

DRAPEAU, Fr. regimental colours. Battre les DRAPEAUX, Fr. See Battre.

DRAUGHT, a plan or delineation of any place, a body of troops selected from others.

To DRAUGHT, to draw forces from one brigade, &c. to complete another; to select a proportion from brigades, regiments, or companies for any particular service.

DRAUGHT-hooks, in a gun-carriage, are fixed to the transom-bolts on the checks of artillery carriages, near the trunnion holes and trails: they are used to draw the guns backwards and forwards by men with drag-ropes fixed to those hooks.

DRAUGHTED, the soldiers of any regiment being allotted to complete other regiments are said to be draughted.

DRAUGHTSMEN, a body of men educated at the tower, to assist the engineers in drawing plans, fortifications, and surveying.

To DRAW, to delineate or make a sketch.
DRAW RAMROD, a word of command used in the drill exercise, on which the soldier draws his ramrod half from the pipes, and seizing it back-handed by the middle, waits for the signal for the next motion, when he turns it round, and with an extended arm, places the butt of the rod about one inch in the muzzle of the firelock; in which position he waits for the command rain down cartridge.

DRAW-SWORDS, a word of command in the sword exercise of the cavalry.

The drawing of swords is performed in 3 motions. 1st. Bring the right hand smartly across the body to the sword knot, which being placed on the wrist, and secured by giving the hand a couple of turns inwards, seize the hilt of the sword. 2d. Draw the sword with an extended arm; sink the hand till the hilt of the sword is immediately under the chin, the blade of the sword perpendicular, and the back of the hand outwards. 3d. Bring down the hilt till in a line with the bridle hand, the blade perpendicular, the edge turned towards the horse's left ear.

Officers of infantry, when the men are under arms, draw their swords without waiting for any word of command.

To DRAW off, to retire; also to abstract or take away; as to draw off your forces.

To DRAW on, to advance; also to occasion: as to draw an enemy's fire.

To DRAW over, to persuade to revolt; to entice from a party.

To DRAW out, to call the soldiers forth in array for action.

To DRAW up, to form in battle array.

DRAW-bridge. See BRIDGE.

DRAWING, in a military sense, is the art of representing the appearances of all kinds of military objects by imitation, or copying, both with and without the assistance of mathematical rules.

DRESS-MILITARY. The clothing of the army is generally called regimentals, every part of which should facilitate, and not hinder, the various motions of the manual exercise. A soldier, without regard to fashion or taste (to use the words of a modern author) should be dressed in the most comfortable and least embarrassing manner possible; and the keeping him warm, and leaving him the entire use of his limbs, are objects always to be had in view.

To Dress, in a military sense, is to keep the body in such a relative position, as to contribute towards, and make a part of, an exact continuity of line, upon whatever front, or in whatever shape, the battalion may be formed. Soldiers dress by one another in ranks, and the body collectively dresses by some given object.

DRESSING of a battalion after the halt, is to bring all its relative parts in a line with the point, or object, towards which it was directed to move. Whatever correction is necessary, must be made by advancing or retiring the flanks, and not by moving the center; which, having been the guide in the march, has properly stopped at the point where it has arrived.

DRESSING of a battalion when it is to retire, is to have some intelligent officer placed thirty paces in the rear, so as to stand perpendicular to the front directing serjeant, by whom the direction of the march is to be ascertained, as the officer will, of course, be in the line, or nearly so, of the directing serjeants. See Infantry Instructions, p. 229.

DRESSERS, in military dispositions, are those men, who take up direct, or relative, points, by which a corps is enabled to preserve a regular continuity of front, and to exhibit a straight alignment. In every operation of this sort the dressers must be particularly alert, especially when a general line is to be formed to give battle to the enemy. Under this circumstance every thing will depend upon the activity, skill and aptitude of eye in the two center dressers of each battalion. No line, indeed, can be said to be in a proper situation to meet, or march up to the enemy, whilst there is the least interval from center to flanks. Solid, compact and straight lines in forward movements are the nerves and sinews of immediate conflict; whereas unconnected movements produce confusion, are naturally weak, and always tend to give a superiority to the enemy.

DRESSER, Fr. See to Dress.

DRESSER une batterie, Fr. to dispose pieces of artillery in a battery for the purpose of acting against an enemy.

DRINKING to excess in the army is at all times highly criminal, but upon service
service it ought never to be overlooked; and the consequence will be a trial by a court-martial. It has been productive of almost innumerable mischief, and is a most detestable and horrid practice. See Drunkenness.

To DRILL, to teach young recruits the first principles of military movements and positions, &c.

To be sent to Drill, to be placed under the command of the drill officer, or non-commissioned officer, and made to join the recruits in performing the manual and platoon exercise, &c. This is sometimes ordered as a punishment to those who are perfect in their exercise, when a battalion, company, or individual has done something to merit exposure.

DRILL, Fr. signified formerly a soldier; from thence it is that an old soldier who knows his duty is called a bon-drille.

DRIVERS, pieces of bone or wood made in the shape of a musket-flint are so called.

DRIVERS of baggage or artillery, men who drive the baggage, artillery, and stores, having no other duty in the army.

DROITE, Fr. the right.

Droite d'une rivière, Fr. that side of a river which lies upon your right when you take a front view of its source.

DRUM, is a martial musical instrument in the form of a cylinder, hollow within, and covered at the two ends with vellum, which is stretched or slackened at pleasure, by means of small cords and sliding leathers. This instrument is used both by foot and dragoons: which is done in several manners, either to give notice to the troops of what they are to do, or to demand liberty to make some proposal to an enemy. Every troop of dragoons, and every company of foot or artillery, has two or more drums, according to the effective strength of the party. The drum was first invented by Bacchus, who, as Polyenus reports, fighting against the Indians, gave the signal of battle with cymbals and drums; and the Saracens, who invaded Christendom, introduced the drum into the European armies. The various beats are as follow, viz...

The general, is to give notice to the troops that they are to march.

The assembly, to order the troops to The troop, repair to the place of rendezvous, or to their colours.

The march, to command them to move, always with the left foot first.

Tai-too, or tap-too, to order all to retire to their quarters.

The reveille, always beats at break of day, and is to warn the soldiers to rise, and the sentinels to forbear challenging, and to give leave to come out of quarters.

To arms, for soldiers who are dispersed, to repair to them.

The retreat, a signal to draw off from the enemy. It likewise means a beat in both camp and garrison a little before sun-set, at which time the gates are shut, and the soldiers repair to their barracks.

The alarm, is to give notice of sudden danger, that all may be in readiness for immediate duty.

The parley, is a signal to demand The chamade, some conference with the enemy.

DRUM, or Drummer, the person who beats the drum.

Kettle-Drums are two sorts of large basons of copper or brass, rounded at the bottom, and covered with vellum or goat-skin, which is kept fast by a circle of iron, and several holes, fastened to the body of the drum, and a like number of screws to stretch it at pleasure. They are used among the horse. The kettle-drum belonging to the royal regiment of artillery, is mounted on a most superb and pompous wagon, richly gilt and ornamented, and drawn by 4 white horses elegantly caparisoned, with a seat for the drum-major-general.

Drum-major, is always that person in the regiment, who beats the best drum, has the command over the other drums, and teaches them their duty. Every regiment has a drum-major.

Drum-sticks, the sticks with which the drummer beats his drum.

DRUNGARIUS. A Roman captain who had the command of one thousand men.

DRUNGE, a body of Roman troops composed of from 1000 to 4000 men.

DRUNGUS,
DUE

DRUNGUS, a flying Roman camp, which was composed of a particular body of men that kept very close to one another when in battle.

DRUNKENNESS. According to Dr. Johnson, intoxication with strong liquor.

The articles of war say respecting this vice. Whatsoever commissioned officer shall be found drunk on his guard, party, or other duty, under arms, shall be cashiered for it; any non-commissioned officer or soldier so offending, shall suffer such corporal punishment as shall be inflicted by the sentence of a court-martial. Sect. xiv. Art. v.

DUAL, a weapon used by the inhabitants of New Holland.—See Grant’s Voyage of discovery.

DUC de la Nati-m, Fr. Under the second race of the French kings, the armies were headed by a duke, who was called Duc de la Nation, as long as he retained the command. Thus it happened that Robert le Fort became Duke of the French.

DUCHIS-BASCY. The captain of the Turkish founders, who is to provide all necessary materials.

DUEL, is a single combat, at a time and place appointed, in consequence of a cartel or challenge. Duelling was anciently authorised; but the motive of the duellists was the good of their country, when one, or a small number of combatants was chosen to save the blood of a whole army, and decide, by victory or death, the quarrels of kings or nations. Thus it was with Goliath and David, the Horatii and Curatii, and several others.

Duelling was so general a method of determining differences among the nobles, that even ecclesiastics were not excused; only, to prevent their being stained with blood, they procured champions to fight for them. None were excepted from combat, but sick people, cripples, and such as were under twenty-one years of age, or above sixty. Just and tournaments, doubtless, rendered duels more frequent.

In the seventeenth century duelling was much discountenanced, as will appear by the following extract from the History of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, surnamed the Great.

“Duels were not extremely fashionable in those days; we hardly find half a dozen in the space of thirty years continued war; every hour affording better proofs for valour, than such irrational appeals to public opinion. Nor were superior commanders ill thought of by their adherents and followers, in case they refused to refer themselves to such sort of decisions. Cratz, in the transports of resentment, challenged Walstein when he was generalissimo and absolute; yet nothing resulted from the provocation; it was passed by with neglect. John de Wert killed Merode, but the affair was purely a rencontre. Young Pappenheim, it is true, lost his life in a real duel, but that happened merely because he had eluded the vigilance of his general, who had locked the city-gates and planted spies to watch the combatants. Aldringen never forgave Sirot for drawing his sword in his presence, though he himself set the example, and insisted upon making his life the forfeiture for the offence. Greater cautions were still taken in the Swedish service: Count de Sonches challenged General Stalhans, but first resigned his commission. Duels before this time had been severely prohibited in France, and the French King declared, with an oath, that he would reward such military persons as had spirit enough to refuse a challenge. By Gustavus’s laws all private quarrels were decided by the officers of the regiment, and all challenges referred to a court-martial: and if an inferior officer allowed the common soldiers to engage hand to hand, he was to be cashiered ipso facto, and serve as a private man, being answerable also for the mischiefs that should be committed in such engagements. The best and most remarkable swordsman in the course of these wars was the Count de Forgatz, yet we find nothing concerning him in the public field of action. As to the custom of seconds, I think it appeared as early as the year 1570.”—See Harte’s History of Gustavus Adolphus, page 45, in the Essay on the Military State, &c. &c.

No officer or soldier shall pretend to send a challenge to any other officer or soldier, to fight a duel, if a commissioned officer, on pain of being cashiered; if a non-commissioned officer, or
DUM

or soldier, of suffering corporal punishment, at the discretion of a court-martial. Art. of war.

For a very singular deviation from this article, as far as relates to officers, see the first volume of the Regimental Companion, 5th edition.

Duellist, (duelliste, Fr.) a man who makes it his profession to fight and sometimes to insult other persons. Duelling is not the true test of valor; for it will happen, that a man may individually fight well, although he be a cheat at play, and an arrant coward in the hour of battle.

Dukigibachi, the second officer of the Turkish artillery.

Dulegde, a peg of wood which joins the ends of the felloes, forming the circle of the wheel to a gun carriage; and the joint is strengthened on the outside of the wheel by a strong plate of iron, called the duledge plate.

Dumb-bells, weights which are used in drilling the soldier, who holds one in each hand, which he swings backwards and forwards, to open his chest, increase muscular strength, throw back his shoulders, and accustom him to that freedom of action in the arms, and to that erect position of body which are so essentially necessary to a soldier. The following method of exercising recruits with the dumb-bells, is extracted from a work entitled Military Instruction.

The dumb-bells being placed one on each side of the recruit, and himself in an erect, steady posture—on the word:

Raise bells—he will take one in each hand, and by a gentle motion, raise them as high as his arm will suffer him above his head; then gradually sinking them with stretched arm, as much behind him as possible, he will form a circle with them, making the circle complete, by causing the backs of his hands to meet behind his body; this will be repeated according to his strength, 5 or 6 times.

Extend bells. —The bells being raised to the shoulder, they will be forced forwards, keeping the same height, then brought back in the same manner; this

DUT

will throw the chest forward, and force back the neck and shoulders, this must be frequently repeated.

Swing bells.—The top part of the bells to be made meet together in front, the height of the breast; then forced backwards with an extended arm, and to be made to touch behind; in doing this, the palm of the hands must be uppermost, and the elbows well down: this circle must be repeated 14 or 15 times: Time, the circle performed in 2 seconds.

Ground bells.—The recruit will let fall the bells by his sides, and remain steady and firm.

Dunes, Fr. sand hills, commonly called downs. As les dunes sur la côte de Flandres: the downs, or sand-hills along the coast of Flanders.

Dungeon, in fortification, is Donjon, a commonly a large tower or redoubt of a fortress, whither the garrison may retreat, in case of necessity, and capitulate with greater advantage. Also a place in which prisoners were kept.

Duty, in a military sense, is the exercise of those functions that belong to a soldier: yet with this nice distinction, that duty is counted the mounting guard, &c. where no enemy is directly to be engaged; for when any body of men marches to meet the enemy, this is strictly called going upon service.

On all duties, whether with or without arms, piquets, or courts-martial, the tour of duty begins with the eldest downwards. An officer who is upon duty cannot be ordered for any other before that duty is finished, except he be on the inlying piquet, as then he shall be relieved, and go on the duty ordered.

Military Duties may be divided into two general classes, under the heads of Brigade and Regimental duties.

Brigade duties, are those which one regiment does in common with another, collectively or by detachments; and of which the brigade-major keeps a regular roster.

Regimental duties, are those which the several companies of a regiment perform among themselves, and of which the adjutant keeps a regular roster.

Duties of honor are, 1. the king's guard; 2. those of the royal family; 3. the
3. the captain-general's, or field-marshall's, commanding the army; 4. detachments of the army, or out-posts; 5. general officers' guards; 6. the ordinary guards in camp or garrison; 7. the piquets; 8. general courts-martial, and duties without arms or fatigue.

The following general regulations are to be observed, respecting duties in general.

When field or other commissioned officers, are given out at head-quarters, for one duty, they cannot be taken off to be put on any other duty.

No officer is allowed to exchange his duty with another, after he has been put in orders for it, without leave of the commanding officer of his regiment.

Guards, or detachments, which have not marched off from the parade, are not to be reckoned as for a duty done; but, if they should have marched from the parade, it stands for a duty done, though they should be dismissed immediately.

If any officer's tour of duty for the piquet, general court-martial, or duty of fatigue, happen when he is on duty, he shall not make good such duty when he comes off.

No regiment can demand a tour of duty, unless it has marched off the place of parade, and beyond the main guard.

General courts-martial that have assembled, and the members sworn in shall be reckoned for a duty, though they should be dismissed without trying any person.

Whenever the piquets are ordered to march to any parade, it is not to be accounted a duty, unless they march off that parade.

All commands in the regular forces, fall to the eldest officers in the same circumstances, whether of cavalry or infantry, entire, or in parties. In case two commissions, of the same date, interfere, a retrospect is to be had to former commissions.

Officers, on all duties under arms, are to have their swords drawn, without waiting for any word of command for that purpose.

**DYKE.** See Dike.

**DYNASTY, (Dynastie, Fr.)** This word is frequently found in the History of the Monarchies and Empires of the East; it signifies a series of princes who have reigned successively. When a new family succeeds to the throne, it is a new dynasty that begins. The house of Nassau Orange began a new dynasty of the Kings of England in 1688; and Napoleon Bonaparte bids fair to lay the foundation of a new dynasty in France.

**EAGLE.** Black-Eagle, an order of military knighthood in Prussia, instituted by the elector of Brandenburg, in 1701, on his being crowned king of Prussia. The knights of this order wear an orange-coloured ribbon, from which is suspended a black eagle.

White-Eagle, is a like order in Poland, instituted in 1325, by Uladislaus V. on occasion of the marriage of his son Casimir to the daughter of the great duke of Lithuania. The knights of this order wear a chain of gold, to which a silver eagle, crowned, is suspended.

Eagle. The standard of the ancient Romans. In a general sense, it formerly meant the standard of the Roman armies; in a more limited acceptation the sign or flag of the several legions.

At present it is the standard of the German empire.

The difference between the Roman and the Imperial eagle consists in this, that the first were eagles of gold or silver, fixed at the end of a pike, having their wings extended, and holding the lightning in their-claws; the second are eagles painted upon the colours and standards of the emperors. The eagle likewise signifies, in a figurative sense, the German empire.

**EARL-MARSHAL.** An officer who has the care and direction of military solemnities. The dukes of Norfolk are by
by hereditary right, carls-marshal of England.

EARTH-bags. See BAGS.

EASE, in a military sense, signifies a prescribed relaxation of the frame, from the erect and firm position which every well dressed soldier should observe. He is, on no account to lounge, or in his common gait so far to give way to an idle fluctuation of his limbs, as to feel himself constrained when he returns to duty. A habit of this sort will gradually gain upon recruits, if they are not corrected during the intervals of the drill.

To stand at EASE, in a technical acceptance of the term, is to draw the right foot back about six inches, and to bring the greatest part of the weight of the body upon it. The left knee must be a little bent, and the hands brought together before the body, the right hand in front. But the shoulders must invariably be kept back and square, the head to the front, and the whole carriage of the person be unconstrained.

In cold weather, when standing at ease, the men are permitted by command, to move their limbs without quitting their ground.

Stand at EASE, (from the support) on this command the soldier retires his right foot six inches, bends his left knee, and carrying the right hand smartly across the body, seizes the firelock by the small of the butt, and raises it sufficiently to slope it over his left shoulder, and relieve the left arm from the pressure of the cock. In some regiments, instead of seizing the small of the butt with the right hand, they only place the hollow of the hand below the left elbow.

EASE arms, a word of command, given immediately after the order, to handle arms, by which the soldier is directed to drop his right hand to the full extent of the arm, from the top of the ramrod on the front of the sling, with his fingers spread along it.

EAU, Fr. water, is a principal object to be considered, whenever an army advances, retreats, or encamps. It is the quarter-master-general's business, through his subordinate deputies, to secure this indispensable necessary of life. Small running rivulets are preferable to large rivers, because the latter cannot be so easily turned for the convenience of the army; whereas the former may be always stopped, or diverted from their natural course.

Wells are never resorted to, but in cases of absolute necessity. Stagnant or pond water is in general unwholesome, and never limpid or clear.

HautE EAU, Fr. high-water.

Basse EAU, Fr. low-water.

EAUX Mêtres ou ANÈBES, Fr. The water which remains after the first boiling of saltpetre. It has a bitter salt taste, and is used to fill the tubs a second time.

Petites EAUX, Fr. the water which remains after the saltpetre has been boiled to a certain degree. See SALT-PETRE.

ÉBAUCHE, Fr. the first sketch or first outline of a plan.

ÉBOULEMENT, Fr. the crumbling of a wall or rampart, which is occasioned either by violence, or by waste of time. It also means the rubbish, &c. that is caused by the explosion of a mine.

ÉBRANLER, Fr. To shake.

Ébranler une troupe ennemie, Fr. to cause a hostile body of men to give way, or become unsteady, by the frequent and well directed discharge of cannon or musquetry.

S'Ebranler, Fr. to make a first movement towards an enemy, for the purpose of bringing him to battle; to prepare to mount an assault. It also signifies to retire in order to avoid the enemy.

ÉCARTER l'ennemi, Fr. to oblige an enemy to abandon his position and to give up some premeditated plan. This is done by intercepting his convoys, by harassing engagements, and by keeping him in continual alarm.

ÉCHANTILLON, Fr. means literally a pattern or model. In a military sense, it signifies a plank, which is covered on one side with iron, and serves to finish the mouldings, &c. of a piece of ordnance.

ÉCHARPÉ, Fr. a person that has been severely wounded with a sabre or cutlass. It is said of a regiment that it has been écharpé, by which is meant that it has lost nearly all its men, or been cut to pieces.

En ÉCHARPÉ, in the military art. To
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| To batter *en écharpe*, is to fire obliquely, or sideways. See Battery. **ÉCHARPER,** Fr. to cut across with a sabre. **ÉCHAUFFOURIE,** Fr. This word is become obsolete. It meant formerly the unexpected meeting of two bodies of troops that engaged immediately. **ÉCHAUGETTE,** in military history, signifies a watch-tower, or kind of sentry-box. **ÉCHEC,** Fr. a check; a repulse; such as is experienced by an army, or body of armed men, who are either driven back when they advance, or are prevented from so doing by a superior force, or by military skill. **ÉCHELLE,** Fr. scale. In a mathematical sense, is a straight line drawn double, which is divided into a certain number of parts, each part containing as many toes or yards, &c. as the size of the chart or paper will admit, which are again reduced into feet. **ÉCHELLE,** Fr. ladder, in civil and military architecture, means a machine, which is made of two side pieces or arms, that receive a certain number of small steps, at equal distances from one another. These *échelles* or ladders, are of two kinds: large and small. The small ladders are used to descend into the ditches of fortified places, and the large ones for scaling the walls, &c. See Scaling Ladders. **ÉCHELLES,** Fr. President Fauchet in his *Book 11. de la milice et des armées,* tells us, that by this word were meant several troops of horse; so that *échelles* in ancient times signifies what is now called a *troop.* They were however accompanied by *gross carlets* and *sergents,* *archers,* *rondelliers,* *piquiers,* *arbalestriers,* who all served on foot: each *échelle* had a particular standard with the motto and armorials of its captain. **ÉCHELON,** Fr. from *échelon* the step of a ladder. A position in military tactics, where each division follows the preceding one, like the steps of a ladder; and is convenient in removing from a direct to an oblique, or diagonal line. When troops advance in *échelon,* they almost invariably adopt the ordinary time. Hence to march in *échelon,* may not improperly be said to approach towards any given object by a gradual movement. **ÉCHELON movements and positions,** are not only necessary and applicable to the immediate attacks and retreats of great bodies, but also to the previous oblique or direct changes of situation, which a battalion, or a more considerable corps already formed in line, may be obliged to make to the front or rear, or on a particular fixed division of the line. The oblique changes are produced by the wheel less than the quarter circle of divisions from line which places them in the echelon situation. The direct changes are produced by the perpendicular and successive march of divisions from line to front, or rear. See Infantry Regulations, p. 103. **ÉCHOEUR,** Fr. to fail in an undertaking or enterprize. **ÉCLAIRCIR,** Fr. to thin. Hence to thin the ranks by cannon shot or musquetry. **ÉCLAIRER,** Fr. according to the translator of the French military tactics, signifies to keep an eye on, to *watch,* to observe. It literally means to enlighten. **ÉCLAIRER *une Marche,* Fr. to detach, in front of an army, small or large detachments of troops, who are preceded by sharp-shooters or light infantry, for the purpose of ascertaining the position of the enemy, &c. **ÉCLAIRER *ce que font des assiégés,* Fr. to throw inflammable balls or pots filled with combustibles into the works of a fortified place, for the purpose of knowing the strength of a garrison, &c. **ÉCLAIRER *une tranchée,* Fr. to throw balls of fire, &c. towards the trenches of an enemy, in order to discover what the operations of the besiegers are during the night. **ÉCLAIREUR,** Fr. according to the same writer, a *trooper,* a *flanker.* **ÉCLAIREURS,** Fr. a corps of grenadiers lately raised by Buonaparte, the chief consul of France, for the immediate protection of Paris, and the security of its constitution. **ÉCLOPES,** a French military term, to express those soldiers who, though invalids, are yet well enough to follow the army. Among these may be classed dragoons or horsemen, whose horses get suddenly lame, and cannot keep up with
with the troop or squadron. They always march in the rear of a column.

ÉCLUSES, Fr. See SLUICES.

ÉCOLES d'artillerie, Fr. military schools where the pupils are taught every thing that relates to the profession of arms: whether they be officers, cadets or private soldiers.

ÉCOLES de genie, Fr. military schools for the education of engineers. Before an officer can be admitted he must have attended the several lectures, and have undergone a general examination upon mathematics, the art of drawing, tracing plans of military architecture, of defence, attack, &c. &c. See SCHOOLS.

ÉCONOMY, in a military sense, implies the minutiae, or interior regulations of a regiment, troop, or company. Hence regimental economy.

ÉCORE, Fr. steep shore. Côte en écore signifies a very steep descent.

ÉCOUPE, Fr. an instrument used by the pioneers. See OUTILS.

ÉCOUTES, Fr. small galleries made at equal distances in front of the glacis, of the fortifications of a place, the whole of which correspond with a gallery parallel to the covert-way; they serve to annoy the enemy's miners and to interrupt them in their work.

ÉCOUVILLON, Fr. a maulkin or drag. The sponge made use of to clean and to cool the inside of a cannon, when it has been discharged.

ÉCOUVILLONER, Fr. To clean a piece of ordnance before it has been fired, or to cool it after.

ÉCRETTER, Fr. To batter or fire at the top of a wall, redoubt, epaulement, &c. so as to dislodge or drive away the men that may be stationed behind it, in order to render the approach more easy. Écrire les pointes des palisades, is to blunt the sharp ends of the palisades. This ought always to be done before you attack the covert way, which is generally fenced by them.

ÉCRIRE en chiffres, Fr. a particular method of writing in certain figures, marks, &c. upon interesting matters which must be kept secret. The present telegraph is a kind of writing in figures, and was much in use amongst the Persians, the Greeks, the Egyptians, the Tyrians, and the Romans.

ÉCROUÉ soldat, Fr. a soldier that is confined and reported as such during the French Monarchy. When this hap-

pened by the command of his officer he could not be removed to another place of confinement in consequence of any sentence of a civil court. Écroué comes from Écroue a gooler's book. With us all military regulations are subordinate to civil law.

ÉCROULEMENT, Fr. the decay or full of the earth or mason-work belonging to a rampart, which is occasioned by the waste of time, or by the force of ordinance.

ÉCU, Fr. a large shield which was used by the ancients, and carried on their left arms, to ward off the blows of a sword or sabre. This instrument of defence was originally invented by the Samnites. The Moors had ccus or shields, sufficiently large to cover the whole of their bodies. The clipeii of the Romans, only differed from the ccus in shape; the former being entirely round, and the latter oval.

ÉCU de campagne, Fr. a certain sum of money which is given to the cavalry during one hundred and fifty days that the troops are in winter quarters.

EDGE, the thin or cutting part of a sword or sabre.

EDICT. See PROCLAMATION.

EDUCATION, in a military sense, implies the training up of youth to the art of war. The first object to be considered is, whether nature has given the young man the talents necessary for the profession or not; for here sense, parts, courage, and judgment, are required in a very eminent degree. The natural qualities of an officer are, a robust constitution, a noble open countenance, a martial genius, fire to produce activity, phlegm to moderate his transports, and patience to support the toils and fatigues of war, almost without seeming to feel them. Acquired qualities of an officer consist in moral virtues and sciences: by the first is meant, a regular good conduct, economy, prudence, and a serious application to what regards the service. Military sciences indispensably demand the reading of ancient and modern historians; a good knowledge of military mathematics, and the study of the chief languages of Europe.

It is in ancient authors we find all that is excellent, either in politics or war: the make and form of arms are changed
dour, whilst riches became their ruin. The Roman soldiers with their eagles, their bracelets, clasps of solid gold, &c. were less great than the former adventurers the soldiers of Romulus, carrying a bundle of hay on their pikes.

EFFECT du Canon, Fr. the effect or impression made by a piece of ordnance, which wholly depends upon the manner it is loaded and fired.

EGREGII, persons among the ancient Romans, who, by military exploits obtained the government of a province. ÉGUILLETÉS. Shoulder-knots.

To EMANCIPATE, to throw darts, &c.

ELDER BATTALION. A battalion is counted elder than another, by the time since it was raised. See SENIORITY.

ELDER OFFICER, is he whose commission bears the oldest date. See SENIORITY.

ELEMENTS, (éléments, Fr.) the first rudiments of an art or a science.

ELEPHANTS, (éléphants, Fr.) animals well known among Eastern nations who employed them in their armies.

ELEVATION, (élévation, Fr.) in gunnery, that comprehended between the horizon and the line of direction of either cannon or mortar; or it is that which the chace of a piece, or the axis of its hollow cylinder, makes with the plane of the horizon.

ELEVATION, (élévation, Fr.) in a military sense, with regard to plans or drawings of fortification, elevation signifies the representation of a work when completed.

ÉLITE de Troupes, Fr. the chosen troops of an army. We have adopted the term; hence the élite of an army.

ELLIPSIS, an oval figure made by the section of a cone, by a plane, dividing both sides of a cone; and though not parallel to the base, yet meeting with the base when produced.

ÉLOIGNEMENT permis au soldat, Fr. the bounds or limits within which a soldier is allowed to walk for his amusement.

ÉLOIGNER l'ennemi, Fr. to oblige an enemy to quit his position, by giving him battle, and thus forcing him to retreat.

EMBARKATION. The act of putting troops on board of ship, when destined to be conveyed on an expedition.

EMBARGO, a prohibition for ships
ships to leave a port: generally enforced on the rupture of any two or more nations.

EMBARK. See Embarkation.

EMBARRAS, Fr. a cheval de frise.

EMBATTLE. See Battle Array.

EMBAUCHER, Fr. to persuade young men to enlist.

EMBAUCHEUR, Fr. a term which corresponds with crimp.

EMBEZZLING, the act of appropriating, by breach of trust, which, with respect to military stores, is punishable by the articles of war, but not at the discretion of a general court martial, as the offender must be sentenced to be cashiered.

EMBLÉE, Fr. a prompt, sudden, and vigorous attack which is made against the covert-way and out-works of a fortified place. This military operation is executed by means of a rapid march, and an unexpected appearance before a town, followed by an instantaneous assault upon the out-posts of the enemy; who is thereby thrown into so much confusion, that the assailants force their way at the same time, and endeavour to get possession of the town.

EMBOITEMENT, Fr. the closing up of a number of men, in order to secure the front rank from any injury they might sustain by the firing of the rear.

EMBOITURE, Fr. an iron box screwed over the nave of the wheels, and which covers the axle-tree.

EMBOLON, Fr. a military disposition of troops, which was used among the ancients, for the purpose of presenting a narrow front. The shape was that of a salient angle on the center.

EMBOUCHURE du canon, Fr. the muzzle of a cannon.

EMBRASER, Fr. to set fire to.

EMBRASSER, Fr. to comprehend; to embrace; to encompass.

EMBRASSEUR, Fr. a piece of iron, which grasps the trunnions of a piece of ordnance, when it is raised upon the boring machine, to widen its calibre.

EMBRASURE, in fortification, is an opening, hole, or aperture in a parapet, through which cannon is pointed to fire at the enemy. Embrasures are generally made from 10 to 12 feet distant from one another, every one of them being from 6 to 9 feet wide without, and 2 or 2½ within: their height above the platform is 2½ or 3 feet towards the town, and 1½ foot on the other side towards the field, so that the muzzle of the piece may be sunk occasionally, and brought to fire low. See Battery and Fortification.

EMBROCHER, Fr. a vulgar term used among French soldiers, to signify the act of running a man through the body—literally, to spit him.

EMBUSCADE, Fr. See Ambuscade.

S’EMBUSQUER, Fr. to lie in ambush.

ÉMERILLON, Fr. a merlin, or small piece of brass or cast iron, which does not exceed a pound weight.

EMERY, a ground iron ore. The British soldiery are each allowed a certain quantity for cleaning their arms.

EMERY, oil, and brick-dust, or crocus, articles used by soldiers, to keep their firelocks in constant good order. There is an allowance issued for this purpose by government to the captains of companies, who receive the same, half-yearly, from the regimental paymasters. This allowance is charged against the ordnance.

ÉMEUTE, Fr. Insurrection.

EMIGRANTS, persons who have quitted their native country.

EMINENCE, in military art, a high or rising ground, which overlooks and commands the low places about it: such places, within cannon-shot of any fortified place, are a great disadvantage; for if the besiegers become masters of them they can from thence fire into the place.

ÉMIRALEM Gonfalonier, Fr. the general of the Turks, or keeper of all their colours; he marches immediately before the Grand Signor.

EMISSARY, a person sent by any power that is at war with another, for the purpose of creating disaffection among the subjects of the latter, of obtaining intelligence, &c.

EMOLUMENTS, (emolumens) Fr. Perquisites; fair profits. Every general, and other public officer, if men of honour, ought to be satisfied with the emoluments allowed them. Whatever they get beyond, is injurious to the state and to the nation.

ÉMOUSSER, Fr. to blunt, to dull.
In a military sense, it signifies to take off the four corners of a battalion, which has
has formed a square, and to give it, by those means, an octagon figure; for the different obtuse angles of which it may be in all directions.

EMPALE. See FORTIFY.

EMPARER, Fr. to take possession. Hence s'emparer d'une éminence, &c. to take possession of a height.

EMPATTEMMENT, in fortification. See TALT.

EMPEREUR, Fr. See EMPEROR.

EMPEROR, a title hitherto given to the Sovereign of Germany; but since adopted by the First Consul of France. It is derived from the Latin imperator, and signifies the chief in command. The term is, however, variously used; for although empire means a certain extent of country, which comprehends several provinces, and many different states, and should consequently give the honorary title of emperor to its principal chief, there are instances in which the person so invested is only called king. Hence the British empire, is under the chief magistracy of George the Third, King, &c. It is, in fact, more suitable to a military government, than to one, whose vital formation consists of a happy mixture of King, Lords and Commons.

EMPILEMENT, Fr. from empiler, to pile up. The act of disposing balls, grenades, and shells, in the most secure and convenient manner. This generally occurs in arsenals and citadels.

EMPLACEMENT, Fr. the spot upon which a body of armed men is posted.

EMPLOIS Militaires, Fr. military employments, such as commissions, &c. in an army.

EMPLOYÉS, Fr. persons employed in the service, to supply the necessary subsistence, &c. for an army. Of this description are commissaries, purveyors, &c.

EMPRIZE. See EXPEDITION.

EMULATION, a noble jealousy, without the slightest tincture of envy, whereby gentlemen endeavour to surpass each other in the acquisition of military knowledge. Is not the want of encouragement to excite emulation, the great cause of misconduct among military men? An officer who is not protected, who is never sure of the least favour, neglects himself, and takes less trouble to acquire that glory, (which is rarely heard of, though merited by the bravest actions) than to enjoy the tranquillity of an ordinary reputation. Brave actions, by whomsoever accomplished, should never be buried in oblivion, as they excite to emulation, and are full of instruction.

ENAMBUSH. See AMBUSH.

ENCAMPMENT, the pitching of a camp. See CAMP.

In the regulations published by authority, are particularly enjoined the following:

Attention relative to ENCAMPMENTS. On the arrival of a brigade or a battalion, on the ground destined for its camp, the quarter and rear guards of the respective regiments will immediately mount; and when circumstances require them, the advanced pickets will be posted. The grand guards of cavalry will be formed, and the horses picketed. The men's tents will then be pitched, and till this duty is completed, the officers are on no account to quit their troops or companies, or to employ any soldier for their own accommodation.

Privies are to be made in the most convenient situations, and the utmost attention is required in this, and every other particular, to the cleanliness of the camp.

If circumstances will allow the ground on which a regiment is to encamp to be previously ascertained, the pioneers should make these and other essential conveniences, before the corps arrives at its encampment.

Whenever a regiment remains more than one night in a camp, regular kitchens are to be constructed.

No tents, or huts, are to be allowed in front of, or between the intervals of the battalions. A spot of ground for this purpose should be marked by the quarter-master, with the approbation of the commanding officer.

On arriving in a camp which is intersected by hedges, ditches, unequal or boggy ground, regiments will immediately make openings of communication, of 60 feet in width.

The ground in front of the encampment is to be cleared, and every obstacle to the movement of the artillery and troops is to be removed.
Commanding officers of regiments must take care that their communication with the nearest grand route is open, and free from any impediments.

**ENCEINTE**, in fortification, is the interior wall or rampart which surrounds a place, sometimes composed of bastions or curtains, either faced or lined with brick or stone, or only made of earth. The enceinte is sometimes only flanked by round or square towers, which is called a Roman wall.

**ENCLOUER un canon**, Fr. to spike the cannon.

**ENCLOUEURE**, Fr. this term is used in the artillery, to signify the actual state and condition of any thing that has been spiked.

**ENCOMBRE, Fr. in fortification, to fill up any hollow space; such as a stagnant lake, &c. with rubbish.**

**ENCOUNTERS, in military affairs, are combats or fights, between two persons only. Battles, or attacks by large or small armies are figuratively so called.**

The marquis de Feuquieres mentions four instances of particular encounters brought on by entire armies, with a design to create a general engagement.

**ENCOURAGE. See ANIMATE.**

**ENCOURAGEMENT, (encouragement, Fr.) excitement to action, &c.**

**ENCROACHMENT, the advancement of the troops of one nation, on the rights or limits of another.**

**ENDORMI, Fr. asleep; soldat endormi, a soldier asleep on guard. See the articles of war, which direct that any centinel who is found asleep during the period of his duty, shall be punished with death.**

**ENDECAGON, a plain figure of 11 sides and angles.**

**ENEMY, (ennemi, Fr.) in a comprehensive meaning, this term signifies any power or potentate with whom we are at war, together with his subjects, by sea and land; it also includes his allies, all persons adhering to and favouring his cause and undertaking; his troops, the inhabitants of his cities and villages. It more particularly applies to armed bodies of men that are acting against each other.**

**ENFANS perdu, Fr. forlorn hope, which consists of soldiers detached from several regiments, or otherwise appointed to give the first onset in battle, or in an attack upon the counter-scarp, or the breach of a place besieged; so called (by the French) because of the imminent danger they are exposed to.**

**ENFILADE, in fortification, is used in speaking of trenches, or other places, which may be scourred by the enemy's shot, along their whole length. In conducting the approaches at a siege, care must be taken that the trenches be not enfiled from any work of the place. See TRENCHES.**

**To ENFILADE, is to sweep the whole length of any work or line of troops, with the shot of artillery or small arms.**

**ENFILER, Fr. to enfilade; to batter and sweep with cannon-shot, the whole extent of a strait line.**

**SENFILER, Fr. to expose yourself to the enemy's fire, by being posted within reach of his point blank shot; or by getting into narrow passes, from whence you can with difficulty retreat, after having sustained a galling discharge of musketry.**

**ENFONCE, Fr. to break; to throw into disorder by piercing the ranks of a battalion, &c.**

**ENFORCER des ennemis, Fr. to plunge into the thickest of a body of armed men, who are combating against you.**

**ENGAGEMENT, Fr. See ENLISTMENT.**

**Engagement. See BATTLE.**

**ENGAGER une affaire, Fr. to bring the enemy to a general engagement, by having previously attacked him in a variety of ways.**

**ENGAGEMENT, Fr. The act of enlisting.**

**To ENGARRISON, to protect any place by a garrison.**

**ENGHERBER, Fr. to place barrels of gun-powder in a magazine.**

**ENGINES, in military mechanics, are compound machines, made of one or more mechanical powers, as levers, pulleys, screws, &c. in order to raise, project, or sustain any weight, or produce any effect which could not be easily effected otherwise.**

**Engine to drive fuzes, consists of a wheel with a handle to it, to raise a certain weight, and to let it fall upon the driver, by which the strokes become more equal.**

**Engine to draw fuzes, has a screw fixed
fixed upon a three-legged stand, the bottom of which has a ring to place it upon the shell; and at the end of the screw is fixed a hand-screw by means of a collar, which being screwed on the fuze, by turning the upper screw, draws out or raises the fuze.

ENGINEER, is commonly applied to an officer who is appointed to inspect and contrive any attacks, defences, &c. of a fortified place, or to build or repair them, &c.

The art of fortification is an art which stands in need of so many others, and whose object is so extensive, and its operations accompanied with so many various circumstances, that it is almost impossible for a man to make himself master of it by experience alone; even supposing him born with all the advantages of genius and disposition possible for the knowledge and practice of that important art. We do not pretend to deny that experience is of greater efficacy, than all the precepts in the world; but it has likewise its inconveniences as well as its advantages; its fruits are of slow growth; and whoever is content with pursuing only that method of instruction, seldom knows how to act upon emergencies of all kinds, because old age incapacitates him from exercising his employment. Experience teaches us, through the means of the errors we commit ourselves, what theory points out at the expense of others. The life of man being short, and opportunities of practice seldom happening, it is certain nothing less than a happy genius, a great share of theory, and intent application joined to experience, can make an engineer one day shine in his profession. From whence it follows, that less than the three first of the four necessary qualities, should not be a recommendation for the reception of a young gentleman into the corps of engineers.

The fundamental sciences, and those absolutely necessary, are arithmetic, geometry, mechanics, hydraulics, and drawing. Without arithmetic, it is impossible to make a calculation of the extent, and to keep an account of the disbursements made, or to be made; nor without it can an exact computation be made upon any occasion whatsoever.

Without geometry, it is impossible to lay down a plan or map with truth and exactness, or settle a draught of a fortification, or calculate the lines and angles, so as to make a just estimation, in order to trace them on the ground, and to measure the surface and solidity of their parts.

Mechanics teach us the proportions of the machines in use, and how to increase or diminish their powers as occasion may require; and likewise to judge whether those which our own imagination suggests to us, will answer in practice.

Hydraulics teach us how to conduct waters from one place to another, to keep them at a certain height, or to raise them higher.

How fluently soever we may express ourselves in speaking or writing, we can never give so perfect an idea as by an exact drawing; and often in fortification both are wanted; for which reason the art of drawing is indispensably necessary for engineers.

To the qualities above mentioned, must be added activity and vigilance; both which are absolutely necessary in all operations of war, but especially in the attack of such places as are in expectation of succours. The besieged must have no time allowed them for consideration; one hour lost at such a juncture often proves irreparable. It is by their activity and vigilance, that engineers often bring the besieged to capitulate, much sooner than they would have done, if those engineers had not pushed on the attack with firmness and resolution. Want of vigilance and activity often proceed from irresolution, and that from weakness of capacity.

As the office of an engineer requires great natural qualifications, much knowledge, study, and application, it is but reasonable that the pay should be proportioned to that merit which is to be the qualification of the person employed: he must be at an extraordinary expense in his education, and afterwards for books and instruments for his instruction and improvement, as well as for many other things; and that he may be at liberty to pursue his studies with application, he must not be put to shifts for necessaries. It should likewise be considered, that if an engineer do his duty, be his station what it will, his fatigue must be very great; and, to dedicate
dicate himself wholly to that duty, he should be divested of all other cares.

The word engineer is of modern date, and was first used about the year 1650, when one Captain Thomas Rudd had the title of chief engineer to the king. In 1600 the title given to engineers was trench-master; and in 1622, Sir William Pelham, and after him Sir Francis Vere, acted as trench-masters in Flanders. In the year 1634, an engineer was called camp-master-general, and sometimes engine-master, being always subordinate to the master of the ordnance.

At present the corps of Royal Engineers in England consists of 1 colonel, in chief, 1 colonel en second, 1 chief engineer, 5 colonels, 6 lieutenant-colonels, 18 captains, 15 captain-lieutenant and captains, 31 lieutenants, 16 second lieutenants.

The establishment of the corps of Invald Engineers comprises a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, captain, captain-lieutenant and captain, first lieutenant and second lieutenant.

The corps of Royal Engineers in Ireland consists of a director, colonel, lieutenant colonel, major, captain, captain lieutenant and captain, and 2 first lieutenants.

ENGINEERY, the act of managing artillery; also engines of war.

ENGORGEMENT, Fr. The stoppage of any communication.

ENGUARD. See GUARD.

EN-JOUE, Fr. a word of command among the French, which corresponds with present in platoon firings. It literally means to your check.

ENLARGEMENT, the act of going or being allowed to go beyond prescribed limits; as the extending the boundaries of an arrest, when the officer is said to be enlarged, or under arrest at large.

ENLEVER un convoy, un détachement, Fr. to take a convoy or detachment, by surprise and in spite of any resistance which might be made.

ENNEAGON, in geometry or fortification, is a figure consisting of nine angles, and as many sides, capable of being fortified with the same number of bastions.

ENNEGONE, Fr. See ENNEAGON.

ENRANK, to place in orderly or regular rows.

ENREGIMENTER, Fr. to form several companies into a regiment.

ENROCHEMENT, Fr. the making marshy ground solid.

ENROLEMENT, Fr. enrolment. This term, according to the military acceptance of it in the French service, differs from the words engagement, enlistment, inasmuch as in some instances, the officer enrolls or enlists a soldier without his consent; whereas in others the soldier is enrolled, after having declared that he voluntarily enlisted.

ENROLEMENT par argent, Fr. the act of recruiting soldiers by means of bounties.

ENROLLED, { See INLISTED.

ENROLEMENT, } See ENROLEMENT.

ENSOCENCE, to cover as with a fort.

ENSEIGNE, ou porte enseigne, Fr. the colours, originally derived from the Latin word Insignire. The French designate all warlike symbols under the term enseigne; but they again distinguish that word by the appellations of drapeaux, colours, and étendards, standards. Drapeaux or colours, are particularly characteristic of the infantry; étendards or standards belong to the cavalry. We make the same distinctions in our service. See COLOURS.

Porte-Enseigne, ou Porte-drapeau, Fr. This term is also used among the French to signify the soldier who is entrusted with the standard or colours, for the purpose of relieving the officer occasionally.

ENSEIGNE de vaisseau, Fr. The lowest commissioned officer in the French navy.

ENSEMBLE, Fr. together; the exact execution of the same movements, performed in the same manner, and by the same motions; it is the union of all the men who compose a battalion, or several battalions or companies of cavalry, who are to act as if put in motion by the same spring, both wings as well as the centre. Upon the strict observation of this ensemble every success depends, but it is not to be acquired, except by constant practice.

ENSILED, to cover from the enemy.

ENSIFORM, having the shape of a sword.

ENSIGN, in the military art, a banner, under which the soldiers are ranged according
according to the different regiments they belong to. See Colours.

Ensign, or ensign-bearer, is an officer who carries the colours, being the lowest commissioned officer in a company of foot, subordinate to the captain and lieutenant. The word ensign is very antient, being used both by the Greeks and Romans, and amongst both foot and horse. Ensigns belonging to the foot, were either the common ones of the whole legion, or the particular ones of the manipuli. The common ensign of the whole legion was an eagle of gold or silver, fixed on the top of a spear, holding a thunderbolt in his talons, as ready to deliver it. That this was not peculiar to the Romans, is evident from the testimony of Xenophon, who informs us that the royal ensign of Cyrus was a golden eagle spread over a shield, and fastened on a spear, and that the same was still used by the Persian kings. In the rustic age of Rome, the ensign was nothing more than a wisp of hay carried on a pole, as the word manipulus properly signifies. The ensign of the horse was not solid, as the others, but a cloth, somewhat like our colours, distributed on a staff; on which the names of the emperors were generally inscribed. The religious care the soldiers took of their ensigns was extraordinary: they worshipped them, swore by them (as at present several Europeans powers do) and honoured certain death if they lost them. The Turks and Tartars make use of horses tails for their ensigns, whose number distinguishes the rank of their commanders; for the sultan has 7, and the grand vizier only 3, &c.

Entame une troupe, une armée, une âtrage, Fr. to rout a body of armed men, to overthrow an army. It also means to destroy a work, by blowing it up, or by battering it with cannon.

Estamer des opérations de guerre, Fr. to commence warlike operations, either by besieging a fortified place, or by entering the enemy’s country for the purpose of bringing him to battle.

Estamer la paix, Fr. to make proposals of peace, or overtures of accommodation.

Entreprise, in military history, an undertaking attended with some hazard and danger.

Entrepriser, an officer who undertakes or engages in any important and hazardous design. This kind of service frequently happens to the light infantry, light-horse, and hussars.

Entier, or rank Entier, a line of men in one continued row on the side of each other. When behind each other, they are said to be in file. See Indian files.

Entérnoir, Fr. the cavity or hole which remains after the explosion of a mine. It likewise means the insignia or port-feu which is used to convey the priming-powder into the touch-hole of a cannon.

Entrée d’honneur des gouverneurs et lieutenants généraux des provinces, Fr. The solemn entry of governors, general officers, &c, into the towns, citadels, castles and forts, within the district, of which they have the command.

Entrepôts, Fr. magazines and places appropriated in garrison towns, for the reception of stores, &c. In a mercantile sense it means an intermediate public ware house, where goods are deposited, and from whence they might be forwarded to different quarters within or beyond the immediate confines of a country.

Entreprendre, Fr. To undertake any thing from one’s own mind, or in consequence of a superior order.

Entreprendre une guerre, un siège, une battaille; to put the armed strength of a country in action by marching different bodies of troops against fortified places, by embarking them for foreign service, or by rendering them subservient to military purposes in any other way.

Entreprendre sur des quartiers, Fr. to appear in force against an enemy’s quarters, with the intention of driving him from them.

Entrepreneur, Fr. See Contractor.

Entreprise, Fr. See Enterprise.

Entretenir une armée, Fr. to provide the necessary clothing, pay and subsistence of an army.

Entretenir la paix, Fr. to keep up the bonds of national amity, by a strict observance of treaties, &c.

Entretenir la guerre, Fr. to make the best use of military resources, for the support of national glory, &c.
To ENVIRONMENT, to surround in a hostile manner, to hem in, to besiege.

EPAULE, in fortification, designates the shoulder of a bastion, or the place where its face and flank meet, and forms the angle, called the angle of the shoulder. See FORTIFICATION.

EPAULEMENT in fortification, is a kind of breast-work to cover the troops in front, and sometimes in flank. In a siege, the besiegers generally raise an epaulement of 8 or 10 feet high, near the entrance of the approaches, to cover the cavalry, which is placed there to support the guard of the trenches. These works are sometimes made of filled gabions, or fascines and earth. This term is frequently used for any work thrown up to defend the flank of a post, or any other place. It is sometimes taken for a demi-bastion, and at other times for a square orillon to cover the cannon of the casemate. See FORTIFICATION.

ÉPAULER, Fr. to support.

ÉPAULER une batterie, un travail, une tranche, une troupe, Fr. to raise a parapet, or any other high fence for the security of a battery, a work, trench, or troop, &c. This parapet or fence must be so constructed, that the view of the object is cut off from the enemy, and protected against an enfilade.

EPAULETTES, are a kind of shoulder-knots; those for the serjeants and rank and file of the colours of the facing, with a narrow yellow or white tape round it, and worsted fringe; those for the officers are made of gold or silver lace, with rich fringe and bullions. They are badges of distinction, worn on one or both shoulders. When a serjeant or corporal is publicly reduced, the shoulder-knot is cut off by the drum-major in the front or circle of the battalion.

Among the French, all the degrees of rank, from a cadet to a general officer, were so minutely marked out by the epaulettes, that a common centinel might instantly know what officer approached his station, and could pay the prescribed honours without hesitation or mistake.

This is not the case in our service. Some few alterations have lately been made in those ornaments: but they are so partial and confined to the upper ranks.
is that chief, who writes more himself, than he has occasion to dictate to his secretary.

ÉPIGNARE, Fr. a small piece of ordnance which does not exceed one pound in caliber.

ÉPINGLETTE, Fr. an iron needle with which the cartridge of any large piece of ordnance is pierced before it is primed.

ÉPOUVANTE, Fr. a sudden panic with which troops are seized, and by which they are induced to retreat without any actual necessity for so doing.

Donner ÉPOUVANTE, Fr. to force an enemy to retreat precipitately, leaving his baggage, &c. behind. This is effected by means of a sudden march, by surprise, and by some ingenious manoeuvre.

Prendre ÉPOUVANTE, Fr. to be seized with a sudden panic; to retreat in disorder.

ÉPREUVE, Fr. See Proof.

ÉPROUVETTE, is a machine to prove the strength of gunpowder. There are different sorts of éprouvettes, according to the fancy of different nations who use them. Some raise a weight, and others throw a shot, to certain heights and distances.

ÉPTAGON. See Heptagon.

ÉPUISES volantes, Fr. mills of a simple construction, which serve to raise or to drain the waters, so as to make a solid foundation for such works as are to be erected on a marshy soil.

ÉPUISÉS militares, military banquets. It was customary amongst the Romans, when a general was saluted imperator, or when an officer was promoted to the generalship, to give a feast to the soldiers, in order to gain their support. The generals would do the same before a battle to encourage the men, and after the action to refresh them.

To EQUALIZE, in a military sense to render the distribution of any number of men equal as to the component parts.

To EQUALIZE a battalion. To tell off a certain number of companies in such a manner, that the several component parts shall consist of the same number of men. In this case the grenadier and light infantry companies are squared with the rest of the battalion.
EQUANGULAR, having equal angles.

EQUATION, an expression of the same quantity in two dissimilar terms, but of equal value. See ALGEBRA.

ÉQUÉLÉ, Fr. a word generally applied to any piece of ordnance or musquetry, but chiefly to the former, when, by frequent use, its mouth has been widened, and the direction of the ball or bullet is consequently affected.

ÉQUERRE, Fr. an instrument made of wood or of metal, which serves to trace and measure right angles, and to obtain a perpendicular line upon an horizontal one. This instrument is absolutely necessary to miners.

ÉQUERRY, the master of the horse. It likewise means any person who is appointed to attend the king, or Prince of Wales in that capacity.

ÉQUESTRIAN statue, the inanimate resemblance, in bronze, stone, or marble, of any person mounted on horseback.

ÉQUESTRIAN order, among the Romans, signified their knights or equites; as also their troopers or horsemen in the field; the first of which orders stood in contradistinction to the senators, as the last did to the foot; each of these distinctions was introduced into the state by Romulus.

EQUILIBRIUM, equality of weight or power.

ÉQUIPER, (équiper, Fr.) to furnish an individual, a corps, or an army, with every thing that is requisite for military service; such as arms, accoutrements, uniforms, &c. &c.

ÉQUIPAGE, in a military sense, is all kinds of furniture made use of by the army; such as

Camp-ÉQUIPAGE, are tents, kitchens, &c.
Field-ÉQUIPAGE, as furniture, saddles, baggage-waggons, bat-horses, &c.

ÉQUIPAGES ou bagages d’une armée, Fr. Under this term are comprehended military stores, camp equipage, utensils, &c. with which an army is usually furnished. This word is used as to any particular department or component part of an army, viz. équipages d’artillerie, stores, ammunition, cumbrels, cannon-ball, &c. for the use of the artillery.

ÉQUIPAGES d’un régiment, d’une troupe, Fr. arms, accoutrements, &c. belonging to a regiment, or armed body.

Gros ÉQUIPAGES, Fr. four-wheeled wagons, caissons, &c.

Menus ÉQUIPAGES, Fr. Under this term are comprehended led horses, mules and other beasts of burthen; carriages with two wheels, &c.

L’ÉQUIPEMENT des soldats, Fr. the equipment or complete dress, including accoutrements and arms, &c. of soldiers.

ÉQUIPMENT, the act of getting completely equipped, or supplied with every requisite for military service.

ÉQUITATION, Fr. the art of managing horses. According to Dionysius Sicilianus the Thessalians were the first who trained horses and rendered them fit for human service. The Athenians and Greeks, who paid great attention to equitation, were indebted to them for their first notions of that art. The latter especially made great progress in it, not only with regard to the training, &c. but they also discovered remedies for their several diseases.

ÉQUITES, an order of equestrian knights introduced among the Romans by Romulus.

ÉQUITES singulaires, a particular corps of cavalry raised by order of Augustus, for his body guard. They were called equites singulares, on account of their being selected from other corps.

ÉQUI TRUMPHALES, Fr. four white horses abreast that drew the triumphal car, when a general made his entry into Rome.

ÉSCADRON, Fr. Squadron. This term is derived from the Italian scara or scadra, corrupted from the Latin quadrum. Froissart was the first French writer that made use of the word escadron to signify a troop of horse drawn out in order of battle. The term escadron is more ancient than battalion. See SQUADRON.

ESCADRONNER, Fr. to form squadron.

ÉSCADRONNER, Fr. to form squadron.

ESCALADE. See ScALADE.

Escalade d’un soldat was used in the old French service to express the act of a soldier who got into a town, camp or quarters, by scaling the ramparts, &c. When discovered in the act of
of so doing, the sentinels had orders to fire at him; and if apprehended, he was tried and condemned to death.

ESCALADER, Fr. to scale a place.

ESCALE, Fr. a machine used to apply the petard.

ESCAMOUCHE, Fr. See Skirmish.

ESCARPE, is the outward slope or talus of the rampart.

ESCAPMENT. See Declivity.

ESCAUPILL, Fr. a kind of quilted blanket, cut in the shape of a cassock or long gown. This armour was suggested by necessity, when the Spaniards under Fernand Cortez invaded Mexico. They had no wire to make coats of mail with, to protect themselves against the arrows of the Indians, but they were taught by experience that a wadding between two pieces of cloth, well quilted, was a better safeguard than knitted brass wire.

ESCHARPE (more correctly CHARPE) Fr. a scarf. In ancient times, a military mark to distinguish officers and soldiers from the rest of the people. Before a regular clothing was adopted among the nations in Europe, officers and soldiers appeared with two scarfs of different colours, which crossed each other before and behind, in order to point out the country and the corps to which the wearer of them belonged. The scarf was preserved among the French, as late down as the reign of Louis the XIVth. It consisted of a piece of white silk, which, previous to the revolution, was the national colour of France.

Scarfs, however, were continued much later among other nations, particularly among the Germans, who wear them to this day across their uniforms.

ESCOPERCHE, Fr. an engine which serves to raise weights.

ESCOPETTE, Fr. a kind of pike three feet and a half long, formerly used by the carabiniers. There is also a fire arm called escopete which resembles a small flinted piece, it carries five hundred paces. The French cavalry had escopetes so late as under Lewis XIII.

ESCOPERTERIE, Fr. a volley.

ESCORT, in the art of war. See Cosvoy.

Escot of deserters, consists in general of a corporal and three rank and file unless the number exceed four or five. Deserters are conducted by them a certain distance, and either delivered over to the next military station, or lodged in some county gaol. The principal regulations respecting this important trust are, that when an order from the war office shall be received by the commanding officer of any corps or detachment, for a party to take charge of a deserter, and convey him to any place, the said commanding officer shall advance, or cause to be advanced, so much money on account of pay for the deserter, as will be sufficient to defray the arrears thereof, during the time of his confinement, and the expense of medicines and attendance, (if any shall be due) and a farther sum proportioned to the time he will be on his march, either to his final destination, or to the next quarter, as the case may require: he shall likewise cause such necessaries as the man may be absolutely in need of, to be provided and paid for; the sums defrayed and advanced, on account of pay, &c. to be stated distinctively on the back of the route or order, as likewise the particulars and actual charge of the necessaries, and to be signed by the commanding officer himself, or by the adjutant or paymaster by his direction. The person receiving the money, viz. the gaoler, and the non-commissioned officer who takes charge of the deserter, shall likewise sign to the sums respectively received by them.

When a deserter is delivered over from one party to another, the commanding officer of the corps, to which the latter party belongs, or the adjutant or paymaster, by his direction, shall carefully inspect the route, and see that the money which hath been received, is there properly accounted for; he shall also advance a farther sum (if requisite) on account of pay, proportioned to the distance of the ensuing march; and so on, till the deserter shall arrive at his place of destination.

If, upon such inspection of the route, any improper charges shall be found, the non-commissioned officer, under whom they have been incurred, shall make good the amount thereof.

No pay shall be advanced, nor shall any necessaries be provided, but by or under
under the immediate direction of the commanding officer, adjutant, or paymaster, who is to sign his name to the charge.

No more money shall be advanced on account of pay, than the time and distance may require.

Necessaries shall be supplied but once for any march.

No horse-hire shall be allowed, nor any fees at gaols. The subsistence of a deserter commences from the first day of confinement inclusive; and is six-pence per diem, for all ranks and corps.

The agent of the regiment to which a deserter belongs, shall repay the money advanced, provided it is properly accounted for on the route, and shall charge the same in the following manner, viz.

The subsistence, not exceeding sixpence a day, against the public.

Necessaries, including hand-cuffs, against the deserter, who shall pay for them by stoppages.

Medicines, and other necessary expenses, in consequence of sickness, against the surgeon of the corps.

The order or route, by which the deserter is marched, being the voucher for the expenditures, the same shall be carefully preserved and deposited either in the Savoy, or at the head quarters of the corps to which he belongs, according to the destination of the said order or route; or with the agent of the corps, to be produced when called for, on settlement of the accounts.

ESCOUT, Fr. See Spy.

ESCRIME, Fr. the art of fencing; tilting.

ESCRIMEUR, Fr. a fencer; one who understands the sword.

ESCUAGE, an ancient feudal tenure, by which the tenant was bound to follow his lord to war, or to defend his castle.

ESKY, (bas) the Turkish soldier who carries the colours: in general it is the senior man in the company.

ESPACES, Fr. regulated intervals between the battalions, the companies, and the tents in a camp, between the ranks in a manœuvre, on a march, or in battle.

ESPADON, in old military books, a kind of two-hand sword, having two edges, of a great length and breadth; formerly used by the Dutch.

ESPADONNER, Fr. to fight with the back-sword.

ESPERCES, Fr. coin. Hence payer en especes sousantes; to pay in cash, or ready money; a circumstance indispensably necessary to military men.

ESPION, Fr. a spy.

ESPIONNAGE, Fr. the act of obtaining and giving intelligence; which is as dangerous to the employer as it is to the person that undertakes it.

ESPLANADE, in fortification, the sloping of the parapet of the covert-way towards the field, and is therefore the same as the glacis of the counterguard; but begins to be antiquated in that sense, and is now only taken for the empty space between the glacis of a citadel, and the first houses of the town.

ESPONTON, Fr. a sort of half pike. On the 10th of May, 1690, it was ordered by the French government that every esponton, or half pike, should be 8 feet in length. The colonels of corps as
as well as the captains of companies always used them in action. The officers of the British army were formerly provided with this weapon; but it has been replaced by the sword in both countries.

ESPRINGAL, in the ancient art of war, a machine for throwing large darts generally called muchetza.

ESPRINGARDE, Fr. not ESPRINGALE, a machine for throwing stones. In the Dictionnaire de l'Academie Frangaise, it is written ESPRINGALE; but Montrelet, Fauchet, and Froissart have it as above.

ESPRIT de Corps, Fr. this term is generally used among all military men in Europe. It may not improperly be defined a laudable spirit of ambition which produces a peculiar attachment to any particular corps, company or service. Officers, without descending to mean and pitiful sensations of selfish envy, under the influence of a true esprit de corps, rise into an emulous thirst after military glory. The good are excited to peculiar feats of valor by the sentiments it engenders, and the bad are deterred from ever hazarding a disgraceful action by a secret consciousness of the duties it prescribes. Grenadiers and light infantry men are peculiarly susceptible of this impression. What a common battalion man might do with impunity, would entail dishonor and reproach upon either of the ranks. The same observation holds good with respect to regiments. There are some corps in the British army whose uniform good conduct and behavior before the enemy have from the first of their establishment, secured to them an enviable reputation; the consequence of which is, that every young man who gets a commission in a corps of this cast, naturally feels anxious, not only to support, but to add, if possible, to the fame it possesses. Such a sentiment creates an Esprit de corps. The British foot guards have been remarkable for this quality, particularly on service. Being necessarily looked at by the Line with a jealous eye on account of the privilege which the officers enjoy with respect to rank, it is particularly incumbent upon them to do something more than the rest, to prove at least, that they are not unworthy of the precedence they enjoy. Advocates as we certainly are for having this sort of rank confined to themselves, we should nevertheless do an act of injustice to a truly brave set of men, did we not acknowledge, that they indulge an Esprit de corps which does credit to British gallantry. Highland corps are remarkable for the same impression.

ESQUADE. See SQUADE.

S'ESQUICHER. Fr. to avoid coming to blows.

ESQUIRE. See ARMIGER.

ESSAI des armes à feu; de la poudre à tirer, Fr. the act of proving fire-arms, and of ascertaining whether gun-powder be fit for service.

ESSINES, in the train of artillery, are fixed to draught-chains and made in the form of an S, one end of which is fastened to the chain, and the other hooks to the horses harness, or to a staple; they serve likewise to lengthen and piece chains together.

ESSIEUX, Fr. a piece of solid timber which runs across the carriage, enters the wheel at both ends, and is fastened by means of an S. This word is sometimes written aissieu, and signifies literally an axle-tree.

ESSUYER le feu, Fr. to remain exposed to the fire of cannon or musketry.

ESSUYER le premier feu, Fr. to receive the enemy's fire without attempting to fire first.

ESSUYER la pierre, Fr. a word of command in the platoon exercise, which signifies to try the flint.

ESTABLAGE, Fr. the harness which is between the two shafts of a cart, and serves to support them.

ESTABLIES, Fr. troops which guarded towns or forts were formerly so called. The term garrison has been since substituted.

To ESTABLISH. To fix, to settle. It is likewise a technical phrase, to express the quartering of any considerable body of troops in a country. Thus it is common to say: The army took up a position in the neighbourhood of—and established its head quarters at—

ESTABLISHMENT, in the military sense, implies the quota of officers and men in an army, regiment, troop, or company.

Peace-ESTABLISHMENT, is the reduction
duction of corps to a certain number, by which the aggregate force of a country is diminished, and its expenditure lessened.

War-ESTABLISHMENT, is the augmentation of regiments to a certain number, by which the whole army of a country is considerably increased.

ESTACADE, Fr. a dyke constructed with piles, in the sea, river, or morass, to oppose the entry of troops or succours.

ESTAFETTE, a military courier, sent express from one part of an army to another.

ESTAFFE, contribution money.

ESTAPILADE, Fr. cut across the face.

ESTIMATE, army estimates are the computation of expenses to be incurred in the support of an army for a given time.

ESTOC, Fr. the point of a sword or sabre, or of any other weapon.

D'ESTOC & de Taille, to push and thrust vigorously at one's antagonist, in every direction.

ESTOCADE, Fr. a long rapier, (called in derision brette, or flambeau,) used by duellists.

ESTOILE. See ETOILE.

ESTRADE, Fr. a road or way. This word is derived from the Italian strada, which signifies road, street, or way. Some writers take its etymology from Estradiots, a class of men on horseback, who were employed in scouring the roads, and in procuring intelligence respecting the movements of an army. See BATTEUR D'ESTRADE.

ESTRADE ou retraite, Fr. the retrograde movement which an armed body makes in order to avoid an engagement, or to secure a retreat after having been unsuccessful.

Batter l'Estre de ou la retraite, Fr. to give notice to troops, by beat of drum or sound of trumpet, that they must retire. This occurs when an engagement is not successful; when it is prudent to avoid one; or when circumstances require that the men should repose.

ESTRADIOITS, Fr. very brave warriors, who, like the Turks and Arabs, are very expert in managing their horses. They formerly made themselves very formidable in that part of Italy which is called the Appenine mountains; for,

being more hardy than the Turks, they could keep the field the whole year round. Their favourite weapon was the zugaye.

ESTRAMACON, Fr. a kind of sword or sabre, formerly in use. It also means the edge of a sabre: hence Estramaconer, to wound with a sabre.

ESTRAPPASSER, Fr. to ride a horse beyond his strength.

ESTABLISSEMENT, Fr. an advantageous position, in which a body of troops, well supplied with provisions, will make a successful stand.

ETAGES de batteries, Fr. the different stages, or small eminences (forming sometimes a species of amphitheatre,) upon which batteries are erected, as at the flanks of bastions, &c. or in other quarters. Their use or object is to protect every thing in front by a considerable range of artillery. The battery which is least elevated on a bastion is called batterie inferieure ou flanc bas, lower battery, or under flank. The next is termed seconde batterie, second battery, whether it consists of two or more pieces; and the highest is named batterie superieure, superior or upper battery. Advantage is often taken of the ground upon which a fortress is erected, in order to dispose artillery in this manner; and the declivity of a mountain is equally useful towards covering an army in the day of battle.

ETAGES de Fourmeaux ou de mines, Fr. the various chambers or excavations which are made, one over the other, for the defence or attack of fortified places.

ETAIM or ETAIN, Fr. tin. A white metal of a consistency less hard than silver, but firmer than lead. It is used in the casting of cannon. The best quality is found in Cornwall.

ETANCONNER, Fr. In mining, and in other works of fortification, to put up stays, &c.

ETANCONS, Fr. stays, supports.

Large pieces of wood which are fixed vertically in the cavities of mines, for the purpose of sustaining the weight of earth that is laid upon the galleries.

ETAPE, Fr. subsistence, or a soldier's daily allowance. See SUBSISTENCE.

ETAPIERS, Fr. were military surveyors, who accompanied the French armies, or were stationed in particular places
places to supply the troops on their march.

**ÉTAT.** Fr. roll, or list of names, &c., such as a muster-roll. **État** likewise means the pay list.

**ÉTAT-Major.** Fr. Staff. État-major in the French service, is a more comprehensive term than staff appears to be in our acceptance of the word. As we have in some degree adopted the term, it cannot be superfluous to give a short account of its origin, &c. Among the French, according to the author of the Recueil Alphabetique des textes et documents pris à l'art de la guerre, état-major signifies a specific number of officers who are distinguished from others belonging to the same corps. It did not follow, that every regiment was to have its staff, as the king had the power of appointing or suppressing staff officers at pleasure.

The **état-major général de l'infanterie**, or the general staff of the infantry, was created under Francis I. in 1525. That of the light cavalry under Charles IX. in 1563. That of the dragonnades under Louis XIV. in 1669.

The **état-major** of an infantry regiment, was composed of the colonel, the major, the aid-major, quarter-master, the chaplain, the provost-major, the surgeon, and the attendant commissary, who was called *le commissaire à la conduite*. To these were added the lieutenant of the provost-ship, the person who kept the regimental register, or the greffier, the drum-major, six archers, and the executioner. By this establishment it is presupposed, that a provostship was allowed in the regiment, which was not a general regulation, but depended upon the king's pleasure.

The **état-major**, or staff of an old French regiment of cavalry, according to the *Ordonnance*, or military regulations which was issued on the 4th of November, in 1651, consisted of the *maître de camp*, or colonel of the horse, the major and the aid-major. It is therein particularly stated, that the état-major of a cavalry regiment shall not have a provostship, a chaplain, a surgeon, nor any other subordinate officer under that denomination.

Every fortified town or place had likewise its appropriate état-major, consisting of a certain number of officers, who were subject to specific and distinct regulations.

By an order dated the 1st of August, 1733, the officers belonging to the état-major of a garrison town, or citadel, were strictly forbidden to absent themselves more than four days from their places of residence, without especial leave from the king, nor even for four days, unless they obtained permission from the governor or commandant of the town or citadel. See Staff-Corps.

**ÉTAT de la Guerre.** Fr. the necessary dispositions and arrangements agreed upon between a government, the commander in chief, and such officers as the latter may think proper to consult, in order to carry on a campaign with advantage. Properly speaking, it is the plan which is to be followed relative to the nature and number of the troops that are to be employed.

**ÉTENDARD.** Fr. Standard. This word derives its name from the circumstance of its application, being constantly stretched out, (*étendu*) or displayed. This etymology does not appear to hold good with our translation of the word.

**ÉTENDRE une armée.** Fr. to extend the front or advanced posts of an army, for the purpose of appearing formidable to the enemy, or of outflanking him. This is a most critical manœuvre, and requires the nicest judgment. The battle of Marengo would probably never have been lost by the Austrians, had not their General, Melas, weakened his centre, by the extension of his flanks. This ill-judged movement gave the opening which was so dexterously seized upon by Desaix, to whom the French and Bonaparte stand indebted for the victory.

**ÉTENDRE une tranchée.** Fr. to prolong the parallels or places of arms, either on one side only, or to the right and left of a trench.

**ÉTERCILLON, ou arcboutant.** Fr. Buttress. A piece of wood which is placed transverse, or horizontally in the galleries of a mine, in order to sustain the earth on both sides; but most especially to keep the chamber well closed, and to support the corners of the gallery.

**ÉTIQUETTE.** A French term, primarily denoting a ticket or title affixed to
to a bag or bundle of papers, expressing its contents. It is also used, when applied to the Spanish and some other courts, to signify a particular account of what is to be done daily in the king's household. It likewise denotes those forms that regulate the decorum of conduct towards persons of various ranks and stations. In the Austrian service, military etiquette is punctiliously attended to; and in the old French service the utmost deference was paid to a superior officer by an inferior, at all times, and on all occasions.

ÉTOILES, Fr. small redoubts, which are constructed by means of angles rentrant and angles sortant, and have from five to eight salient points. Each one of their sides or faces may contain from 12 to 23 toises. This species of fortification has fallen into disuse, not only because étoiles do not possess the advantage of having their angle rentrant effectually flanked, but because they have been superseded, by square redoubts, which are sooner built, and are applicable to the same purposes of defence.

ÉTOUPEILLE, Fr. an inflammable match, composed of three threads of very fine cotton, which is well steeped in brandy mixed with the best priming gun-powder.

ÉTRANGERS, Fr. Strangers.

REGLEMENT MILITAI RE RELATIF AUX ÉTRANGERS QUI ARRIVENT AUX PORTES D'UNE VILLE DE GUERRE, Fr. rules and regulations observed in all garrison towns relative to strangers. It is customary in all garrison towns abroad, not to suffer a stranger to enter the place without being asked at the outward gate, his name, the place he comes from, whither he is going, and at what inn or private house he intends to alight. He is next brought to the officer of the guard, who has him conducted before the governor or commandant, who suffers him to proceed, if his papers are correct: if not, he is put under arrest. The inhabitants and inn-keepers are obliged to send in, within 24 hours, the names of their lodgers. It was to be wished that more circumspection could be observed in our own sea-ports on this head.

The entrance into the camps of Great Britain and Ireland is not sufficiently guarded in this respect; particularly of those which are opposite the French and Dutch shores.

ÉTRAPADE, Fr. a sort of crane with a pulley. This machine was formerly used among the French in order to punish military delinquents; it was hence called l'étrapade. The unfortunate wretch had his hands tied behind his back, with ropes fastened to them; he was then hauled up, and suddenly let down within one foot of the ground; so that by means of the jerk, and through the weight of his body, every limb must instantly be dislocated. This barbarous and inhuman mode of torturing the human frame was repeated more than once, according to the degree of guilt with which the culprit stood accused or convicted. This punishment has been in use at Rome, for the purpose of correcting disorderly conduct at the opera, &c.

ÉTRIER, Fr. stirrup.

ÉTRIVIERS ou courroies, Fr. the straps of leather which hang on each side of a saddle, commonly called stirrup leathers.

TO EVACUATE, (évacuer, Fr.) In military history, a term made use of in the articles of capitulation granted to the besieged at the time they surrender to the besiegers, and signifying to quit.

EVACUATION, (évacuation, Fr.) the evacuation of a town or post in consequence of a treaty between the belligerent or neutral powers, in pursuance of superior orders, or from obvious necessity.

S'ÉVADER, Fr. to go off clandestinely; to retreat in the night, or under any other cover.

ÉVASEMENT D'UNE EMBRASSURE, Fr. that part of an embrasure that is facing the rampart.

ÉVASION, Fr. clandestine retreat.

EVENT, Fr. vent. This word is particularly applicable to the vent or cavity which is left in cannon, or other fire-arms, after they have been proved and found defective. The vent is sometimes round and sometimes long. Vents are frequently so exiguous, that they appear like lines of a small fibre, through which water will ooze, and smoke evaporate. These pieces, whether of ordnance or of musquetry, are of course rejected.

EVER-
ÉVERSION, Fr. The ruin, the overthrow of a state, occasioned by a long war, or by continual internal disturbances and seditions.

EVIDENCE, a declaration made in the presence of any person knows of his own knowledge relative to the matter in question. Military men are obliged to attend and give evidence before courts martial, without any expense to the prosecutor or prisoner.

Hearsay EVIDENCE, the declaration of what one has, heard from others. As in all other courts of British judicature, this species of evidence is not admissible in courts martial.

EVOCAȚI, were a class of soldiers among the Romans, who, after having served their full time in the army, entered as volunteers to accompany some favourite general. Hence they were likewise called emeriti and beneficiarii.

EVOCATION, a religious ceremony which was always observed among the Romans, at the commencement of a siege, wherein they solemnly called upon the gods and goddesses of the place to forsake it, and come over to them. When any place surrendered, they always took it for granted, that their prayer had been heard, and that the Dei Penates, or the household gods of the place had come over to them.

EVILOVE, in the art of war, the motion made by a body of troops, when they are obliged to change their form and disposition, in order to preserve a post, occupy another, to attack an enemy with more advantage, or to be in a condition of defending themselves the better. That evolution is best, which, with a given number of men, may be executed in the least space, and consequently in the least time possible.

EVILOVE of the moderns, is a change of position, which has always for its object either offence or defence. The essentials in the performance of an evolution are, order, directness, and the greatest possible rapidity.

EVOLUTIONS may be divided into two classes, the simple and the compound; simple evolutions are those which consist in simple movements, which do not alter the shape or figure of the battalion, but merely afford a more or less extended front or depth; keep it more or less closed to its flank or center, turn its aspect to flank or rear, or break it into divisions, subdivisions, sections or files, in order that it may unfold itself, or defile and resume its proper front or order of battle. All the various ways of defiling, forming line, opening to right and left, closing or deploying, doubling the ranks or files, or changing front upon either of the flanks by conversion, are called simple evolutions.

Compound evolutions are those which change the shape and figure of battalions, break them into divisions or companies, separate the companies from the main body, and again replace or rejoin them; in a word which afford the means of presenting a front at every direction. Compound evolutions are practised either by repeating the same simple evolution several times, or by going through several simple evolutions, which ultimately tend to the same object.

The EVOLUTIONS of the ancients were formed and executed with uncommon good sense and ability. Considering the depth and size of the Grecian phalanx, it is astonishing how the different parts could be rendered susceptible of the most intricate and varied evolutions. The Roman legion, though more favourable to such changes and conversions, from being more loose and detached, did not execute them upon sounder or better principles.

EVOLUTION (in geometry) the equal evolution of the periphery of a circle, or any other curve, is such a gradual approach of the circumference to rectitude, as that all its parts do meet together, and equally evolve or unbend; so that the same line becomes successively a less arch of a reciprocally greater circle, till at last they turn into a straight line.

EVOLUTION of powers (in algebra) extracting of roots from any given power, being the reverse of involution.

EXAGÔN. See HEXAGON.

EXAMILIAN, a famous wall two leagues long, which one of the Grecian Emperors caused to be erected on the Isthmus of Corinth. Amurat II. ordered it to be demolished, but the Venetians had it erected again in 1463, in a fortnight's time.

EXAMINER. One who scrutinizes. EXAMINER of the army accounts, is a person...
person in office, under whose inspection all claims made by the regimental agents fall; to whose office they are transmitted of course, in virtue of a general delegation of that duty to him by the secretary at war; after his examination and report, the secretary at war, in many instances, orders partial issues of money by letter to the pay master general. No final payment is made, except under the authority of a warrant countersigned by the secretary at war, and in most instances by three lords of the treasury. The regimental agents account finally to the secretary at war.

EXCAVATION, the act of cutting or otherwise making hollows; also the cavity formed. In military matters, it is generally applied to the place from whence the earth or other substance has been taken by mining.

EXAMPLE, any act or word which disposes to imitation. The example of a superior officer has considerable influence over the mind of an inferior; but in no one instance does it appear more important than in the good and bad behaviour of a non-commissioned officer or corporal. These characters, therefore, should be particularly correct in their duties, tenacious of every principle of military honour, and remarkable for honesty. Old soldiers should likewise direct their attention to the strict observance of rules and regulations, as young recruits always look up to them for example.

EXAMINATION, a scrutiny or investigation of abilities, conduct, &c. All officers of artillery and engineers are obliged to undergo an examination in mathematics, fortification, and gunnery, prior to their having commissions. Surgeons and assistant surgeons are examined before the medical board.

EXAUCTORATIO, in the Roman military discipline, differed from the missio, which was a full discharge, and took place after soldiers had served in the army 20 years; whereas the exauctoratio was only a partial discharge: they lost their pay indeed, but still kept under their colours or vexilla, though not under the aquila or eagle, which was the standard of the legion; whence instead of legionarii, they were called subsignani, and were retained till they had either served their full time, or had lands assigned them. The exauctoratio took place after they had served 17 years.

EXCELLENCY, a title anciently given to kings and emperors, but now chiefly confined to ambassadors, generals and other persons, who are not entitled to that of highness, and yet are to be elevated above the other inferior dignities.

It is likewise applicable to persons in high command; as his excellency, the commander in chief.

EXCHANGE, in a military sense, implies the removal of an officer from one regiment to another, or from full to half pay, and vice versa: It is usual on these occasions for individuals belonging to the latter class to receive a pecuniary consideration. See Difference.

EXCHANGE of prisoners, the act of giving up men, that have been taken in war, upon stipulated conditions which are subscribed to by contending powers.

EXCHANGE, in a general sense, signifies any contract or agreement whereby persons or things are exchanged for others.

EXCHEQUER. The public office from whence all monies are issued for the use of the army. With respect to the militia, it is enacted that the money paid for that particular service, shall be kept apart from all other money.

Officers belonging to the exchequer are not to take any fees for receiving or issuing such money.

EXCITE. See ANIMATE.

EXCUABLE, in antiquity, the watches and guards kept in the day by the Roman soldiers. They differed from the vigilia which were kept in the night.

EXCURSION. Fr. irruption or incursion of one nation into another, for hostile purposes.

EXÉCUTER. Fr. The French use this verb technically. They say, exécuter et servir une pièce. See the particular method of so doing, under tirer le canon, to fire a gun or cannon.

EXÉCUTER, Fr. to execute, to put to death.

EXECUTION.—Military Execution (exécution militaire sur pays ennemi, Fr.) the plunder and waste of a country whose inhabitants refuse to submit to the terms imposed upon them.

Military Execution also means every kind of punishment inflicted on the
the army by the sentence of a court-martial; which is of various kinds, such as tying up to 3 halberts, and receiving a number of lashes with a whip, composed of 9 whip-cord lashes, and each lash of 9 knots, from the drummer; or running the gantlope through the parade at guard mounting, drawn up in two lines for that purpose; when the provost marches through with twigs or switches, and every soldier takes as many as there are prisoners to be punished: the prisoner then marches through the 2 lines, and each soldier gives him a hard stroke, the major riding up and down to see that the men lay on properly. When a soldier is to be punished with death, a detachment of about 200 men from the regiment he belongs to form the parade, when a file of grenadiers shoots the prisoner to death.

N. B. Every nation has different modes of punishment. The cat with nine tails is to punish foot soldiers; dragoons and cavalry men are generally picketed.

EXECUTORS, persons authorized by will to manage the affairs of one deceased. Paymasters, agents, or clerks, not accounting with the executors of officers or soldiers, forfeit their employment and 100l. See mutiny Act, Sect. 71. EXEMPT, men of 45 years of age are exempt from serving in the militia. An aid-de-camp and brigade-major are exempt from all regimental duties while serving in these capacities. Officers on courts-martial are sometimes exempt from all other duties until the court is dissolved.

EXEMPTION, the privilege to be free from some service or appearance. Thus officers and principals in the militia who have served during the war, according to prescribed regulations, are exempted from being balloted for.

EXEMTS, Fr. so called originally, from being exempted from certain services, or entitled to peculiar privileges. The exons of St. James's derive their appellation from events. In France they consisted of three classes, viz. EXEMTS du ban et arrière ban, persons exempted from being enrolled for that particular service were so called. They consisted of the domestic attendants belonging to the palace, those attached to the princes and princesses of the blood; all persons actually serving his majesty, together with the sons of officers who were in the army.

EXEMTS des gardes du corps. Exempts belonging to the body guards. They were twelve in number, and held the rank of captains of cavalry, taking precedence of all captains whose commissions were of a younger date to the brevet of the exempts.

These brevet commissions were given away under the old government of France. The exons purchase their places at St. James's, but they do not rank with the army.

EXEMTS des maréchaussées. Certain persons employed to keep the public peace. Maréchaussée means in a literal sense, marhsaleys. But the functions of the exempts were of a nature peculiar to France. They held their situations under commissions, bearing the great seal, which were forwarded to them by the secretary at war. The privileges they enjoyed were to be exempted from all taxes, &c. but they could not institute any species of criminal information without the concurrence of the greffier or sheriff.

EXERCISE, in military affairs, is the practice of all those motions and actions, together with the whole management of arms, which a soldier is to be perfect in, to render him fit for service, and make him understand how to attack and defend. Exercise is the first part of the military art; and the more it is considered the more essential it will appear. It disengages the human frame from the stiff rusticity of simple nature, and forms men and horses to all the evolutions of war. The honour, merit, appearance, strength, and success of a corps depend wholly upon the attention which has been paid to the drill and exercise of it, according to prescribed rules and regulations; while on the other hand we see the greatest armies, for want of being exercised, instantly disordered, and that disorder increasing in spite of command; the confusion oversets the art of skilful masters, and the valour of the men only serves to precipitate the defeat: for which reason it is the duty of every officer to take care, that the recruits be drilled as soon as they join the corps.

The greatest advantage derived from

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this species of exercise, is the expertness with which men become capable of loading and firing, and their learning an attention to act in conformity with those around them. It has always been lamented, that men have been brought on service, without being informed of the uses of the different manoeuvres they have been practising; and that having no ideas of anything but the uniformity of the parade, they instantly fall into disorder and confusion when they lose the step, or see a deviation from the straight lines they have been accustomed to at exercise. It is a pity to see so much attention confined to show, and so little given to instruct the troops in what may be of use to them on service. Though the parade is the place to form the characters of soldiers, and to teach them uniformity, yet when confined to that alone, it is too limited and mechanical for a true military genius.

The great loss which our troops sustained in Germany, America, and the West-Indies, during a former war, from sickness, and not from the enemy, was chiefly owing to a neglect of exercise. An army whose numbers vanish after the first 4 months of a campaign, may be very ready to give battle in their existing period; but the fact is, that although fighting is one part of a soldier's business, yet bearing fatigue, and being in health, is another, and at least as essential as the first. A campaign may pass without a battle; but no part of a campaign can be gone through without fatigue, without marches, without an exposure to bad weather; all of which have exercise for their foundation; and if soldiers are not trained and enured to these casualties, but sink under them, they become inadequate to bodily fatigue, and eventually turn out a burden to their country.

It is not from numbers, or from inconsiderate valour, that we are to expect victory; in battle she commonly follows capacity, and a knowledge of arms. We do not see, that the Romans made use of any other means to conquer the world, than a continual practice of military exercises, an exact discipline in their camps, and a constant attention to cultivate the art of war. Hence, both ancients and moderns agree, that there is no other way to form good soldiers, but by exercise and discipline; and it is by a continual practice and attention to this, that the Prussians have arrived at that point of perfection which has been so much admired in their evolutions, and manual exercise.

Formerly in the British service every commander in chief, or officer commanding a corps, adopted or invented such manoeuvres as he judged proper, excepting in the instance of a few regulations for review, neither the manual exercise, nor quick and slow marching were precisely defined by authority. Consequently when regiments from different parts of the kingdom were brigaded, they were unable to act in line till the general officer commanding had established some temporary system to be observed by all under his command. These inconveniences were at length obviated by the rules and regulations compiled by general Dundas on the system of the Prussian discipline, as established by Frederick the Great.

By His Majesty's orders first issued in 1792, this system is directed to be "strictly followed and adhered to without any deviation whatsoever. And such orders before given, as are found to interfere with, or counteract their effect and operation, are to be considered as cancelled and annulled."

**Infantry Exercise**, includes the use of the firelock and practice of the manoeuvres for regiments of foot, according to the regulations issued by authority.

When a regiment of foot is drawn up, or paraded for exercise, the men are placed two and sometimes three deep, which latter is the natural formation of a battalion. The grenadiers are on the right, and the light infantry on the left. In order to have the manual exercise well performed, it is in a particular manner requisite, that the ranks and files be even, well dressed, and the file-leaders well covered: this must be very strictly attended to both by the major, and his adjutant: all officers also, on service in general, where men are drawn up under arms, or without, must be careful, that the ranks and files are exactly even; and the soldiers must learn to dress themselves at once, without the necessity of being directed to do it. The beauty of all exercise and marching, consists in seeing a soldier carry
carry his arms well, keep his firelock steady and even in the hollow of his shoulder, the right hand hanging down, and the whole body without constraint. The musquets when shouldered, should be exactly dressed in rank and file; the men must keep their bodies upright, and in full front, not having one shoulder too far forward, or the other too backward. The distances between the files must be equal, and not greater than from arm to arm, which gives the requisite room for the motions. The ranks are to be two paces distant from each other. Every motion must be done with life, and all facing, wheelings, and marchings, performed with the greatest exactness. Hence a regiment should never be under arms longer than two hours. See FIRRINGS, MANUCAAL AND MANOEUVRES.

Cavalry Exercise. is of two sorts, on horseback, and on foot. The squadrons for exercise are sometimes drawn up three deep, though frequently two deep; the tallest men and horses in the front, and so on. When a regiment is formed in squadrons, the distance of 24 feet, as a common interval, is always to be left between the ranks; and the files must keep boot-top to boot-top. The officers commanding squadrons must, above all things, be careful to form with great celerity, and, during the whole time of exercise, to preserve their several distances. In all wheelings, the flank which wheels, must come about in full gallop. The men must keep a steady seat upon their horses, and have their stirrups at a fit length.

Cavalry Sword Exercise. See SWORD EXERCISE.

Artillery Exercise, is the method of teaching the regiments of artillery the use and practice of all the various machines of war, viz.

Exercise of the light field pieces, teaches the men to load, ram, and sponge the guns well; to elevate them according to the distance, by the quadrant and screw; to judge of distances and elevations without the quadrant; how to use the port-fire, match, and take for quick firing; how to fix the drag ropes, and use them in advancing, retreating, and wheeling with the field-pieces; how to fix and unfix the trail of the carriage on the limbers, and how to fix and unfix the boxes for grape-shot on the carriages of each piece.

Exercise of the garrison and buttering artillery, is to teach the men how to load, ram, and sponge; how to handle the hand-spikes in elevating and depressing the metal to given distances, and for ricochet; how to adjust the coins, and work the gun to its proper place; and how to point and fire with exactness, &c.

Mortar Exercise, is of two different sorts, viz. with powder and shells unloaded, and with powder and shells loaded; each of which is to teach the men their duty, and to make them handy in using the implements for loading, pointing, traversing, and firing, &c. See PRACTICE.

Howitzer Exercise, differs but little from the mortar, except that it is liable to various elevations; whereas that of the mortar is fixed to an angle of 45°; but the men should be taught the method of ricochet-firing, and how to practice with grape shot: each method requiring a particular degree of elevation. See PRACTICE.

EXERCISES, are also understood of what young gentlemen or cadets learn in the military academies and riding schools; such as fencing, dancing, riding, the manual exercise, &c. The late establishment at High Wycomb is calculated to render young officers perfectly competent to all the duties of military service, provided they have been previously instructed in the first rudiments. Officers are there taught and exercised in the higher branches of tactics and manoeuvres. We hope, for the sake of the army in general, that this institution will be extended in proportion to the service which a more enlarged scale would unquestionably render.

EXHORT. See ANIMATE.

EXPEDITION, (expédition, Fr.) in a general sense, signifies haste, speed, rapidity. In a military sense, it is chiefly used to denote a voyage or march against an enemy, the success of which depends on rapid and unexpected movements. It is out of the nature of the thing itself to lay down fixed rules for the minute conducting of small expeditions; their first principles only can
be with certainty fixed, and men will often disagree about preparations and differ in their conduct, though they acknowledge the same principles.

One of the principles of many small expeditions, is surprise; and 6 battalions, without much accommodation, may sometimes do that which 24, and a great fleet, would not succeed in.

There is no part of war so interesting to an insular soldier as an expedition; nor can there be any part more worthy of attention.

Expeditions hitherto have had no rules laid down for their conduct, and that part of war has never been reduced to a system. The slow rules of a great war will not do in expeditions; the blow must be struck with surprise, and intimidation be produced in the invaded enemy, before succours can arrive. Debate is out of season, and all slow proceedings are ruin. Not to advance, is to recede; and not to be on the road to conquest, is to be already conquered.

There must be that glance, which sees certainly, though instantly; that rapidity, which executes on the surest rules, when it seems least to act on any.

In all small expeditions, such as expeditions of surprise, or coups-de-main, the favourable side of the proposed action must ever be viewed; for if what may happen, what may arrive, what may fall out, is chiefly thought upon, it will, at the very best, greatly discourage, but in general end in a total failure. Hence the very name of an expedition implies risk, hazard, precarious warfare, and a critical operation.

An expedition is governed by five principal maxims.

1st, A secrecy, if possible, of preparation, and a concealment of design, &c.

2dly. That the means bear proportion to the end. In this there will ever be a difference in opinion.

3dly, A knowledge of the state and situation of the country, where the scene of action is, or the place or object that is to be attacked.

4thly, A commander who has the particular turn of mind, which is most adapted to such particular sort of warfare.

Lastly, The plan of an expedition, great or small, is ever to be arranged as much as possible before setting out, and then any appearances that may vary a little from what might have been expected, will not perplex.

Expedition, Fr. See expedition. The French likewise use this word, to express any particular military quality, which an officer or soldier may possess. As, cet officier est un homme d'expédition; this officer is a man of enterprise, is courageous and daring.

Expeditions, Fr. Dispatches. Expeditionnaire, Fr. An officer at the Pope's Court, whose duty it is to attend to the dispatches. The French also use this term as an adjective, viz. Armée d'expéditionnaire, an army collected together for an expedition.

EXPLOIT. See Achievement.

To EXPLODE, to burst or blow up. EXPLORATEUR, Fr. in a military sense, a person sent out to reconnoitre. In plain English an authorized or rather pensioned spy. According to Mr. Sheridan, a genteel reporter. It was usual among the French, (and is so probably at this moment) to give a certain rank with adequate allowances, to divers ingenious men, in order to afford them an introduction at the several courts, for the specific purpose of observing what passed, &c. The French are great adepts in this art.

EXPLOSION, the discharge of a gun, the blowing up of a mine, or the bursting of a shell.

S'EXPOSER, Fr. to expose one's self to the fire of the enemy, and to all manner of danger.

EXPRESS. A messenger sent with direct and specific instructions. To send by Express, to send any thing by extraordinary conveyance.

EXPUGN, the taking any. EXPUGNATION, the place by assault.

EXPUNCTUS, a Roman soldier who had been discharged or degraded, and consequently struck off the muster-roll.

EXPERIMENTS, in a military sense, are the trials, or applications of any kind of military machines, in order to ascertain their practical qualities and uses.

EXTEND, when the files of a line, or the divisions of a column are to occupy a greater space of ground, they are said to extend their front or line. Extended...
tended order is applicable to the light infantry.

EXTORTION, the act of obtaining money or property by violence or unjust means; taking advantage of the ignorance or peculiar circumstances of a purchaser, to demand more than a fair price for an article. All sutlers, or camp followers, who are guilty of extortion in the sale of necessaries, are punishable by a general or regimental court-martial.

EXTRADOS, Fr. The exterior surface of a regular arch, used in the construction of powder magazines.

EXTRAORDINAIRE de la guerre, Fr. a fund which is collected for the extraordinary expenses of a war.

EXTRAORDINARIES of the army. The allowances to troops, beyond the gross pay in the pay-office, come under the head of extraordinaries to the army. Such are the expences for barracks, marches, encampments, staff, &c.

EXTRAORDINARII, among the Romans, were a body of men consisting of a third part of the foreign horse, and a fifth of the foot, which body was separated from the rest of the forces borrowed from the confederate states, with great caution and policy, to prevent any design, that they might possibly entangle against the natural forces. A more choice body of men was drawn from amongst the extraordinarii, under the name of abelecti. See ABLECTI.

EXTRAORDINARY. Something out of the common course.

EXTRAORDINARY couriers, persons sent with some information or order of great importance.

EXTRAORDINARY guards. Guards out of the common routine of duty. They are frequently given as a punishment for military offences.

EXTREMITÉ, Fr. reduced to the last shift. When a besieged town is entirely destitute of provisions and of means of defence, it is said to be reduced to the last extremity.

EYES center, a word of command given when the battalion is advancing in line, denoting, that the men are to look to the center in which the colours are placed, and dress by them.

EYES right, Words of command denoting the flank to which the soldier is to dress. In casting his eyes to either flank care must be taken that the shoulders are kept square to the front.

EYES front, a word of command given after the dressing in line is completed, on which the soldier is to look directly forward, which is the habitual position of the soldier. These motions are only useful on the wheelings of divisions, or when dressing is ordered after a halt, and particular attention must be paid in the several turnings of the eyes, to prevent the soldier from moving his body, which must invariably be preserved perfectly square to the front. See Regulations, p. 4.

EYE-bolts. See BOLTS.

FACADE, in military fortification. See FACE.

FACE, in fortification, is an appellation given to several parts of a fortress; as the Face of a bastion, the two sides, reaching from the flanks to the salient angle. These in a siege are commonly the first undermined, because they extend most outwards, and are the least flanked; consequently the weakest.

FACE prolonged, that part of the Face extended, line of defence razant, which is terminated by the curtain and the angle of the shoulder; that is, it is, strictly taken, the line of defence razant, diminished by the face of the bastion.

FACE of a place, (face d’un ouvrage, Fr.) is the front comprehended between the flanked angles of the two neighbouring bastions, composed of a curtain,
two flanks, and two faces; and is sometimes called the Tenaille of the place.

FACE of a gun, is the superincumbent of the metal at the extremities of the muzzle of the piece.

FACE, (to the right, left, &c.) a word of command on which the soldiers individually turn to the side directed; in performing which, the left heel should never quit the ground, the knees must be kept straight, and the body turned smoothly and gracefully.

To the right, FACE. 2 motions.—1st, Place the hollow of the right foot smartly against the left heel; 2d, Raise the toes, and turn a quarter of the circle to the right on both heels.

To the right about, FACE. 3 motions.—1st, Place the ball of the right toe against the left heel; 2d, Raise the toes, and turn half of a circle to the right about on both heels; 3d, Bring the right foot smartly back in a line with the left.

To the left, FACE. 2 motions.—1st, Place the right heel against the hollow of the left foot; 2d, Turn a quarter of the circle to the left on both heels.

To the left about, FACE. 3 motions.—1st, Place the right heel against the ball of the left foot; 2d, Raise the toes, and turn half of a circle to the left about on both heels; 3d, Bring up the right foot smartly in a line with the left.

Great precision must be observed in these facing; otherwise the dressing will be lost in every movement.

FACES of a square. The different sides of a battalion, &c. when formed into a square, are all denominated faces, viz. the front face, the right face, the left face, and the rear face. See SQUARE.

FACE du bataillon, Fr. See Front d'une armée.

FACE ou pan de bastion, Fr. See FACE of a bastion.

FACINGS, are the different movements of a battalion, or of any other body of men, to the right, to the left, or right and left about. All facings must be executed with a straight knife; and the body must be kept firm, and turn steadily, without dropping forward or jerking. The plant of the foot, after facing about, must be sharp.

Facings, likewise signify the lapels, cuffs, and collar of a military uniform, and are generally different from the colour of the coat or jacket.

Guerre FACTICE, Fr. an imaginary contest.

Bataille FACTICE, a sham fight. It is also called guerre simulée, guerre de convénance.

FACTION, Fr. the duty done by a private soldier when he patroles, goes the rounds, &c. but most especially when he stands centry. The French usually say, entrer en faction, to come upon duty; être en faction, to be upon duty; sortir de faction, to come off duty.

FACTIONNAIRE, Fr. soldat factionnaire, a soldier that does every species of detail duty.

The term factionnaire was likewise applicable to the duty done by officers, in the old French service. Premier factionnaire du régiment implied, that the officer, so called, was the fourth captain of a battalion; as the colonel, lieutenant colonel, major, and the captains of grenadiers did not mount the ordinary guards.

FAGOTS, in military history, are men hired to muster by officers whose companies are not complete; by which means they cheat the sovereign of so many men's pay, and deprive the country of its regular establishment. See False return.

Fagots. See Fascines.

Fagot ardent, Fr. a species of fascine which is made of dry sticks steeped in pitch. The fagot ardent, or burning fascine, is used in the defence of fortified places, and serves to annoy the besiegers.

Fagots de Sappe, Fr. Fascines instead of bags to fill up the spaces between the gabions; they are at most three feet long and eighteen inches diameter.

Fagots Goudronnés, Fr. pitched sticks of wood, or branches tied together, which are first set on fire, and then thrown into the ditches in order to see what is going on.

FAILURE, an unsuccessful attempt; as the failure of an expedition.

FAIRE faux feu, Fr. to miss fire; to flash in the pan.

FAIRE la ronde, Fr. to go the rounds.

FAISCEAU d'armes, Fr. a pile of arms; a sort of wooden rack or machine which is used for the different stands of arms belonging to a troop or company.
company. The stakes which support the colours are also called *fausceaux*.

FAITS GUERRIERS, Fr. warlike deeds; seats of personal valour and discretion.

FALACQUE, a bastinade given to the janissaries and other Turkish soldiers on the sole of the foot.

FALAISE, Fr. Any part of the sea-coast is so called by the French, when it is extremely steep, and broken into precipices.

FALAISER, Fr. to break upon. *La mer falaise signifies, the sea breaks upon the shore.*

FALAISES, Fr. those borders of the sea which are formed of high steep rocks, mountains, or sand-hills.

FALCHION, a short crooked sword.

FALCON, or Faucon, an ancient name given to a piece of ordnance. See *Cannon*.

FALCONET, an ancient name given to a 14-pounder. See *Cannon*.

FALERIQUE, Fr. but not Falarique, a kind of dart composed of fire-works, which the ancients shot against the towers of the besieged, in order to set them on fire; the real *falerique*, however, was a beam loaded with fire-work, contained within iron, pointed on all sides, and which was thrown against the towers of the enemy, by means of the *catapulta* or *balista*.

FALL. The fall of a place after it has been besieged. See *Surrender*.

To FALL. A town or fortified place is said to fall when it is so completely invested, that the garrison can no longer be subsisted, and must surrender.

To FALL back. To recede from any situation in which you are placed. This phrase is frequently, indeed always, made use of in the drill, or exercise of soldiers; particularly during the formation of a line, when individuals, or whole divisions, are apt to overstep their ground and get beyond the dressing point.

FALL in, a word of command for men to form in ranks, as in parade, line, or division, &c.

To fall in likewise means the minute arrangement of a battalion, company, guard or squad, by which every man is ordered to take his proper post. The long roll, a peculiar beat of the drum, is the usual signal for soldiers to assemble and fall in.

To FALL into, to become the property of another, as, we fell in with a large convoy of the enemy, which, after a short resistance made by the Escort, fell into our hands.

To fall into, to be within the power of a person; as, to fall into the hands of an enemy. The French use the verb *tomber* in the same sense, viz. *tomber entre les mains de l'ennemi*. It also signifies to get into a dangerous situation, as to fall into an ambush laid by the enemy.

To FALL in with. A military technical phrase, signifying any sudden or unlooked for rencontre of an enemy. As *Our light cavalry patrols fell in with a party of foragers belonging to the enemy's army*.

To FALL off, to desert; to fail; to relax in exertion.

To FALL out, to quit the rank or file in which you were first posted. Dirty soldiers on a parade are frequently ordered to fall out, and remain in the rear of their companies. The phrase is applicable in a variety of other instances.

To FALL upon. To attack abruptly. As, we no sooner came in sight of the enemy, but our advanced guard instantly fell upon his out-posts and beat them in. According to the celebrated General Monk, it is very fit, that a general should often command his horse and dragoons to fall upon an enemy's outermost horse quarters; which mode, he says, is one of the easiest, readiest, and securest ways to break an enemy's army.

FALOTS, Fr. small lanterns fixed upon the end of a stick or pole. Small lamps are likewise used, attached in the same manner, for the purpose of carrying them readily about to light a camp, or besieged towns, as occasion may require.

FALSE alarm, (fausse alarme, Fr.) an alarm, or apprehension which is either designedly or unintentionally created by noise, report, or signals, without being dangerous.

FALSE attack, (fausse attaque, Fr.) an approach which is made as a feint for the purpose of diverting your enemy from the real object of attack.

FALSE fires, any fire or light which is made use of for the purpose of deceiving
ceiving an enemy. False fires or lights are frequently resorted to when an army finds it necessary to retreat from an advanced position. On this occasion large fires are lighted in different parts of the camp, and round the lines, previous to the departure of the troops, which generally happens in the night.

**False lights**, in debarkations under cover of the night, may likewise be used as signals of deception, when it is found expedient to attract the attention of the invaded country towards one part of the coast or territory, whilst a real attack is meditated against another.

**False muster**, an incorrect statement of the effective number of men or horses, by which government is defrauded. By the articles of war every officer, paymaster, or commissary, found guilty of false mustering, is ordered to be cashiered.

**False report.** A false report in military matters, may be truly said to be the ground work of a false return and a false muster, and consequently the primary cause of imposition upon the public. The strictest attention should, therefore, be paid to the most trifling report which is made in a troop or company respecting the presence or absence of men or horses, the state of clothing, accoutrements or necessities. This can only be done by the commanding officer of such troop or company having constantly the general good of the service at heart in preference to his own convenience, or to that of others. Every sergeant or corporal of a squad should be severely punished when detected in making a false report.

**False return**, a wilful report of the actual state of a brigade, regiment, troop, or company, by which the commander in chief or the war-office is deceived, as to the effective force of such regiment, troop or company.

**FANAUX, Fr.** Lights at the top of a high tower, at the entrance of a seaport. The appellation of feur is given to those that light a camp in certain cases; either to deceive the enemy, or to discover his movements by night.

**FANFARE, Fr.** A particular military tune. It in general is short, but very expressive, and executed on the trumpet.

**FANFARON, Fr.** A bully; a man who affects a courage he is not possessed of; and who is inwardly conscious of being a coward.

**FANFARONNADe, Fr.** The act of bullying.

**FANFARONNERIE, Fr.** A particular standard which was carried in the front of the ordinary baggage belonging to a brigade in the old French service. It was made of serge, and resembled in colour the uniform or livery of the brigadier, or of the commandant of any particular corps.

**FANON, Fr.** The diminutive of gonfanon. A banner of less width than that worn by a baron.

**FANONS, Fr.** The dressing of broken limbs.

**FANTASSIN, Fr.** A foot soldier. The term is derived from the Italian fanto, which likewise signifies infantry.

**FARAillon, Fr.** A light-house.

**FARIAL, Fr.** A light-house; also a watch-light.

**FARRIER, in a general acceptation of the term, any person who shoes horses, or professes to cure their diseases. In a practical military sense, a man appointed to do the duty of farriery in a troop of dragoons. Troop farriers are under the immediate superintendence and control of a veterinary surgeon, to whom they must apply whenever a horse is ill or lame, that he may report the same to the officer commanding the troop. No farrier is to presume to do any thing without having first received directions from his superior.**

When the farrier goes round, after riding out, or exercise on horseback, he must carry his hammer, pincers, and some nails, to fasten any shoe that may be loose.

When horses at out-quarters fall particularly ill, or contract an obstinate lameness, the case must be reported to the head-quarters of the regiment; and if the veterinary surgeon cannot prescribe for him at a distance, he must, if time and distance will permit, personally sent to examine the horse.

No farrier must presume to make up any medicine or any external application contrary to the receipt given him by the veterinary surgeon.

*If any farrier, through carelessness or inattentiveness...*
isattention, lames a horse belonging to another troop, he ought to be at all the expense in curing the horse so lamed. In some well-regulated dragoon corps this forms one of the standing regimental orders.

Farriers are in every respect liable to be tried according to the articles of war. They may be ordered to inflict punishments; and they must constantly recollect that the circumstance of being a farrier is no extenuation for dirty appearance, or excuse for drunkenness: The guilt of the latter vice, indeed, is aggravated by the responsibility of their situation.

Farrier-Major, a person who was formerly appointed by the colonel of a dragoon regiment, to superintend the farriers of troops, who are named by the several commanding officers of them. He has since been superseded or replaced by a veterinary surgeon, who, (as the farrier-major was formerly directed,) is to have free access to every stall of the regiment whenever he chooses. It is his duty to go frequently into the cantonments of the different troops, and examine the horses feet; and if he finds a shoe contrary to the regimental pattern, or discovers any thing amiss in the management of the troop horses, he is to report it immediately to the officer commanding the regiment. In all his duty he is to receive the utmost support from every officer and quarter-master; and any farrier that dares to act contrary to his instructions, should be punished. There ought, in fact, to be a chain of mutual support and co-operation from the veterinary surgeon, up to the commanding officer of every cavalry regiment; each farrier looking to the veterinary surgeon for correct instructions relative to the preservation of every horse's health.

Fascinage, Fr. any bed or floor which is made of fascines.

Fascines, in fortifications, are a kind of fagots, made of small branches of trees or brush-wood, tied in 3, 4, 5, or 6 places, and are of various dimensions, according to the purposes intended. Those that are to be pitched over, for burning lodgemeats, galleries, or other works of the enemy, should be ½ or two feet long. Those that are for making epaulements or chandeliers, or to raise works, or fill up ditches, are 10 feet long, and 1 or 1½ feet in diameter. They are made in the following manner; 6 small pickets are struck into the ground, 2 and 2, forming little crosses, well fastened in the middle with willow bindings. On these trestles the branches are laid, and are bound round with withes at the distance of every 2 feet. Six men are employed in making a fascine; 2 cut the boughs, 2 gather them, and the remaining 2 bind them. These six men can make 12 fascines every hour. Each fascine requires five pickets to fasten it.

Fastneses, strong places not easily forced.

Fatales, Fr. a man who believes in predestination; which see.

Fathom, in fortification, originally denoted that space which a man could reach when both his arms were extended; but it now means a measure of 6 feet or 2 yards, equivalent to the French word toise.

Faucion, See Faucion.

Faucon. See Falcon.

Faucou or Fauconneau, Fr. a small piece of ordnance.

Fauconet. See Faiconet.

Faulx, Fr. an instrument nearly resembling a scythe. It is often used to defend a breach, or to prevent an enemy from scaling the walls of a fortified place. This weapon was first resorted to with some success, when Louis the XIVth besieged Mons. On the surrender of that town, the besiegers found large quantities of scythes in the garrison.

Fausses Attaques, Fr. false attacks. See Attack.

Faussé-Braie. Fr. See Faussé Bray.

Faussé-Braye, in fortification, is a low rampart, encircling the body of the place; its height is about 3 feet above the level ground, and its parapet about three or four toises from that of the body of the place. These works have been entirely rejected by the modern engineers, excepting M. Vauban, who makes them only before the curtains; and then they are called more properly tenailles.

Faussé-Lance, Fr. a wooden piece of ordnance; what is vulgarly called a sham gun.

Fauteau, Fr. a sort of batter-
ing ram, which was used in ancient times.

FAUTEUR, Fr. a person who conspires at seditious practices.
FAUX, Fr. See FAUX.
FAUX BRAVE, Fr. See FANTARON.
FAUX FEUX, Fr. a flash in the pan.
FAUX FEUX, Fr. signals made with scintillations of gun-powder.
FAUX SOLDATS. See FAGOT, or PASSEVOLANT.

FEATHERS, are ornamental marks worn by officers and soldiers in their caps or hats. The following distinctions are made and directed by authority to be observed in the British service. In the royal artillery, both officers and men, have white feathers. The cavalry and battalion corps scarlet and white; the grenadiers all white, and the light infantry all green.

FEDERATE. See CONFEDERATE.

FEES, are specific sums of money, which are occasionally claimed by persons in office, and to the payment of which every British officer is subject. Fees are paid at the war office for different commissions, and are charged to their respective owners by the army agents.

FÉINT, (feinte, Fr.) a mock attack, or assault, often made to conceal the true one.

FÉLLOWS, in artillery, are the parts of a wheel which form its circumference, whose dimensions are as follow: for a 24-pounder, 5 inches thick, and 6.5 inches broad; for a 12-pounder, 4.5 inches thick, and 6 inches broad; for a 6-pounder 4 inches thick, and 5.5 inches broad, &c. made of dry elm. There are generally 6 in each wheel. See WHEEL.

FELLOW soldier, one who fights under the same commander; a comrade.

Dr. Johnson very properly calls this term an endearing appellation used by officers to their soldiers. The toils and perils, in fact, of a true military life, are so many, that an army fighting under the same banners may be truly called one family; and every officer should look upon himself as the father, the guardian, and the protector of his men.

FELTRE, a piece of defensive armour. It was a kind of cuirass made of wool, well pressed, and dipped in vinegar, to impede the effect of cutting weapons. It was in use among the Romans.

FENCE, a guard, security, outwork, &c.

To FENCE, to practise with foils; to fight with swords; to secure any place by palisades, &c.

FENCIBLE, any thing capable of defence. Such regiments as are raised for limited service, and for a limited time, are called fencible regiments. They rank junior to the line.

FENCING, is the art or science of making a proper use of the sword, as well for attacking an enemy, as for defending one's self. Fencing is a genteel exercise, of which no military gentleman should be ignorant. It is learned by practising with steel foils. See FOILS.

Fencing is either simple, or compound. Simple is that which is performed nimbly, and off-hand, on the same line. In this the principal intention, in respect to the offensive part, should be to attack the enemy in the most unguarded quarter; and in the defensive, to parry or ward off the enemy's thrusts or blows.

Attitude, in FENCING, the head upright, though the body hath a forward inclination on a longe; and all the weight resting on the left haunch when on guard. The feet, hand, body, arm and sword, must be to the line.

Appet, in FENCING, is a sudden beat of your blade, on the contrary side to that you join your adversary on, and a quick disengagement to that side again.

Beating, in FANCÉKO, is when you parry with a sudden short beat, to get a quick repast; or when you beat with your foot, to try if you are firm on it, or on both feet.

Battering, in FENCING, is to strike the feeble of your adversary's blade on the side opposite to that you join, &c.

Back-quarter, is a parade of late invention, and is a round quarter over the arm.

Cave, in FENCING, is a tierce on a quarte side, also the thrust of a prime, or a seconde, at the low quarte side.

Darting, in FENCING, to defend a blow with some contraction of your arm, and to dart a thrust right forward.

Feint forward, in FENCING, made by advancing.
advancing your point a little from its
line, and coming to it again.

**Guard**, in **Fencing**, is any of the
parades you stand on.

On **Guard**, is being placed properly on
your feet, and well covered with your
weapon.

**Lurching**, in **Fencing**, to make an
opening, to invite your adversary to
thrust at you, when you, being ready,
may find a favourable riposte at him.

**Locking**, in **Fencing**, is to seize your
adversary's sword arm, by twining your
left arm round it, after you close your
parade, shell to shell, in order to disarm
him.

**Guard in carte**, implies the put-
tiere, t of the body
and sword in such a state of defence, as
to prevent the antagonist from wound-
ing you, by either of the thrusts so de-
nominated. These are the principal po-
positions on which to engage. The others,
ex. prime, seconde, quinte, half-circle,
etc. are termed parades, when used with
the small sword.

**Hanging-guard**, one of the broad-
sword guards. See **Broadword**.

**Thrusts** are of various denominations,
according to the direction of the point,
and position of the wrist.

The thrusts directed at the inside of
the body, are called prime, carte, and
low-carte; those at the outside, are se-
conde, t ierce, carte over the arm, quinte
and frasconade

In teaching, the thrusts are not ar-
ranged according to the above order;
it is usual to begin with carte (or quarte)
and t ierce, the names of which prove
them to have been originally the 4th and
3d positions in the art; but which are
now justly considered as the chief and
most elegant.

**Ferraying**, in **Fencing**, the action of
warding off the blows aimed at each
other.

**Frasconade**, in **Fencing**, is the ac-
tion of dropping the point of your sword
under your adversary's hilt, in seizing
with force the feeble of his blade; which
landing, without quitting it, form
the parade in octave, and then throw in your
thrust.

**Glissade**, in **Fencing**, is performed
by dexterously making your sword slip
along your adversary's blade, and form-
ing at the same time your extension, &c.

**FER**, Fr. Iron. Figuratively, this
word is used for a sword or dagger; as
manier le fer, to wear the sword, to fol-
low the profession of arms. Battre le
fer, to fence.

**Fer à cheval**, Fr. In fortification,
a horse-shoe, which see. It further
means, according to the French accep-
tation of the term, a work constructed
for the purpose of covering a gate, by
having within it a guard-house, to pre-
vent the town from being surprised.

**FERDWIT**, in ancient military his-
tory, a term used to denote a free-
dom from serving upon any military
expedition; or, according to some, the
being quit of manslaughter committed
in the army.

**FERIR sans coup**, Fr. to obtain any
thing without striking a blow.

**Faire FERME**, Fr. to stand your
ground; not to give way.

**FERMEZ le bassinet**, Fr. Shut pass,
a word of command in the platoon ex-
ercise.

**FERRAILLEUR**, Fr. a person who,
without any provocation whatever, de-
lights in fighting, and is always in quest
of provocation.

**FERRET**, Fr. the original term to
express a sword.

**FERRIES**, water conveyances, made
use of to cross rivers, or branches of the
sea. At the regular ones in Scot-
land, officers may at their option, hire
the boat for themselves and parties only,
or pass as passengers; in either case pay-
ing no more than half the ordinary rate.
See **Mutiny Act**, sect. 53.

**FERT**, Fr. which has the same
meaning as fermeté, was the original ap-
pellation of a fortified place, and signi-
fied a fortress.

**FERT or FORTH**. See **Army**.

**FEU**, Fr. fire. Faire feu, to dis-
charge any sort of fire arms.

Feu, *fire*, is also understood to mean
any light combustible, which is kept up
in the front of a camp, and at each post
during the night, to keep the soldiers
alert, and to prevent them from being
surprised.

Every species of fire, or light is, how-
ever, strictly forbidden on a march,
when the object is to surprise an ene-
my. Soldiers, on these occasions, are
not permitted to smoke. Bundles, and
large wisps of lighted straw, which are
hung
FEU

hung out from the tops of steeple, or from any other elevation, frequently serve to give the alarm when an enemy is discovered in the act of passing a river.

Lights are likewise resorted to on various other occasions. See LIGHTS.

FEU de joie. See RUNNING-FIRE.

FEU rasant, Fr. a grazing fire, or a discharge of ordnance or musquetry, so directed, that the shot shall run parallel with the ground they pass over, within 3 or 4 feet of the surface.

That is likewise called a feu rasant or grazing fire, which is sent in parallel directions, with the faces of the different works belonging to a fortification.

FEU de canon, Fr. the discharge of heavy ordnance or artillery.

FEU de chemin couvert, Fr. the musquetry shots which are fired by armed men that are posted in various parts of the covent-way.

FEU par compagnie, Fr. the discharge of musquetry by companies.

FEU direct, Fr. a discharge of musquetry or ordnance against the face of a work, trench or company.

FEU fichant ou oblique, Fr. oblique firing.

FEU de musquée, Fr. musket-firing.

FEU de peloton, Fr. platoon-firing.

FEU de rampart, Fr. a discharge of musquetry or ordnance from the ramparts of a fortified town or place.

FEU-roulant, Fr. the continued alternate firing of a battalion from flanks to center, or from center to flanks.

FEU de tranchée, Fr. any discharge of cannon or musquetry which takes place from the trench of a fortified town or place, or from the besieging army's works against a fortified town or place.

FAIRE FEU violet. A man of whom great hopes are entertained, from his immense preparations, and which eventually end in smoke, is said to faire feu violet.

FEUX, Fr. fires which are frequently lighted up along the front of an encampment, in order to impress the enemy with an idea that every thing is on the alert, and in a state of activity.

FEUX Grégeois, Fr. See GRECIAN FIRE.

FEUX ou signaux, Fr. fires which serve as signal lights in various parts of a country.

FICHANT. See LINE OF DEFENCE, FORTIFICATION.

FICHES, Fr. small sticks or pieces of iron which serve to mark out the height of angles, and the direction of an alignment; by means of which a fortress or a trench may be traced, and the relative position of each troop or company ascertained.

FIELD. The ground of battle. A battle, campaign, or the action of an army while it keeps the field.

FIELD-bed, a folding-bed used by officers in their tents.

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FIELD-fort. See FORT.

FIELD-marshall, a modern military rank in England, but superior to all others, except the captain general, having the chief command of the whole army in the field.

FIER à bras. See FANFARON.

FIFE, a military instrument of the wind kind, generally used as an accompaniment to the drum.

FIFRE, Fr. Fife. In French this word likewise means fifer.

FIGHT. See BATTLE.

FIGHTING-men, such as are effective, and able to bear arms.

RUNNING-FIGHT, that in which the enemy is continually chased.

FIGURE, in fortification, the plan of any fortified place, or the interior polygon. Of this there are two sorts, regular, and irregular: a regular figure is that where the sides and angles are equal; an irregular one where they are unequal.

FILE, in the art of war is an unlimited term, comprehending any number of men drawn up in a direct line behind each other; as a rank on the other hand includes any number drawn up beside each other; whether, in either respect, they be in close or open order. Or rather, by file is meant the line of soldiers standing one behind another, which makes the depth of the battalion; and is thus distinguished from the rank which...
which is a line of soldiers drawn up side by side, forming the length of the battalion. A file is 2 or 3 deep; hence a battalion or regiment drawn up, consists of 2 or 3 ranks, and of as many files as there are men in a rank.

The files of a battalion of foot were formerly 12 and 6 deep; but now only 2 and sometimes 3, which is its natural formation. Those of the cavalry are generally but 2 deep.

A **file** on horseback occupies in the ranks about 2 feet 8 inches; thus 3 file 8 feet. A file on foot occupies in the ranks 22 inches.

**Close Files** in cavalry are at the distance which was taken before dismounting, when each man's boot-top touches, but does not press that of his neighbour.

**Loose Files**, in cavalry movements, are 6 inches distant from boot-top to boot-top, being calculated for the gallop as well as the walk of a squadron.

**Open Files** in cavalry, are the full breadth of a horse from boot-top to boot-top. They contain the distance which is left, when from close files, the left files rein back to dismount. Recruits and horses must be frequently exercised at this distance. See Cavalry Regulations, p. 4.

**Flat File**, the extreme file on the right or left of a squadron or troop, battalion or company, &c.

**Forming from File**, is when the front file halts, and the rest ride up at a very smart gallop, taking care to halt in time, and not to over-run the ground. If the formation is by doubling round the front file (for instance, when a formation is made to the rear of the march, or to the right, when marched from the right) the files must double round as close and as expeditiously as possible.

In all formations from file, the leaders of ranks instantly cover each other, take the ordered front and halt. See Cavalry Regulations, p. 27.

In the covering of files on horseback, the same directions hold good as on foot. In addition it must be scrupulously observed, that every man's horse stands exactly straight to the same front as that of the man before him. Both in the horse and foot drill, the men should be often practised in covering.

The former are thereby taught to place their horses straight under them.

**Close Files** of infantry, are soldiers standing in rank, contiguous to one another, upon any given depth of line or column. Whenever a regiment marches in front, every man should feel his next man which ever way he dresses; but he must not lean on him, nor must he move his arm from the body to feel him. So that close files mean nothing more than that soldiers in the ranks should touch lightly each other, without crowding or pressing.

**Open Files**, are soldiers standing in rank at given distances without touching one another. The formation at open files is only practised as a preparatory drill for forming at close files, (which is the order for action) in order that every man may be taught to stand and move in a proper position, without getting a habit of leaning upon his neighbour. On this account every intelligent officer who has the management of recruits, will form them sometimes at open files, and march in that order. Soldiers that have been regularly drilled, should likewise be occasionally practised in advancing by open files.

**Double Files** are formed by the left files in each rank stepping to the rear of the right files.

**Indian Files**, a line of men advancing or retreating from either of the flanks, from the center, or from any proportion of a line in succession to one another. They are sometimes called goose files; but the term is only familiarly, or rather vulgarly used among soldiers, and derives its appellation from a flock of geese, generally following a leader, one by one. A foreign military writer, the Prince de Ligne, says, that men march forward in file, or en ordre mince, par un instinct moutonnier, meaning, that they follow each other like so many sheep, who move by instinct.

**File-leader** is the soldier placed in the front of any file, or the man who is to cover all those that stand directly in the rear of him, and by whom they are to be guided in all their movements.

File leaders must be particularly careful to preserve their proper distances from which ever hand they are to dress.
to, and the followers of each file must only be attentive to cover, and be regulated by their proper file leaders. In file the rear rank invariably dresses by, and is regulated by the front rank.

To double the Files, is to put 2 files into 1, making the depth of the battalion double to what it was, in number of men. Thus four deep are double files.

File marching on foot. According to the printed regulations, all recruits must first face, and then be instructed to cover each other exactly in file, so that the head of the man immediately before may conceal the heads of all the others in front. The principal points to be attended to are, that the men move with the lock step, that the front rank men cover exactly, and that the rear rank men keep closed and dressed to the front rank.

File marching may be practised to the front, to the rear, and to either flank; in all which cases the men must be taught to cover well. When recruits are at drill, on the word march, the whole are to step off together, gaining at the very first step 30 inches, and so continuing each step without increasing the distance betwixt each recruit, every man locking or placing his advanced foot on the ground, before the spot from whence the preceding man had taken up his. See Regulations, p. 16, sect. 18.

Marching by ranks in front, open files, is when any body of men advances by rank at open order, and dresses to some given object without touching one another. The flank man of the flank the soldiers dress to, must be a non commissioned officer, and he must take special care not to incline to one hand or the other. His head must be kept quite straight to the front, his body must be erect, and he must advance without deviating in the most trifling manner to the right or left. In order to execute this essential part of the drill with any degree of accuracy, two persons should be present, one in the front, and the other on the flank, to observe the dressing. Young officers should be ordered to attend, and sometimes should be exercised themselves in the presence of a superior officer; for upon them bere-

after will greatly depend the movement of the battalion in line or column.

Marching by ranks in front, close files, is when any number of men advances by ranks at close order, and dresses to some given object, each man lightly touching his next man, without crowding or pressing. The march in front at close files is much easier than that at open files, because every man feels his next man, whichever way the rank dresses, and into whatever direction the line or column moves.

To FILE, is to advance to, or from any given point by files; as to file to the front, to file to the rear, to file from the right or left flank, or to file from any given company. In some of which cases, the leading files must disengage themselves according to the directions given.

To FILE off, to wheel off from. To defile, marching in a spacious front, and march in length by files. When a regiment is marching in full front, or by divisions or platoons, and comes to a defile or narrow pass, it may file off to the right or left as the ground requires, &c.

FILER, Fr. to file off, or march in succession.

FAIRE FILER, Fr. to make troops, &c. file off, or march in regular order.

FILEY (in Yorkshire) Is deemed part of the East Riding, and is subject to the county lieutenant with respect to the raising of the militia.

FILIERE, Fr. a narrow pass.

FILINGS, are movements to the front, rear, or flank by files. These movements must be executed with great quickness. The files in cavalry must go off, at a smart gallop, and continue so till all are in file, the rear rank men dressing well to their front rank; the front rank covering well, and keeping close to the croup. If the filings are to be made from a flank to the front or rear, the whole must keep passing up to the ground from whence the first file went, before they go off; if to a flank, the horses must be turned as soon as there is room. If the filings are from a flank to march along the front or rear, past the other flank, every file must come off from its own ground as the next gets into file.

General
General and necessary Filings, according to the system published by authority, for the British cavalry, are: filings from either, or both flanks of the squadron to front, flank or rear; filing from the center of the squadron to the front, or to the flank. Filing single men by ranks, or by front or rear rank men alternately, from either flank of the squadron.

In the filings of the squadron, the serre-files take their places in the rear of the files, unless the ground will allow them to remain on the flanks of the rear flank; but their general and proper position is in the rear of the files.

In cavalry filing, the greatest attention must be paid to keep the squadron as compact together as the nature of the movement will permit. It is a situation in which horses move free, and without confinement, but in which the parts of a squadron are apt to lengthen out, and take up much more ground than what they stand upon in line, and is therefore to be adopted only from necessity, in broken or embarrassed ground. When the word file has been given, and the heads of the horses have been turned ready to move off without loss of distance, the leaders of files must go off short and quick in their ordered direction. They are followed close by each man as it comes to his turn, so as to leave no unnecessary interval from one to another, and instantly to get off the ground. After being once in file, a distance of a yard from head to tail may be taken, so as to trot or gallop the easier if required. Every alteration of pace ought to be made as much as possible by the whole file at once; if this is not observed, a crowding and stop in the rear will always attend such alteration. See Cavalry Regulations, p. 25.

FINANCES. Fr. Coin in general, which constitutes the metallic currency of countries.

FINANCES d'une armée. Fr. the pay and allowances which every army requires in offensive or defensive operations.

FIRE, in the art of war, a word of command to soldiers of all denominations, to discharge their fire arms, grenades, cannon, &c.

FIRE, is also used to denote the discharge of all sorts of fire-arms against the enemy. The fire of the infantry is by a regular discharge of their firelocks, by platoons, divisions, &c. that of the cavalry, with their fusiles and pistols; and that of a place besieged, from their artillery.

FIRE of the curtain or second flank, is from that part of the curtain comprehended between the face of the bastion prolonged and the angle of the flank: frequently called the line of defence oblique.

FIRE razant, is produced by firing the artillery and small arms in a line parallel with the horizon, or parallel with those parts of the works you are defending.

FIRE-arms, are all kinds of arms charged with powder and ball; every one of which is mentioned under its respective head.

Running-FIRE, is when a rank or ranks of men, drawn up, fire one after another; or when the lines of an army are drawn out to fire on account of a victory; when each squadron or battalion takes it from that on its right, from the right of the first line to the left, and from the left to the right of the second line, &c.

FIRE-balls. See BALLS.

FIRE-cross, an ancient token in Scotland for the nation to take up arms.

FIRE-ship, a ship filled with combustibles, to set fire to the vessels of the enemy.

FIRE-master, in the royal regiment of artillery, is an officer of rank and dignity, who, besides the post he enjoys in the regiment, has a yearly allowance for this office. He gives the directions and proportions of all ingredients for each composition required in fire-works, whether for the service of war, or for rejoicings and recreations.

FIRE-master's mate, is always an officer in the royal regiment of artillery, who, besides the post he bears in the regiment, has a yearly allowance for his office. His duty is, to aid and assist the chief fire-master, and he should be skilled in every kind of laboratory work.

FIRE-pan of a gun, is the receptacle for the priming powder.

FIRE-pot, in the military art, a small earthen pot, into which is put a charged grenade, and over that, powder enough to
to cover the grenade; the whole covered with a piece of parchment, and two pieces of quick match across lighted: it breaks and fires the powder, as also the powder in the grenade, which has no fuze, that its operations may be quicker.

Fire-works, are particular compositions of different sorts, made with sulphur, salt-petre, and charcoal. They are used in war, and on rejoicing days.

Fire-workers, were formerly subordinate to the fire-master and his mate; had afterwards the rank of youngest lieutenant to the royal regiment of artillery; but now that rank is abolished, and they are all second lieutenants. They were supposed to be well skilled in every kind of laboratory work; which knowledge is an essential qualification in every officer of that regiment.

Fire-locks, so called from their producing fire of themselves, by the action of the flint and steel; the arms carried by a foot soldier. They were formerly 3 feet 3 inches in the barrel, and weighed 14 lb. at present the length of the barrel is from 3 feet 5 inches to 3 feet 6 inches, and the weight of the piece only 12 lb. They carry a leaden bullet, of which 29 make 2 lb. its diameter is .550 of an inch, and that of the barrel 1-50th part of the shot. Fire-locks were first made use of in 1690, when match-locks were universally disused; but when invented we cannot ascertain. A fire-lock is called, by writers of about the middle of the last century, asnophaen, which being a low Dutch word, seems to indicate its being of Dutch invention. Formerly both in the manual and platoon exercises, the term fire-lock was always adopted—as, shoulder your fire-lock, present your firelock.—At present a more simple and brief mode of expression prevails throughout the army—as, shoulder arms, present arms, &c. &c.

except in the funeral parties, when the term firelock is directed to be used instead of arms, until after firing over the grave, bayonets are ordered to be fixed.

Firing in line. According to regulations, the following principal heads constitute firing in line.

The object of fire against cavalry, is to keep them at a distance, and to deter them from the attack; as their move-

ments are rapid; a reserve is always kept up. But when the fire commences against infantry, it cannot be too heavy or too quick while it lasts; and should be continued till the enemy is beaten or repulsed. This may not improperly be called offensive fire.

Defensive fire, belongs principally to infantry when posted on heights, which are to be defended by musquetry. As soldiers generally present too high, and as fire is of the greatest consequence to troops that are on the defensive, the habitual mode of firing should therefore be rather at a low level than a high one.

On these occasions the men are generally drawn up 3 deep, in which case the front rank kneeling, being the most efficacious, as being the most razing, should not be dispensed with when it can be safely and usefully employed.

Firing by half battalions, the line advancing. The left wings halt, and the right ones continue to march 15 paces, at which instant the word march being given to the left wings, the right at the same time are ordered to halt, fire, and load, during which the left march on and pass them, till the right wings, being loaded and shouldered, receive the word march, on which the left ones halt, fire, &c. and thus they alternately proceed.

Firing by half battalions, the line retiring. The right wings are ordered to halt, front, and when the left wings have gained 15 paces, and have received the word halt, front, the right wings are instantly ordered to fire, load, face about, and march 15 paces beyond the left ones, where they receive the word halt, front, on which the left wings fire, &c. and thus alternately proceed.

It is observed in the official Rules and Regulations, that in addition to the battalion directions, there must be a regulating battalion named, by the half battalions of which each line will move, halt, and fire; the commander of each line will be with such half battalion, and in giving his several commands must have an attention to the general readiness of the line, especially after loading, that the whole are prepared to step off together at the word march. The firing of the advanced wing succeeds the march, or the halt, front, of the
the retired wing instantly; and each half battalion fires independent and quick, so that no unnecessary pauses being made betwixt the firing words, the fire of the line should be that of a volley as much as possible; and the whole being consequently loaded together, will be ready for the next command of movement. In these firings of the line, advancing or retiring, the two first ranks will fire standing, and the rear rank support their arms.

In this manner also may the alternate battalions of a line advance or retire, and when the whole are to form, and that the last line moves up to the first, every previous help of advanced persons will be given to insure its correctness.

Fire in line advancing, is when the infantry marches in line to attack the enemy, and in advancing makes use of its fire. On these occasions it is better to fire the 2 first ranks only, standing, reserving the third, than to make the front rank kneel and to fire the whole; but when it is necessary to fire at a considerable distance, or on a retiring enemy, volleys may be given by the three ranks, the front one kneeling.

Firing by platoons, is practised when a line is posted, or arrives at a fixed situation. In this position battalions fire independent of one another, and the fire generally commences from the center of each. The first fire of each battalion must be regular, and at established spaces and intervals; after which each platoon may continue to fire as soon as it is loaded, independent, and as quick as possible.

Firing by files, is generally used behind a parapet, hedge, or abatis. In this situation the two first ranks only can fire, and that must be by the 2 men of the same file always firing together, with coolness and deliberation. When however, the parapet, hedge, or abatis is but a little raised, platoon firing may be resorted to.

Oblique Firing by battalions, or otherwise, according to the ground, is extremely advantageous when it is found expedient to give an oblique direction to part of a line, or when it is discovered, that their fire can in this manner be thrown against the opening of a deek, the flanks of a column, or against cavalry or infantry that direct their attack on some particular battalion or portion of the line.

Oblique-firing, is either to the right and left, or from the right and left to the centre, depending entirely on the situation of the object to be fired against. The Prussians have a particular contrivance for this purpose: if they are to level to the right, the rear ranks of every platoon are to make two quick but small paces to the left, and the body of each soldier to turn 1-8th of a circle; and are to take the same distance to the right, if they are to level to the left.

When a line halts at its points of firing, no time is to be lost in scrupulous dressing, and the firing is instantly to commence. But when a line halts, and is not to fire, the usual dressings must be attended to; and every thing will depend upon the coolness and attention of the officers and non-commissioned officers.

It should be observed with respect to firings in general, that after the march in front, and halt of the battalion, company or platoon firing ought invariably to begin from the centre, and not from the flank. In other cases, and in successive formations, it may begin from whatever division first arrives, and halts on its own ground. See Infantry Regulations, p. 270.

Square Firing, is that method of firing where either a regiment or any body of men is drawn up in a square, each front of which is generally divided into 4 divisions or firings; and the flanks of the square, as being the weakest part, are sometimes covered by 4 platoons of grenadiers who flank the angles. The first fire is from the right division of each face; the second fire from the left division of each face, and so on; the grenadiers making the last fire.

Street Firing is the method of firing adopted to defend or scour a street, lane, or narrow pass of any kind; in the execution of which the platoon must be formed according to the width of the place, leaving sufficient room on the flanks for the platoons, which have fired, successively to file round to the rear of the others.

Street Firing advancing. When the column has arrived at the spot where the firing is to commence, the commanding
manding officer from the rear gives the word *halt*! and the officer commanding the platoon orders it to *make ready*, present, fire, recover arms, outwards face, (by half platoons), quick march.

At the instant the men in the first platoon recover their arms after firing, the second platoon makes ready, and waits in that position till the front is cleared by the first platoon having filed round the flanks towards the rear, when the second advances, with recovered arms, until it receives the words *halt*, present, fire.

As soon as the platoon which has fired, has got down the flanks, it must form in front of the colours, and prime and load.

Street firing retiring, is conducted on the same principles, except that the platoons fire without advancing, on the front being cleared by the former platoon filing round the flank.

Another method of *street firing advancing*, generally esteemed more eligible, is, after firing, to wheel out by subdivisions, (the pivots having taken a side step to right and left outwards,) prime and load, and as soon as the last platoon has passed, file inwards and form.

Fissure, a narrow chasm where a small breach has been made.

FIT, Qualified, proper; adapted to any purpose or undertaking.

FIT for service. Capable of undergoing fatigue. Strong healthy men, from 18 to 45 years of age, of a certain height, and not subject to fits, are considered fit objects for service, and may be enlisted into any of his Majesty’s regiments. The principal heads under which every recruit should be rejected, or made soldier be discharged, consist of rupture, venereal lues, or incurable pox, habitual ulcers, sore legs, scurvy, scald head, and its.

FIT, a paroxysm. Any violent affection of the body, by which a man is suddenly rendered incapable of going through the necessary functions of life.

FITS, habitual affections of the body, to which men and women are subject, and by which they may be frequently attacked without any other immediate consequences than a temporary suspension of the mental powers, accompanied by a disordered and painful action of the frame.

Fix-bayonets, a word of command in the manual exercise. See Manual.

FLAGS, See Colors, Standards, &c.

FLAGS, in the British navy, are either red, white, or blue, and they are hoisted either at the heads of the main-mast, fore-mast, or mizen-mast.

FLAGS when displayed from the top of the main-mast, are the distinguishing marks of admirals; when from the fore-mast, of vice-admirals, and when from the mizen-mast, of rear-admirals.

The highest flag in the British navy, is the anchor and cable, which is only displayed when the lord high admiral, or lords commissioners of the admiralty are on board; the next is the union, the distinction peculiar to the second officer, called admiral of the fleet; and the lowest flag is the blue at the mizen-mast.

FLAG-Officer, a naval officer commanding a squadron. For the compliments paid him, see Honours.

FLAGSTAFF, the staff on which the flag is fixed.

FLAM, a word formerly made use of in the British service, signifying a particular tap or beat upon the drum, according to which each battalion went through its firings or evolutions. The practice is laid aside, as it is particularly ordered by the last regulations, that every battalion, troop, or company shall be exercised by specific words of command, delivered in a distinct and audible tone of voice.

FLAMBEAU, Fr. a wax torch.

FLAMBER, un canon, un mortier, Fr. to burn powder in a cannon or mortar, for the purpose of cleansing it, or of destroying dampness.

FLAMME, Fr. in the old French marine establishment, was a mark of distinction which exclusively belonged to the king's ships, consisting of a long streamer.

FLAMME, ou pendant, Fr. Bolting cloth or ticking. It is a long streamer which generally hangs either from the yards or scuttle of a mast, and serves for ornament or to give signals.

FLANC, Fr. flank.

**FLANC**

(but)

See Retired

(retire)
FLA

FLANC du breston, Fr. See FLANK of the breston.

Préndre en FLANC, Fr. to take in flank.
Préter le FLANC, Fr. to expose the flanks of a regiment, or wings of an army, &c.

Être pris en FLANC, Fr. to be attacked by an enemy in flank.

FLANKS, in the art of war and in fortification, are of several denominations, according to their uses, viz.

FLANKS of an army, certain proportions of offensive or defensive forces which are extended to the right and left of a main body, and ought to be posted in such a manner, that it would be certain ruin to the enemy were he to attempt any impression between them. In a more confined sense, the troops which are stationed on the right and left of each line of encampment. See WINGS.

FLANK-files, are the two first men on the right and the two last men on the left, telling downwards from the right, of a line, battalion, company, division, subdivision or section. When a battalion is drawn up three deep, its flank files consist of three men, or as the French call it file and demi-file. When four deep, the flank files are termed double files; so that a column formed from any of these arrangements will have all its relative flank files, be the depth of formation what it will.

Inward Flank in manoeuvring. The first line on the left of a division, subdivision or section when the battalion stands at close or open column with the right in front. Upon this flank which is called the proper flank, and on which the pivot rests, the division, &c. wheels backward from line into column, or forward from column into line. When the left is in front, the right becomes the proper flank and pivot.

Outward Flank, of a line or battalion, the extreme file on the right or left of a division, subdivision, or section, according to the given front, when the battalion is at close or open column, and which is the furthest wheeling point from line into column, or from column into line. It is likewise called the reverse flank. The general rule which directs, that leading officers shall march invariably on the inward flank, where the proper pivot rests, is in one instance dispensed with, when, after marching by, the right in front, the wheeling of the column or guard is to the right. On this occasion the officer who had shifted from the right to his proper flank, instead of being wheeled upon, wheels with the flank and continues his march. It has already been remarked in a military publication (see Regimenhal Companion) that the squareness of the division would certainly be preserved with greater ease, were the officer to remain upon the right, though the right be in front, until the wheel in that direction should be completed, when he might shift to his proper flank. Where the column or guard has only a few paces to proceed beyond the passing or saluting point, this certainly is advisable.

FLANK-company, a certain number of men drawn up on the right or left of a battalion. Thus the grenadiers compose the right, and the light infantry the left flank company. When these are detached, the two extreme battalion companies become such.

The grenadiers and light infantry are generally called flank companies, whether attached or not to their several battalions.

FLANKING-party, a select body of men on foot or on horseback, whose object is to harass and perplex the enemy, to get upon his wings, or by any manœuvre to hang upon the flank of an opposing force.

FLANK en potence, is any part of the right or left wing formed at a right angle with the line. See Potence.

Leading Flank, when the line breaks into column in order to attack an enemy, it is the flank which must almost always preserve the line of appui in all movements in front. The first battalion, division or company of every column which conducts, is called the head or leading flank of that column. All the writhings and turnings to which it must unavoidably be subject, are followed by every other part of the body, and such head becomes a flank, right or left, when formed into line. The commander must therefore be on whichever flank directs the operations of the line, and by which he proposes to attack, or to counteract the
the attempts of the enemy. See Infantry Regulations, pages 284, 285.

Passing Flank, the flank of a squad-
don, troop, battalion, or company, which is next to the general when troops march by. Both in cavalry and infantry movements, at open order, a non-commissioned officer invariably steps up to fill the vacancy occasioned, on the passing flank, by the officer going to the front of his squadron, troop, or company, in order to salute the reviewing General. At closed ranks, when troops march past, the passing flank must always have an officer.

Flank in fortification, in general, is any part of a work that defends another work, along the outside of its parapet.

Flank of a bastion, (fânc d’un bastion, Fr.) in fortification, that part which joins the face to the curtain, comprehended between the angle of the curtain and that of the shoulder. It is the principal defence of the place. Its use is, to defend the curtain, the flank, and face of the opposite bastion, as well as the passage of the ditch; and to batter the salient angles of the counter-scarpe and glacis, from whence the besieged generally ruin the flanks with their artillery; for the flanks of a fortification are those parts which the besiegers endeavour most to destroy, in order to take away the defence of the face of the opposite bastion.

Oblique Flank, (flanc oblique, Fr.) that part of the curtain from whence the face of the opposite bastion may be discovered, and is the distance between the lines ruzant and fichant, which are rejected by most engineers, as being liable to be ruined at the beginning of a siege, especially when made of sandy earth. The second parapet, which may be raised behind the former, is of no use; for it neither discovers nor defends the face of the opposite bastion: besides, it shortens the flank, which is the true defence; and the continual fire of the besiegers' cannon will never suffer the garrison to raise a second parapet. This second flank defends very obliquely the opposite face, and is to be used only in a place attacked by an army without artillery.

Retired Flank, (flanc retiré, Fr.)

Low Flank, (fânc bas, Fr.) Covered Flank, (fânc orillon ou couvert, Fr.) The platform of the casemate, which lies hid in the bastion. These retired flanks are a great defence to the opposite bastion and passage of the ditch, because the besiegers cannot see, nor easily dismount their guns.

Flank prolonged, (fânc prolongé Fr.) in fortification, is the extending of the flank from the angle of the epaulement to the exterior side, when the angle of the flank is a right one.

Concave Flank, (fânc concave, Fr.) is that which is made in the arc of a semi-circle bending outwards.

Flanks of a frontier. Are the different salient points of a large extent of territory, between each of which it would be impolitic for any invading army to hazard an advanced position. The late celebrated General Lloyd (whose accuracy of observation and solidity of conclusion with respect to the iron frontier of France have been universally acknowledged) has furnished military men with a full and succinct account of the relative positions upon it. He divides this long line (which begins at Basel in Switzerland, and runs into various directions from thence to Dunkirk in French Flanders) into three parts, and considers each of them separately. The first part goes from Basel to Landau, and covers Alsacia; it is near 130 miles in length. The second part goes from Landau to Sedan on the Moselle, covers Lorraine on the side of the Electorate of Treves, the Duchies of Deux-Ponts, Luxembourg, and Limburg; it is 190 miles in length. From Sedan down the Meuse to Charlemont in French Flanders, and thence to Dunkirk, goes the third part, and is about 150 miles; so that the whole natural frontier of France is 470 miles. The greatest part, if not the whole of which, is in the shape of a horse shoe, and presents impregnable flanks. An anonymous writer, (See Better late than never) after referring the reader to general Lloyd for a specific account of the first and second lines of the French frontier, has made the following observations relative to the third and last, which runs from Sedan down the Meuse to Charlemont, from thence to Dunkirk,
Dunkirk, and is 150 miles in length. His words are—While the Duke of Brunswick and the king of Prussia were running the most formidable armies in Europe by endeavouring to penetrate a few miles into Lorraine and Champagne through the first and second line, (without having previously secured the two flanks,) the French with redoubled activity operated upon the third, and finally subdued all Flanders. Those very difficulties, in fact, which presented themselves to oppose the progress of the allied army into France, facilitated every excursion on her part, as the direction of the line which goes from Sedan to Landau is concave towards that part of Germany.

The remainder of this line, (within which so many faults were committed, or rather could not be avoided, because the impression itself was founded in error,) runs to Dunkirk. “It has been the scene of successive wars for near two centuries, the most expensive, bloody, and durable, of any recorded in the annals of mankind.” This line, continues General Lloyd, is stronger by art than nature, having a prodigious number of strong fortresses and posts upon it, moreover it projects in many places, so that an enemy can enter nowhere, without having some of them in front and on his flanks.

Hence the impolicy of taking Valenciennes, or marching towards Quesnoy, without having previously secured Dunkirk, Lisie, &c.

Flanks, in farriery, a wrench, or any other grief in the back of a horse.

To Flank, in fortification, is to erect a battery which may play upon an enemy’s works on the right or left without being exposed to his line of fire. Any fortification, which has no defence but right forward, is faulty; and to make it complete, one part ought to flank the other.

To Flank, in evolutions, to take such a position in action as either to assist your own troops, or to annoy those of your enemy by attacking either of his flanks, without exposing yourself to all his fire.

To Out-flank. A manœuvre by which an army, battalion, troop, or company outstretches another, and gets upon both or either of its flanks.

To Out-flank, in an extensive acceptance of the term, when applied to locality, means to possess any range of opposite parts, or territory, whence you might invade your neighbour. Thus France, by her present possessions along the Dutch and Flemish coasts, outflanks all the opposite shores of England, properly so called; resting her left flank at Ushant in Brittany, and her right at Beograd, in North Holland, in the Province of Friesland. Ireland again is completely outflanked by Great-Britain at Penzance, in Cornwall, and at the Hebrides or Western Isles, independent of the continental part of Scotland.

Flanker, a fortification putting out so as to command the side or flank of an enemy marching to the assault or attack. Grenadiers and light infantry are also called flankers.

Flankers, in cavalry manœuvres, the most active men and horses who are selected to do the duty of flankers. The men of course must be perfect masters of their horses. One complete file of each four must be a file of flankers; it does not signify which file, but if it can conveniently be done, the center file should be taken, as in that case neither the flank men, nor the telling off of the squadron or division will be affected.

When you manœuvre by whole squadrons, six or eight flankers are sufficient in general for the whole squadron.

The word of command, when the flankers come out to the front, is flankers forward.

In flanking a great deal depends upon the officer or sergeant; he must be extremely active, and not only attend to the movements of the division from which he is detached, but likewise to his flankers.

As horses frequently refuse to quit the ranks and hang back obstinately, the men indiscriminately should be often called out of the ranks one by one, and practised as flankers.

To Flanker, (in French flanquer.) To fortify the walls of a city with bulwarks or countermines.

Flanking, is the same in fortification as defending.

Flanking party. Any body of men detached from the main army to get upon the flanks of an enemy so as to secure a line of march.—See Flankers.
Flanking angle, in fortification, that composed of the two lines of defence, and pointing towards the curtain. See Tenaille.

Flanking line of defence. See line of defence.

Flanking-point. See Point.

Flanqué, Fr. To be defended in such a manner that no attack can be successfully made against a work.

Flanquér, Fr. To flank.

Flash. The flame which issues from any piece of ordnance on its being fired.

Flash in the pan, an explosion of gunpowder without any communication beyond the touch-hole. When a piece is loaded, and upon the trigger being drawn, nothing but the priming takes fire, that piece is said to flash in the pan.

Flask, a measure made of horn, used to carry powder in, with the measure of the charge of the piece on the top of it.

Flasques, Fr. in the artillery, are two cheeks of the carriage of a great gun. See Affût.

Flasques likewise means a gun-powder flask.

Flat-bottomed boats, in military affairs, are made to swim in shallow water, and to carry a great number of troops, artillery, ammunition, &c. They are constructed in the following manner: a 12-pounder, bow chase, an 18 ditto, stern chase; 90 to 100 feet keel; 12 to 24 ditto beam; 1 mast, a large square main-sail; a jib-sail: they are rowed by 18 or 20 oars, and can each carry 400 men. The gun takes up one bow, and a bridge the other, over which the troops are to march. Those that carry horses have the fore parts of the boats made to open.

Flaw, any crack or small opening in a gun or its carriage is so called.

Fleau, Fr. the beam, or balance of a pair of scales.

There are some fleaux or scales among the French, which hold 6000 lb. weight in one scale, and 6000 lb. weight of ammunition in the other, making together, 12,000 weight.

Fleau de fer, Fr. an iron instrument or weapon, that resembles in shape the flails with which corn is threshed.

Fleau de Porte, Fr. an iron, or a strong wooden bar, which falls across the inside of the gates of a town, when shut, so as to prevent their being broken open.

Fleche, Fr. an arrow.

Fleche, in field fortification, a work of two faces, usually raised in the field, to cover the quarter guards of a camp or advanced post.

Fleche ardente, Fr. A particular kind of artificial firework, which is thrown into the works of the enemy; literally a blazing arrow.

Fleches de pont-levis, Fr. Pieces of timber collected at the counterpoise of a draw-bridge, to which are fixed two chains, that raise the apron of the bridge.

Fleches pour le pétard, Fr. Sticks of iron fixed together by means of iron rings, the last of which is armed with strong iron points; to this is fixed the pétard, which is to burst open the gates: these engines go upon wheels, and are pushed forward like flying bridges.

Fletcher. See Bowyer.

Fleuret, Fr. A foil used in learning to fence.

Flibustiers, Fr. Pirates in the West Indies: they cruise in bottoms, called flibots. Hence flibuster is to go out to plunder.

Flight, is used figuratively for the swift retreat of an army or any party from a victorious enemy.

To put to Flight, to force your enemy to quit the field of battle.

Flight, is likewise applicable to missile weapons or shot, as a flight of arrows, a flight of bombs, &c.

Flint (caillou, Fr.) A hard semipellucid stone of the crystal kind, well known to strike fire with steel. As various accidents happen from the want of proper attention to the method of fixing and enclosing flints in firelocks, particularly among volunteers and raw troops, we think it right to warn every soldier against the use of paper for this purpose. Paper, being naturally absorbent, must necessarily receive, in the course of one or two discharges of the musquet, several particles of gunpowder, and become inflammable. To soldiers (such as light troops and ride-
men who prime from a powder-horn, this mode is peculiarly hazardous. Instances, indeed, have occurred, in which the band has been blown off. We would recommend sheet lead or leather. But sheet lead, such as may be got from every trea-dealer, is preferable to leather. Leather is elastic, and does not wrap round the flint so well as lead, which collapses at every pressure; and in process of time leather will become dry, and of course susceptible of ignition. Captains of companies might easily afford their men a sufficient quantity of sheet lead, out of the allowance for emery, oil, and brickdust.

To FLOAT. A column is said to float when it loses its perpendicular line in march, and becomes unsteady in its movements.

FLOATING-batteries, vessels used as batteries, to cover troops in landing on an enemy's coast.

FLOGGING, the punishment in general use among the British foot soldiers. It is inflicted with a whip having several lashes.

We shall not presume to give any opinion on this subject in the present work, having expressed our sentiments in the Regimental Companion on that head. Sir Robert Wilson, the author of the Campaign in Egypt, has since entered considerably into the matter, and we refer the inquisitive to his late pamphlet, entitled, an Inquiry into the state of the British army, &c.

FLOODGATE, in fortified towns, is composed of 2 or 4 gates, so that the besieged by opening the gates may inundate the environs, and keep the enemy out of gun shot.

FLOOR. See PLATFORM.

FLOTTEMENT, Fr. An undulation or floating in the movements of a battalion whilst marching.

To FLOURISH, in a general musical acceptation of the term, is to play some prelude or preparatory air without any marked rule.

A FLOURISH, any vibration of sound that issues from a musical instrument.

The trumpet FLOURISH, in drawing swords, is used regimentally by corps of cavalry on their own ground, and is the sounding used in receiving a major general. It is repeated twice for a lieutenant general. Wheneuer his Majesty, the Commander in Chief, or any of the royal family appear before a body of cavalry, the trumpet flourish is always used.

FLOWER de Luce, The original Fleur de Lis, arms of France when monarchy prevailed in that country. They consisted in three flowers de lis or, in a field azure. These arms were superseded in 1789, by the cap of liberty, and the three coloured flag, when the bastille was taken and destroyed by the inhabitants of Paris.

FLUSHED, a term frequently applied when men have been successful, as flushed with victory, &c.

FLUTE, a wind instrument which is sometimes used in military bands; but never on service.

FLUX, an extraordinary evacuation of the body, to which soldiers are frequently subject on service. Towards the fall of the year this disorder is particularly prevalent, especially in camps. It is of a contagious nature, and the greatest care should be taken to prevent the healthy men in a regiment from frequenting the privies to which those infected by this cruel disorder are permitted to resort. A sentry should always be posted in the vicinity of every hospital for that specific purpose.

FLYING, See ARMY.

FLYING-CAMP. See CAMP.

FOCUS, in mining. See MINE.

FOOD. See FORAGE.

FOE. See ENEMY.

FOIBLE d'une Place, Fr. The weak side of a fortified place.

FOIBLESSE d'une Place de guerre, Fr. Those parts of a fortified town or place in which they are most vulnerable.

FOIL, in fencing, a long piece of steel of an elastic temper, mounted somewhat like a sword, which is used in fencing for exercise. It is without a point, or any sharpness, having a button at the extremity, covered with leather.

To FOIL, to defeat.

FOLLES (pièces) d'ARTILLERIE, Fr. those pieces of ordnance, the bore of which is not exactly straight.

FOLLOWERS of a camp, Officers servants, sutlers, &c. All followers of a camp are subject to the articles of war equally with the soldiers.
FONCTIONS Militaires, Fr. the relative duties and occupations to which military men are subject.

FONDE de cale, Fr. Hold of a ship.

FONDELLE, Fr. An instrument used in the same manner as a sling to throw stones: it was likewise called bicolle, owing to the stones, when round, taking an oblique direction.

FONDEMENTS, Fr. foundation.

FONDERIE, Fr. forge; or furnace. See FOUNDERY.

FONDEUR d'Artillerie, Fr. The person who casts the pieces of ordnance.

FONDRIERE, Fr. An opening in the surface of the earth occasioned by earthquakes, fire, rain, or a marshy ground, the waters of which growing stagnant are dried up in summer time, and freeze in cold weather.

FONDS destinés pour le paiement des troupes, Fr. Money issued for the service of the army.

FONTE des pièces d'artillerie. The metal used in the casting of cannon, which consists of three sorts well mixed together, viz. copper, tin, and brass.

FOOT, in a military sense, signifies all those bodies of men that serve on foot. See INFANTRY.

Foot is also a long measure, consisting of 12 inches. Geometricians divide the foot into 10 digits, and the digits into 10 lines; but we divide the foot into 12 inches, and an inch into 12 lines, and a line into 12 points.

A square Foot, is the same measure, both in length and breadth, containing 12 x 12 = 144 square or superficial inches.

A cubic Foot, is the same measure in all the three dimensions, length, breadth, and thickness; containing 12 x 12 x 12 = 1728 cubic inches. The foot is of different lengths in different countries.

The Paris royal foot exceeds the English by 9 lines; the ancient Roman foot of the capital consisted of 4 palms = 11.4 English inches; and the Rhineland or Leyden foot, by which the northern nations go, is to the Roman foot as 930 to 1000. The proportions of the principal feet of several nations are as follow: The English foot divided into 1000 parts, or into 12 inches, the other feet will be as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Places</th>
<th>1000 parts</th>
<th>1 inch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>London foot</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amsterdam</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antwerp</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bologna</td>
<td>1204</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Berlin</td>
<td>1010</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bremen</td>
<td>964</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cologne</td>
<td>954</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copenhagen</td>
<td>965</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dantzig</td>
<td>944</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dort</td>
<td>1184</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frankfort on the Main</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Greek</td>
<td>1007</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mantua</td>
<td>1569</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechlin</td>
<td>999</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middlebourg</td>
<td>991</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paris Royal</td>
<td>1068</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prague</td>
<td>1026</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhineland</td>
<td>1033</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Riga</td>
<td>1831</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman</td>
<td>967</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Roman</td>
<td>970</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotch</td>
<td>1005</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strasbourg</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrid</td>
<td>899</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lisbon</td>
<td>1060</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turin</td>
<td>1062</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venice</td>
<td>1162</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To be on the same footing with another, is to be under the same circumstances in point of service; to have the same number of men, and the same pay, &c.

To gain or lose ground foot by foot, is to do it regularly and resolutely; defending every thing to the utmost extremity, or forcing it by dint of art or labour.

Foot-bank, in fortification. See BANQUETTE.

FORAGE, in the art of war, implies hay, straw, and oats, for the subsistence of the army horses. This forage is divided into rations, one of which is a day's allowance for a horse, and contains 20lb. of hay, 10lb. of oats, and 5lb. of straw.

Dry FORAGE, oats, hay, &c. which are delivered out of magazines to a garrison, or to troops when they take the field, before the green forage is sufficiently grown to be cut or gathered.

Green FORAGE, oats, hay, &c. that have been recently cut. It likewise
means meadow pasture, into which horses are turned.

When cavalry is stationed in barracks in Great Britain, the number of rations of forage to be issued to the horses of the officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, is not to exceed what follows, and is to be confined to those which are actually effective in the barrack.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rations</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field officers, having 4 effective horses</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Captains, having 3 ditto</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subalterns and staff officers, having 2 ditto</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quarter-masters, each</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-commissioned officers and private men, each</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For each of which rations a stoppage is to be made of 8½d. per diem.

On foreign service this article is governed by circumstances.

FORBAN, Fr. A Pirate; a lawless wretch that plunders indiscriminately at sea.

FORCE, an armament or warlike preparation.

FORCE, in a military sense, any body of troops collected together for warlike enterprise.

Effective Forces. All the efficient parts of an army that may be brought into action are called effective, and generally consist of artillery, cavalry and infantry, with their necessary appendages, such as hospital staff, wagon-train, artificers and pioneers; the latter, though they cannot be considered as effective fighting men, constitute so far a part of effective forces, that no army could maintain the field without them.

Effective Forces of a country. All the disposable strength, vigor and activity of any armed proportion of native or territorial population. The navy of Great Britain must be looked upon as the effective bulwark of Old England; to which the body of marines adds no inconsiderable weight and importance, from tried courage and unquestionable fidelity. The superiority of our navy sufficiently proves its effective value.

Distribution of the effective Forces of a country. Under this head may be considered, not only the effective forces which might engage an enemy, but likewise those included in the several returns that are made from home or foreign stations to the war office, and out of which a grand total is formed to correspond with the estimates that are annually laid before the house of commons, by the Secretary at War.

To Force is to take by storm; also to man the works of a garrison.

To Force an enemy to give battle. To render the situation of an enemy so hazardous, that whether he attempt to quit his position, or endeavour to keep it, his capture or destruction must be equally inevitable. In either of which desperate cases, a bold and determined general will not wait to be attacked, but resolutely advance and give battle; especially if circumstances should combine to deprive him of the means of honourable capitulation. This can only be safely effected, by having previously disposed your own forces so as to defy any impression on his part, and by subsequent able manoeuvres to have it in your power to foil his attack.

To Force a passage. To oblige your enemy to retire from his fastnesses, and thus open a way into the country which he had occupied. This may be done either by coup de main, or renewal of assaults. In either case, the advancing body should be well supported and its flanks be secured with the most jealous attention.

Force d'une Armée, Fr. The sinews of an army. According to the French, and indeed according to the experience of all ages, argent, or money, constitutes the strength of every army. Hence point d'argent point de Suisse, no pay no soldier.

Prendre une place de Force, à force ouverte, Fr. To storm a town.

FORCER, Fr. to take advantage of superior strength; to levy contributions, &c.

Forcer une Ligne, Fr. to act offensively against any line of defence.

Forcer une Troupe, Fr. To act vigorously against armed troops; and by means of repeated attacks to get the better of them.

FORCING an adversary's guard or blade, a term used in the science of broad-sword.

"If at any time your antagonist appears languid and weak on his guard, and barely covers his body on the side he is opposed; by stepping well forward, and striking the fort of your sword smartly
smartly on his blade, you may be enabled to deliver a cut without risk even at the part he intends to secure; taking care to direct your blade in such a manner, that the plate or cross bar of your hilt shall prevent his sword from coming forward." See Art of defence on foot.

FORCEPS, an instrument used in chirurgery, to extract any thing out of wounds, or to take hold of dead or corrupt flesh, for the purpose of amputation. It is made somewhat in the shape of a pair of tongs or pincers, with grappling ends. Every regiments surgeon, or assistant surgeon, is directed to have a pair among his set of instruments.

FORD. The shallow part of a river where soldiers may pass over without injuring their arms.

FORE-RANK, first rank, front.

FOREIGN service, in a general sense, means every service but our own. In a more confined and native acceptation of the term, it signifies any service done out of the limits of Great Britain, Ireland, the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, &c.

FOREIGN troops, in an English acceptation, regiments or companies which are composed of aliens. Before the late war, no foreigner could bear a commission in the British service, or be enlisted as a soldier.

FORELAND, in fortification, called by the French, pas de souris, relais, retraite, berm or lucier, a confined space of ground between the rampart of a town or fortified place, and the moat. Whenever a fortification can be completed without having recourse to this substitute for stone, (with which the rampart ought to be faced,) it certainly is advisable to go to the expense. For a bold enemy, who has once made his way over the moat, will derive considerable advantage from having this path to stand on. It is generally from 3 to 8 or 10 feet wide. This space serves to receive the demolished parts of the rampart, and prevents the ditch from being filled up. In Holland the foreland is planted with thickset, but it is generally faced with palisades.

FORELAND, any point of land or FORENESS, which juts out into the sea.

North Foreland, a head-land, or promontory which juts out into the sea from the isle of Thanet. It may not improperly be called a flanking point to the mouth of the river Thames, or to the Great Nore.

Smith Foreland, a head-land, or promontory which juts out into the sea towards the south at Walmer Castle, and forms a part of that extent of coast which outflanks Dover. The north and south Foreland, are two flanking points to the Downs, having a convex surface of water, between Ramsgate and Walmer, towards the coast.

FORET, Fr. A steel instrument used to bore the touch-hole of a piece of ordnance. The same name is given to a very large instrument used by the miners when they want to establish furnaces, or chambers, &c. in a rock or stony substance.

FORFANTE & FORFANTERIE, Fr. See Fanfaron.

FORGE, in the train of artillery, is generally styled a travetting forge, and may not be improperly called a portable smith's shop: at this forge all manner of smith's work is made, and it can be used upon a march, as well as in camp. Formerly these forges were very ill contrived, with 2 wheels only, and wooden supports to prop the forge for working when in the park. Of late years they are made with 4 wheels, which answers the purpose much better.

Forge for red-hot balls, is a place where the balls are made red-hot before they are fired off: it is built about 5 or 6 feet below the surface of the ground, of strong brick work, and an iron grate, upon which the balls are laid, with a very large fire under them. See Red-hot Balls.

Forge de campagne, Fr. a moveable forge which accompanies the artillery, or cavalry.

FORKHEAD. See Barb.

FORLOFEN-hope, in the military art, signifies men detached from several regiments, or otherwise appointed to make the first attack in the day of battle; or at a siege, to storm the counterscarp, mount the breach, &c. They are so called from the great danger they are unavoidably exposed to.

To FORM, in a general acceptation of the term, is to assume or produce any shape or figure, extent or depth of line or column, by means of prescribed rules.
rules in military movements or dispositions.

To Form from file, among cavalry. The front file halts at a given point: the rest, or remaining files successively ride up at a very smart gallop, taking care to halt in time, and not to over-run the ground. If the formation is by doubling round the front file, (in a formation, for instance, to the rear of the march, or to the right when marched from the right,) the files must double as close round as possible, and with the utmost expedition. In forming from file, particular attention should be given, to make the men put their horses quite straight as they come in. They must keep their bodies square, dress by a slight cast of the eye towards the point of formation, and close and dress in an instant. A dragoon, in fact, must no sooner get into the ranks, than his attention should be given to remain steady, well closed and dressed. It is generally observed in the last printed regulations, that when the cavalry forms, each man must come up in file to his place, and by no means move up to his leader, till that leader has formed to whichever hand the file is forming to. The whole must follow the exact track of the first leader, and come up one by one into their respective places in squadron.

To Form to the front. To move nimbly up from file into ranks, and close to your leader, whether on foot, or horse-back.

To Form to the rear. To double round your leaders, who have themselves turned and faced.

To Form to a proper flank. To turn and close in to your leader.

To Form to a reverse flank. To pass, turn and successively close to your leaders.

In all formations from file, the whole, till otherwise directed, dress to the hand to which the squadron, or division forms. See Cavalry Regulations, p. 27.

To Form by moving in front, and successively arriving in line, is by divisions, or distinct bodies, to advance forward by word of command towards any given point of alignment. On these occasions the eyes of the whole are turned to the hand to which they are to form, and from which they preserve required distances. The leading officer must be on the inward flank of his division; he conducts it to its point of junction in line, and from thence dresses and corrects it on the person, who is previously placed beyond him, and prolonging the general line. The outward flank of the last formed and halted body, is always considered as the point of conjunction (necessary intervals included) of the succeeding one. Thus the looking and lining of the soldier is always towards that point, and the flank of the line formed to; and the correction of dressing by the officer is always made from that point towards the other flank. Therefore on all occasions of moving up, forming and dressing in line, by the men lining themselves to one hand (inwards) and the officers correcting to the other (outwards) the most perfect line may be obtained. Commanding officers of regiments, when a considerable line is forming, must take every advantage from timeously (or rather opportunely) throwing out intelligent persons to give them true points in the general line. In the French service these persons are called jalonneurs, from jalonner, to fix anything, by which any true direction, perpendicular or otherwise, may be obtained.

To Form line, is to wheel to the right or left from open column of divisions, subdivisions, or sections, according to prescribed rules, so as to present one continued front or straight line; or to deploy from close column for the same end, or to file to the front.

To Form rank entire, is to extend the front of a battalion or company by reducing it to the least possible depth, from any existing number of ranks.

To Form two deep, is from rank entire or from three deep to produce a regular line of files.

To Form three deep, is to add the depth of one half file to two deep, and to produce the natural formation of a battalion in line.

To Form four deep, is to diminish the natural extent of a battalion formed in line, by adding one half-file to its depth.

To Form echelon, is, from line, or open column, to wheel a given number of paces forward or backward, so as to produce a diagonal or oblique direction in the different proportions of a line; the outward flank of each succeeding division,

scrupulous exactitude, and the others continue in a parallel direction close on its right; each carefully preserving its relative points of prolongation, and being frosted by its officer the instant it gets upon the ground, which is perpendicular to its incautious formation in line.

As soon as the rear division is uncovered, and has received the word march, it proceeds forward, and when arrived within a few paces of its ground, the officer commanding steps nimbly up to the detached officer or sergeant, who has carefully marked its left in the new position, gives the words, halt, dress, and quickly corrects his division on the distant point of formation; after which he replaces his sergeant on the right of his division. As the officer who conducts this division has necessarily the longest extent of ground to march on, he must take especial care to observe his perpendicular direction, constantly keeping the different points of formation in his eye, and preserving a perfect squareness of person. The intermediate divisions will successively proceed and advance as the ground opens before them.

To Form on a central division. To execute this manoeuvre, the front and rear divisions must deploy, or open, so as to uncover the named division, and enable it to move up to a given point of alignment. A forming point must be given to both flanks in the prolongation of the head division.

When the caution of forming on a central division has been given, the leading officers will shift to the heads of their several divisions, the instant they have been faced according to the hand which leads to their ground. The files during their deployment must be kept close, and well locked up; and when frosted, must instantly be corrected in their dressing before they march forward. The central division, when uncovered, moves up into line to its marked flank. Those that were in front of it proceed as in forming on a rear division; those that were in rear of it proceed as in forming on a front division. By means of these three formations, which are effected by the deployment, or flank march, every battalion in close column, may uncover and extend its several divisions. The previous formation of close column upon given proportions of a brigade, battalion, &c. is done by facing and moving inwards, and thus contracting the original line with any given division for the head; which line may again be restored by the different divisions facing and moving outwards, as we have just described. See Infantry Regulations, p. 184.

To Form line on a rear company of the open column standing in echelon, that company remains placed; the others face about, wheel back on the pivot flanks of the column, as being those which afterwards first come into line. On the word march, they move forward, and then halt, front, successively in the line of the rear company.

To Form line on the rear company facing to the rear of the open column standing in echelon, the whole column must first countermarch, each company by files, and then proceed as in forming on a front company.

To Form line on a central company of the open column; that company stands fast, or is wheeled on its own center into a new required direction. Those in front must be ordered to face about. The whole, except the central company, must wheel back the named number of paces. Those in front, on the proper pivot flanks of the column, and those in its rear on the reverse flanks, such being the flanks that first arrive in line. The whole then marches in line with the central company. See Infantry Regulations, S. 161.

To Form line from close column on a rear company facing to the rear; the whole of the column changes front by countermarching each company by files. The rear company stands fast, and the remaining companies face to the right, deploy, successively halt, front, and move up into the alignment.

To Form line from close column on a central company facing to the rear; the central company countermarches and stands fast; the other companies face outwards, countermarch, deploy, and successively march up to the alignment. Whenever the column is a retiring one, and the line is to front to the rear, the divisions must each countermarch before the formation begins. In which
which case the head would be thrown back, and the rear forward. See Infantry Regulations, p. 207.

To Form en potence, to wheed the right or left flank of a body of men, or to march them forward by files, so as to make that proportion of a line face inwards, and resemble a potence or gibbet. A double potence may be formed by running out both flanks, so that they stand in a perpendicular direction facing towards each other. This formation is not only extremely useful on actual service, but it conduces greatly to the accommodation of any body of men which may be marched into a place that has not sufficient extent of ground to receive it in line.

FORMATION, in a military sense, the methodical arrangement, or drawing up of any given body of men mounted, or on foot, according to prescribed rules and regulations.

Cavalry Formation, in conformity to His Majesty's orders, consists of the following proportions, viz.

- Squadrons of cavalry are composed of two troops; regiments are composed of each of two, three, or more squadrons; and a line is composed of two or more regiments. The squadron is formed two deep.

FORMATION of a troop, is the drawing out of a certain number of men on horseback on their troop parade, in a rank entire, sized according to the size-roll.

FORMATION of the squadron, is the military disposition of two troops that compose it closed into each, from their several troop parades. In this situation, the officers move out, and form in a rank advanced two horses length, fronting to their troops. The serjeants and covering corporals rein back, and dress with the quarter-master in the rear. When the formation of a squadron has been completed, and its component parts have been accurately told off, the commanding officer is advanced a horse's length before the standard. Two officers are posted, one on each flank of the front rank, covered by a corporal. One officer is posted in the center of the front rank with the standard, and is covered by a corporal. Three serjeants are placed, one on the right of the front of each of the four divisions, except the right one, and each is covered by a corporal or private dragoon. The serre-files or supernumerary officers and serjeants, the quarter-masters and trumpeters, are in the rear of their several troops, divided in a line, at two horses distance from the rear rank. Farriers are behind the serre-files a horse's length. Allowance is always made for sick and absent officers and non-commissioned officers; and if a sufficient number of any rank is not present, then serjeants replace officers, corporals replace serjeants, and lance-corporals or intelligent men replace corporals.

Formation, considered as to general circumstances, admits of a few deviations from the strict letter of the term. It is observed in the official regulations, that in order to preserve each troop entire, it is not material, if one division be a file stronger than another. The flank divisions indeed, both in cavalry and infantry regiments, will be strongest from the addition of officers. Officers, in the formation of squadrons, are recommended to be posted with their troops. Corporals not wanted to mark the divisions, or to cover officers or serjeants, will be in the ranks according to their size, or be placed in the outward flank file of their troops. Farriers are considered as detached in all situations of manœuvre.

All these general circumstances of formation apply and take place, whether the squadron be composed of two, or more troops, and whether the troops be more or less strong. See Cavalry Regulations, pages 7, 8, and 9.

General modes of Formation, are when a regiment broken into and marching in open column, must arrive at and enter on the ground on which it is to form in line, either in the direction of that line, perpendicular to that line, or in a direction more or less oblique between the other two. For specific explanations see page 80 Cavalry Regulations.

Infantry Formation, is the arrangement or disposition of any given number of men on foot according to prescribed rules and regulations. When the companies join, (which are generally ten in number, viz. 1 grenadier, 8 battalion, and 1 light company,) and the battalion is formed, there is not to be any interval between the relative parts, but the whole front must present a continuity of points, and
and one compact regular line from the flank file of the grenadiers to the flank file of the light company.

The formation or drawing up of the companies will be as follows from right to left: grenadiers on the right, light company on the left;—the four eldest captains are on the right of the grand divisions—officers commanding companies or platoons are all on the right of the front rank of their respective commands.

The eight battalion companies will compose four grand divisions—eight companies or platoons—sixteen subdivisions—thirty-two sections, when sufficiently strong to be so divided, otherwise twenty-four, for the purposes of march. The battalion is likewise divided into right and left wings. When the battalion is on a high establishment, each company will be divided into two equal parts, seated platoons. When the ten companies are with the battalion, they may then be divided into five grand divisions from right to left. This is done to render the firings more exact, and to facilitate deploy-movements.

The battalion companies will be numbered from the right to the left 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8. The subdivisions will be numbered 1 2 3 4 of each. The sections will be numbered 1 2 3 4 and so on. The grenadier and light companies will be numbered separately in the same manner, and with the addition of those distinctions. No alteration is to be made in these appellations whether the battalion be faced to front or rear.

Formation at close order, is the arrangement of any given number of men in ranks at the distance of one pace, except where there is a fourth, or supernumerary rank, which has three paces. In firing order the ranks are more closely locked in.

When a battalion is formed in close order, the field officers and adjutant are mounted. The commanding officer is the only officer advanced in front for the general purpose of exercise, when the battalion is single; but in the march in line, and during the firings, he is in the rear. The other mounted field officers are in the rear of each wing. The adjutant's station is in the rear of the battalion, rather to the left of the commanding officer. One officer is on the right of the front rank of each company or platoon, and one on the left of the battalion. All these are covered in the rear by their respective sergeants, and the remaining officers and sergeants are in a fourth rank behind their companies. There are no coverers in the centre rank to officers or colours. The colours are placed between the fourth and fifth battalion companies, both in the front rank, and each covered by a non-commissioned officer, or steady man in the rear rank. One sergeant is in the front rank between the colours; he is covered by a second sergeant in the rear rank, and by a third in the supernumerary rank. The sole business of these three sergeants is, when the battalion moves in line, to advance and direct the march according to prescribed instructions. The place of the first of those sergeants, when they do move out, is preserved by a named officer or sergeant, who moves up from the supernumerary rank for that purpose. The music is posted in the rear of the right center company, in a single rank, three paces behind the fourth rank; the pioneers at the same distance in rear of the fourth rank of the left center company, and in a single rank; the drummers of the eight battalion companies are assembled in two divisions, six paces behind the third rank of their second and seventh companies. Thegrenadier and light company drummers and fifers are six paces behind their respective companies. The staff officers are three paces behind the music.

Formation at open order, is any open disposition or arrangement of men by ranks at straight lines parallel to each other.

When a battalion is directed to take open order, the rear ranks fall back one and two paces, each dressing by the right the instant it arrives on the ground. The officers in the front rank, as also the colours, move out three paces. Those in the rear, together with the music, advance through the intervals left open by the front rank officers, and divide themselves in the following manner: the captains covering the second file from the right, the lieutenants the second
file from the left, and the ensigns opposite the center of their respective companies. The music form between the colours and the front rank. The serjeant coverers move up to the front rank, to fill up the intervals left by the officers. The pioneers fall back to six paces distance behind the center of the rear rank. The drummers take the same distance behind their divisions. The major moves to the right of the line of officers; the adjutant to the left of the front rank. The staff place themselves on the right of the front rank of the grenadiers. The colonel and lieutenant-colonel dismounted, advance before the colours four and two paces. See Infantry Regulations, Sec. 73.

FORMER, Fr. To form, to put in order.

FORMER une troupe, Fr. To drill and discipline any number of men, so as to enable them to act in troops or companies.

FORMERS, round pieces of wood that are fitted to the diameter of the bore of a gun, round which the cartridge paper, parchment, or cotton is rolled before it is sewed.

FORMERS, were likewise used among officers and soldiers to reduce their clubs to an uniform shape, before the general introduction of tails.

FORMATION of guards. See Guards.

FORT, (Fort, Fr.) a small fortified place, environed on all sides with a ditch, rampart, and parapet. Its use is to secure some high ground, or the passage of a river, or to make good an advantageous post, to defend the lines and quarters of a siege, &c.

Forts are made of different figures and extents, according to the exigency of the service, or the peculiar nature of the ground. Some are fortified with bastions, others with demi-bastions. Some are in form of a square, others of a pentagon. Some again are made in the form of a star, having 5 or 7 angles. A fort differs from a citadel, the last being built to command some town. See Citadell.

Royal Fort, one whose line of defence is at least 26 toises long.

Triangular forts, are frequently made with half-bastions; but they are very imperfect, because the faces are not seen or defended from any other part. If, instead of being terminated at the angle, they were directed to a point about 20 toises from it, they would be much better, as then they might be defended by that length of the rampart, though but very obliquely. The ditch ought to be from 8 to 10 toises. Sometimes instead of half-bastions at the angles, whole ones are placed in the middle of the sides. The gorges of these bastions may be from 20 to 24 toises, when the sides are from 100 to 120; the flanks are perpendicular to the sides, from 10 to 12 toises long; and the capitals from 20 to 24. If the sides happen to be more or less, the parts of the bastions are likewise made more or less in proportion. The ditch round this fort may be 10 or 12 toises wide.

The ramparts and parapets of these sorts of works are commonly made of turf, and the outside of the parapet is raised: that is, a row of palisades is placed about the middle of the slope, in an horizontal manner, the points declining rather a little downwards, that the grenades or fire-works thrown upon them may roll down into the ditch; and if the ditch is dry, a row of palisades should be placed in the middle of it, to prevent the enemy from passing over it unperceived, and to secure the fort from any surprise.

FORT DE CAMPAIGNE, Fr. a field fortification. See FORTIFICATION.

FORTRESS. (Fortresse, Fr.) Any strong place rendered so by art, or originally so by local advantages, or by means of both nature and art. Places which are strong by nature generally stand upon mountains, precipices, in the middle of a marsh, on the sea-coast, in a lake, or on the banks of some large river. Places which are strong by art, owe their strength to the labour of man, whose ingenuity and perseverance substitute ditches and ramparts where mountains and rivers are wanting.

FORTIFICATION, is the art of fortifying a town or other place; or of putting it in such a posture of defence, that every one of its parts defends, and is defended by some other parts, by means of ramparts, parapets, ditches, and other out-works; to the end that a small number of men within may be able to defend themselves for a considerable
erable time against the assaults of a numerous army without; so that the enemy, in attacking them, must of necessity, suffer great loss.

Fortification may be divided into ancient and modern; offensive, and defensive; regular and irregular; natural and artificial, &c.

Ancient Fortification, at first consisted of walls or defences made of the trunks and branches of trees, mixed with earth, for security against the attacks of an enemy. Invention owes its origin to necessity; fortification seems to have had fear for its basis; for when man had no other enemy but the wild beasts, the walls of his cottage were his security: but when pride, ambition, and avarice, had possessed the minds of the strong and the daring to commit violences upon their weaker neighbours, either to subject them to new laws, or to plunder their little inheritance, it was natural for the latter to contrive how to defend themselves from such injuries.

Whoever has been in North America, may have seen fortification in its infancy.

There are abundance of Indian villages fenced round by long stakes driven into the ground, with moss or earth to fill the intervals; and this is their security (together with their own vigilance) against the cruelty of the savage neighbouring nations.

Nor is fortification much less ancient than mankind; for Cain, the son of Adam, built a city with a wall round it upon Mount Liban, and called it after the name of his son Enoch, the ruins of which, it is said, are to be seen to this day; and the Babylonians, soon after the deluge, built cities, and encompassed them with strong walls.

At first people thought themselves safe enough with a single wall, behind which they made use of their darts and arrows with safety: but as other warlike instruments were continually invented to destroy these feeble structures, so on the other hand persons acting on the defensive were obliged to build stronger and stronger, to resist the new contrived forces of the desperate assailants.

What improvements they made in strengthening their walls many ages ago, appear from history. The first walls we ever read of, and which were built by Cain were of brick; and the ancient Grecians, long before Rome was ever thought of, used brick and rubble stone, with which they built a vast wall, joining Mount Hymetus to the city of Athens. The Babylonian walls, built by Semiramin, or, as others will have it, by Belus, were 39 feet thick; and 100 feet high, with towers 10 feet higher, built upon them, cemented with bitumen or asphaltus. Those of Jerusalem seem to have come but little short of them, since, in the siege by Titus, all the Roman battering-rams, joined with Roman art and courage, could remove but 4 stones out of the tower of Antonia in a whole night's assault.

After fortification had arrived at this height, it stopped for many ages, until the use of gunpowder and guns was found out; and then the round and square towers, which were very good flanks against bows and arrows, became but indifferent ones against the violence of cannon; nor did the battlements any longer offer a hiding place, when the force of one shot both overset the battlement, and destroyed those who sought security from it.

Modern Fortification, is the way of defence now used, turning the walls into ramparts, and square and round towers into bastions, defended by numerous outworks; all which are made so solid that they cannot be beat down, but by the continual fire of several batteries of cannon. These bastions at first were but small, their gorges narrow, their flanks and faces short, and at a great distance from each other, as are those now to be seen in the city of Antwerp, built in 1540, by Charles V. emperor of Germany; since which time they have been greatly improved and enlarged, and are now arrived to that degree of strength, that it is almost a received opinion, that the art of fortification is at its height, and almost incapable of being carried to a much greater perfection.

Offensive Fortification shews how to besiege and take fortified places; it further teaches a general how to take all advantages for his troops; the manner of encamping, and method of carrying on either a regular or irregular siege,
seige, according as circumstances may
direct.

Defensive Fortification shews a
governor how to make the most of a
garrison committed to his care, and to
provide all things necessary for its de-
defence.

Regular Fortification is that built
in a regular polygon, the sides and an-
gles of which are all equal, being com-
monly a musket-shot from each other,
and fortified according to the rules of
art.

Irregular Fortification, on the con-
trary, is that where the sides and an-
gles are not uniform, equi-distant, or
equal; which is owing to the irregu-
larity of the ground, vallies, rivers, hills,
and the like.

To Fortify inwards, is to represent
the bastion within the polygon proposed
to be fortified, and then that polygon
is called the exterior polygon, and each
of its sides the exterior side, terminat-
ing at the points of the two nearest bas-
tions.

To Fortify outwards, is to represent
the bastion without the polygon pro-
gessed to be fortified, and then the poly-
gon is called the interior polygon, and
each of its sides the interior side ter-
minal in the centers of the two near-
est bastions.

Elementary Fortification, by some
likewise called the theory of fortifica-
tion, consists in tracing the plans and
profiles of a fortification on paper, with
scales and compasses; and examining
the systems proposed by different au-
thors, in order to discover their advan-
tages and disadvantages. The eleme-
tary part is likewise divided into regu-
lar and irregular fortification, which see.

Front Fortification, any propor-
tion of the body of a place, consisting
of two half bastions and a curtain.

Practical Fortification consists in
forming a project of a fortification, ac-
cording to the nature of the ground,
and other necessary circumstances, to
trace it on the ground, and to execute
the project, together with all the mili-
tary buildings, such as magazines, store-
houses, barracks, bridges, &c.

The following are the names of every
part of a Fortification; and first
of lines, which are divided into
right lines, and curve lines.

Line of defence, is the distance be-
tween the salient angle of the bastion,
and the opposite flank; that is, it is the
face produced to the flank. Common
experience, together, with some of the
greatest artists in fortification, unani-
mously agree, that the lines of defence
may extend (though not exceed) 150
fathom. Some indeed will affirm, that,
as a musket does not carry more than
130 fathom point blank, the angle of the
bastion should be no further removed
from its opposite flank. We agree that
a musket carries no further point-blank;
but we are sure its will do execution,
and kill, at 180 fathom. The enemy gen-
erally makes his breaches near the mid-
dle of the face; which if granted, the
line of fire from the flank to the breach,
scarcely exceeds 150 fathom; besides,
the cannon of the flank does less execu-
tion upon a short line of defence than
on a long one.

Line of defence fchant, is a line drawn
from the angle of the curtain, to the
point of the opposite bastion, which is
not to exceed 120 fathom; and from
the point of the curtain, and flank, to
the face of the opposite bastion, which
is to be defended. This line may not
improperly be called in good English the
butting-flank, since it partly sees the
opposite faces in reverse; and the shot
from it, especially near the orillon,
strike against the faces. Authors are
numerous both for and against the f-
chant and rasant lines; we can only set
down as a fixed rule, that the more pow-
erful the active quality is, the more
the passive must suffer; that in fortification
the active quality is the fire, which dis-
covers the assailants (who are the pas-
see) going to attack the face of the
opposite bastion; consequently the more
this active quality is augmented, by so
much the more must the passive sub-
jects suffer: and from thence we argue
for the fchant flank, since it augments
this active quality, by all the fire of
the curtain added to the flank, which is the
principal action in the art of defence.

Line of defence rasant, is a line
drawn from the point of the bastion
along the face, till it comes to the cur-
tain, which shews how much of the cur-
tain will clear or defend the face. This
line may very justly in our language be
called the sweeping-flank; because the
shot
that points inwards, or is not well defended.

Angle of the ditch, is formed before the center of the curtain, by the outward line of the ditch.

Angle rentrant, is any angle whose Re-entering angle, point turns inwards, or towards the place; that is whose legs open towards the field.

Salient angle, is that which points outwards, or whose legs open towards the place.

Angle of the complement of the line of defence, is the angle formed by the intersection of the 2 complements with each other.

Inward flanking angle, that which is made by the flanking line, and the curtain. See Angle.

Names of the solid works of a Fortification.

Advanced-fosse, or ditch, made at the Avant-fosse, foot of the glacis; it is but very seldom made, because it is easily taken, and serves for a trench to the besiegers.

Appareille, is that slope or easy ascent which leads to the platfrom of the bastion, or to any other work, where the artillery, &c. are brought up and carried down.

Approaches are a kind of roads or passages sunk in the ground by the besiegers, whereby they approach the place under cover of the fire from the garrison.

Area, the superficial content of a rampart or other work.

Arrow is a work placed at the salient angle of the glacis, and consists of two parapets, each about 40 fathoms long; this work has a communication with the covert way, of about 24 or 28 feet broad, called a caponniere, with a ditch before it of about 5 or 6 fathom, and a traverse at the entrance, of 3 fathom thick, and a passage of 6 or 8 feet round it.

Banquette, whether single or double is a kind of step, made on the rampart of a work near the parapet, for the troops to stand upon, in order to fire over the parapet; it is generally 3 feet high when double, and 1½ when single, and about 3 feet broad, and 4½ feet lower than the parapet.

Bastion, is a part of the inner inclosure of a fortification, making an angle towards
towards the field, and consists of two faces, 2 flanks, and an opening towards the centre of the place, called the gorce; or it is rather a large mass of earth, usually faced with sods, sometimes with brick, but rarely with stone; having the figure described.

With regard to the first invention of bastions, there are many opinions amongst authors. Some have attributed this invention to Zisca, the Bohemian; others to Achmet Bashaw, who having taken Otranto in the year 1480, fortified it in a particular manner, which is supposed to be the first instance of the use of bastions. Those who wrote on the subject of fortification 200 years ago, seem to suppose that bastions were a gradual improvement in the ancient method of building, rather than a new thought, that any one person could claim the honour of. It is certain, however, that they were well known soon after the year 1500; for in 1546, Tartalea published Quesiti & inventioni diverse, in the 6th book of which he mentions, that whilst he resided at Verona (which must have been many years before) he saw bastions of a prodigious size; some finished, and others building; and there is besides, in the same book, a plan of Turin, which was then fortified with 4 bastions, and seems to have been completed some time before.

The great rule in constructing a bastion is, that every part of it may be seen and defended from some other part. More angles are therefore not sufficient, but flanks and faces are likewise necessary. The faces must not be less than 50 fathom, nor more than 65. The longer the flanks are the greater is the advantage which can be derived from them. They must therefore stand at right angles with the line of defence. At the same time the disposition of the flanks makes the principal part of a fortification, as on them the defence chiefly depends; and it is this that has introduced the various kinds of fortifying.

The angle of the bastion must exceed 60°; otherwise it will be too small to give room for the guns, and will either render the line of defence too long, or the flanks too short. It must therefore be either a right angle, or some intermediate one between that and 60 degrees.

Full bastions are best calculated for intrenchments, which are thrown up at the gorge, or by means of a cavalier, whose faces are made parallel to those of the bastion at the distance of 15 toises; having its flanks at the distance of 12 toises, and a ditch measuring 5.

Large bastions have the advantage of small ones, for this palpable reason; the bastion being considered the weakest part of the body of a place, is always attacked; when there is room for troops, cannon and mortars, its natural weakness is greatly remedied.

Gorge of a bastion, the interval between the extremity of one flank and that of the next.

Flat bastion. When a bastion upon a right line is so constructed, that its demi-gorges do not form an angle, it is called a flat bastion.

Gorge of a flat bastion, is a right line, which terminates the distance between two flanks.

Solid bastion. A bastion is said to be solid or full, when the level ground within is even with the rampart; that is, when the inside is quite level, the parapet being only more elevated than the rest. Solid bastions have this advantage over others, that they afford earth enough to make a retrenchment, in case the enemy lodge themselves on the top of the bastion, and the besieged are resolved to dispute every inch of ground.

Hollow bastion, is that where the empty bastion, where the level ground within is much lower than the rampart, or that part next to the parapet, where the troops are placed to defend the bastion. The disadvantage of these kinds of bastions is, the earth being so low, that when an enemy is once lodged on the rampart, there is no making a retrenchment towards the center, but what will be under the fire of the besiegers.

Detached bastion, is that which is separated or cut off from the body of the place, and differs from a half moon, whose rampart and parapet are lower, and not so thick as those of the place, having the same proportion with the works of the place. Counter-guards with
Breach, is an opening or gap made in a wall or rampart, with either cannon or mines, sufficiently wide for a body of troops to enter the works, and drive the besieged out of it.

Practical breach, is that where men may mount, and make a lodgement, and should be 15 or 20 feet wide.

Capital of a work, is an imaginary line which divides that work into two equal parts.

Capital of a bastion, a line drawn from the angle of the polygon to the point of the bastion, or from the point of the bastion to the center of the gorge. These capitals are from 35 to 40 toises in length, from the point of the bastion to the place where the two demi-gorges meet; being the difference between the exterior and the interior radii.

Caponniere is a passage made in a dry ditch from one work to another: when it is made from the curtain of the body of the place to the opposite ravelin, or from the front of a horn or crownwork, it has a parapet on each side, of 6 or 7 feet high, sloping in a glacis of 10 or 12 toises on the outside to the bottom of the ditch: the width within is from 20 to 25 feet, with a banquette on each side: there is a brick wall to support the earth within, which only reaches within 1 foot of the top, to prevent grazing shot from driving the splinters amongst the defenders.

Caponnières with two parapets may properly be called double; as there are some made with one parapet only, in dry ditches of the ravelin, and in that of its redoubt, towards the salient angles, and to open towards the body of the place.

Caponnières, made from the body of the place to the out-works, are sometimes arched over, with loop-holes to fire into the ditch. The single ones in the ditch of the ravelin and redoubt are likewise made with arches open towards the place; for by making them in this manner, the guns which defend the ditch before them, can no other way be dismounted than by mines.

Casemates, in fortification, a kind of cellars made under the capital of a fortification; also subterraneous passages or galleries to discover the enemy's mines.

Casemate, in fortification, is a work made
made under the rampart, like a cellar or
cave, with loop-holes to place guns
in it.

*Cavaliers,* are works, raised generally
within the body of the place, 10 or 12
feet higher than the rest of the works.
Their most common situation is within
the bastion, and they are made much in
the same form: they are sometimes placed
in their gorges, or on the middle of the
curtain, and then are in the form of a
horse-shoe, only flatter.

The use of cavaliers is, to command
all the adjacent works and country round
them: they are seldom or never made, but
when there is a hill or rising ground
which overlooks some of the works.

*Center,* the middle point of any work.

From the center of a place are drawn
the first lines to lay down the form of a
fortification.

*Center of the bastion,* is that point where
the two adjacent curtains produced in-
sect each other.

*Citadel,* is a kind of fort, or small for-
tification, of 4, 5, or 6 sides; sometimes
joined to towns, &c. Citadel are al-
ways built on the most advantageous
ground. They are fortified towards the
city, and towards the country; being
divided from the former by an esplanade,
or open place: and serving in one case
to overawe the inhabitants; and in the
other, not only to hinder the approach of
an enemy; but to become a retreat
to the garrison, should the town be
taken.

*Coffers.* See COFFERS.

*Command,* is when a hill or rising
ground overlooks any of the works of
a fortification, and is within reach of
cannon shot; such a hill is said to com-
mand that work. See COMMAND.

*Complement of the curtain,* is that part
of the interior side which forms the
demi-gorge.

*Complement of the line of defence,* is
a horn-work with a crown-work before
it. See CROWN-WORK.

*Cordon,* in fortification, is a round
projection made of stone, in a semi-cir-
cular form, whose diameter is about 1
foot, and goes quite round the wall, and
within 4 feet from the upper part.

The cordon being placed on the top
of the revetement of the escarp, is a
considerable obstacle to the besiegers,
when they attempt to storm a place by
applying scaling ladders to the escarp.

*Covert-way,* is a space of five or six
toises broad, extending round the coun-
terscarp of the ditch, and covered by a
parapet from six to seven feet and a half
high, having a balustrade: the superior
part of this parapet forms a gentle slope
towards the country, which terminates
at the distance of twenty to twenty-
five toises; this slope is called the
glacis.

Sometimes the covert-way is sunk 2 or
3 feet below the horizon of the field;
for, as such works are never made to
discover the enemy in their trenches,
so this method of lowering the cover-
t way will give room for the fire of the
lower curtain (in works that have one)
to scour the esplanade; and the expence
of it should be the most material objec-
tion against it.

*Counter-forts,* in fortification, are by
some called buttresses; they are solids of
masonry, built behind walls, and joined
to them at 18 feet distance from cen-
ter to center, in order to strengthen them,
especially when they sustain a rampart
or terrace.

*Counterguard,* in fortification, is a
work placed before the bastions to cover
the opposite flanks from being seen from
the covert-way. It is likewise made be-
fore the ravelins.

When counterguards are placed before
the collateral bastions, they are esteemed
of very great use, as the enemy cannot
batter them without having first secured
the possession of the counterguards.
They were first invented by Pasino, in
1579, and greatly improved by Speckle,
in 1589.

*Counterscarp,* is properly the exterior
talus of the ditch, or that slope which
terminates its breadth, and is the fur-
ther side from the body of the place. It
is so called from being opposite to the
escarp.

*Crown-work,* in fortification, is a
kind of work not unlike a crown: it has
2 fronts and 2 branches. The fronts
are composed of 2 half bastions and 1
whole one: they are made before the
curtain or the bastion, and generally
serve to inclose some buildings which
cannot be brought within the body of
the place, or to cover the town-gates, or
else to occupy a spot of ground which might be advantageous to an enemy. They are so expensive, that they are rarely found in practice. The best use this work can possibly be put to, is to cover two joining curtains, when the sides of it will be parallel to the sides of the place, and it should be fortified with the same strength, and in the same manner.

The authors who have written on the subject, have never thought of this useful part; and we often see 2 horn-works put in practice to cover two curtains, where a crown-work would do it much cheaper and much better. The crown-work is adopted for the same purposes as the horn-work.

Crowned horn-work, is a horn-work with a crown-work before it. See Crown-work.

Curtain, is that part of the body of the place, which joins the flank of one bastion to that of another. The straight curtains have always been preferred to the different designs which have been proposed, of which some have diminished the expense, and (at the same time) the strength of the place; others have somewhat augmented the strength, but greatly diminished its area.

Cunette, is a small ditch from 15 to 20 feet broad (more or less), made in the middle of a large dry ditch, serving as a retrenchment to defend the same, or otherwise to let water into it, when it can be had during a siege.

When there is a cunette, there should be a saponiere to flank it.

Deflement, in fortification, is the art of disposing all the works of a fortress in such a manner, that they may be commanded by the body of the place. It also includes the relative disposition of the works, and the ground within cannon shot, so that the one may be discovered, and the other not observed.

Demi-gorge, is half the gorge, or entrance into the bastion, not taken directly from angle to angle, where the bastion joins the curtain, but from the angle of the flank to the center of the bastion, or rather the angle the two curtains would make were they protracted to meet in the bastion. Mr. Landmann determines it to be the line which is formed by the prolongation of the curtain meeting the oblique radius.

Demi-lune. See Ravelin.

Descents in fortification, are the holes, vaults, and hollow places made by undermining the ground.

Descents into the ditch or fossé, are boyaux or trenches effected by the means of saps in the ground of the counterscarp, under the covert-way. They are covered with madriers, or hurdles, well loaded with earth, to secure them against fire. In ditches that are full of water, the descent is made even with the surface of the water; and then the ditch is filled with faggots, fast bound, and covered with earth. In dry ditches the descent is carried down to the bottom; after which, traverses are made either as lodgments for the troops, or to cover the miner. When the ditch is full of water, the descent must be made over its surface; which is done by securing it with blinds or chandeliers, from being enfladed, or by directing the course of the descent from the point of enflade in the best way you can.

Detached bastion. See Bastion.

Detached redoubt. See Redoubt.

Ditch, is a large deep trench made round each work, generally from 12 to 22 fathom broad, and from 15 to 16 feet deep: the earth dug out of it serves to raise the rampart and parapet. Almost every engineer has a particular depth and breadth for ditches; some are for narrow ones and deep, others for broad ones and shallow; and it is most certain that ditches should be regulated according to the situation. In regard to wet and dry ditches, almost all authors have given it in favour of the latter; and we shall only add, that the best of all are those which can either be filled or kept dry at pleasure.

Wet ditches, which have stagnant waters, are liable to great inconveniences. They are said to be well calculated to prevent sudden surprizes and assaults; but we are convinced of the contrary, especially during a hard frost. Some again assert, that they stop all communication between ill-disposed persons in the garrison and the besiegers. Every man with the least experience, must be of a different opinion.

Wet ditches might certainly be so constructed, as to let the surface of the water
water remain 12 or 15 feet above the level of the adjacent country; in which case they would serve as large reservoirs, and not only contribute to the defence of a fortified place, but enrich the grounds by being occasionally let out. The additional value which the neighbouring meadows would bear from these seasonable overflows would, in some degree, compensate for the expense of the fortification. During a siege, these waters, with proper management, must give considerable uneasiness to the enemy that invests the place.

To answer this double purpose, the ditch must be separated into several large basins, which might be filled or emptied at discretion, as often as circumstances would require.

**Dry Ditches.** There are some ditches which may be filled at will; and others which cannot, except by extraordinary means. If they should be intended to answer the purpose of agriculture, aqueducts might be constructed, or the waters poured in through artificial channels. In which case the ditches would not require much depth. The glacis might be raised in such a manner as to serve to dam in the body of water, and to afford a second glacis from whence the besieger might be considerably embarrassed.

**Ditches that are lined,** Ditches whose counterscarp is supported and kept up by a stone or brick wall.

**Ditches that are not lined,** Ditches whose counterscarp is supported by earth covered with sods. These ditches are not so secure as the former, on account of the breadth which must be given to the talus, and by which an enemy might easily surprise a place.

So that ditches in fortification may be briefly distinguished under three separate heads, viz.

**Dry Ditches,** which from the facility with which they may be repaired, and their capability of containing other works proper for their security, are in most instances preferable to any others.

**Wet Ditches** that are always full of water, and consequently must have bridges of communication which are liable to be destroyed very frequently during a siege.

Wet ditches are subject to many inconveniences, are ill calculated to favour sallies, and have only the solitary advantage of preventing a surprize.

The third sort of ditch has all the advantages of the other two kinds; if, as we have just observed, it can be so contrived, as to admit occasionally water into the different basins by means of aqueducts, and be drained, as circumstances may require.

**Draught-bridge.** See Bridge.

**Embassures.** See Embasure.

**Envelopes.** is a work of earth raised occasionally in the ditch, sometimes like a plain parapet, at others like a small rampart with a parapet to it. Envelopes are generally made before weak places.

**Epaulement.** See Epaulement.

**Epaule, or the shoulder of the bastion,** the angle made by the union of the face and flank.

**Escarps,** is, properly speaking, anything high and steep, and is used in fortification, to express the outside of the rampart of any work next to the ditch.

**Exterior side of a fortification,** is the distance, or imaginary line drawn from one point of the bastion to that of the next.

**Faces of the bastion.** See Bastion.

**Faces,** of any work, in fortification, are those parts where the rampart is made, which produce an angle pointing outwards.

**Face prolonged,** that part of the line of defence rasant, which is terminated by the curtain, and the angle of the shoulder.

**Fascine.** See Fascines.

**Fausse-bray,** is a low rampart going quite round the body of the place; its height is about 3 feet above the level ground, and its parapet is about 3 or 4 fathom distant from that of the body of the place. These works are made at a very great expense: their faces are very easily enfladed, and their flank of course is seen in reverse: the enemy is under cover the minute he becomes master of them; and a great quantity of shells which may be thrown into them, and must of necessity lodge there, will go near to make a breach, or at worst to drive every one out. Hence, they are liable to do more harm than good, and contribute no way to the defence of the place. M. Vauban only makes them before the curtains, and as such calls them tensilles.

**Flanks**
Flanks are, generally speaking, any parts of a work, which defend another work along the outsides of its parapets. 

Flanks of the bastion, are the part between the face and the curtain; the flank of one bastion serves to defend the ditch before the curtain and face of the opposite bastion. 

Flanking, is the same thing in fortification, as defending. 

Retired flanks, are those made behind the line which joins the extremity of the face and the curtain, towards the capital of the bastion. 

Concave flanks, are those which are made in the arc of a circle. 

Direct, or grazing flank, is that which is perpendicular to the opposite face produced, and oblique or fichenant, or when it makes an acute angle with that face. 

Second flank. When the face of a bastion produced does not meet the curtain at its extremity, but in some other point, then the part of the curtain between that point and the flank, is called the second flank. The modern engineers have rejected this method of fortifying. See Flank. 

Fitchet, a work of two faces, often constructed before the glacis of a fortified place, when threatened with a siege, in order to keep the enemy as long as possible at a distance as possible. 

Gallery, is a passage made under ground, leading to the mines; galleries are from 4 to 6 feet high, and about 8 or 4 feet broad; supported at top by wooden frames, with boards over them. 

Grenadiers, the undermost part of a battery, or that part from the platform to the embrasures. 

Glacis, is the part beyond the covert way, to which it serves as a parapet, and terminates towards the field in an easy slope at about 20 fathom distance. Sometimes double glacis are made parallel to the esplanade, and at the distance of 16, or 20 fathoms. 

Some authors think these works never answer the expense; however, M. Vauban was so sensible of their goodness, that he never failed to make them when the ground suited; because, when such works are defended by a skilful governor, they will afford the means of being valiantly supported. 

Gorge, of a bastion, is the interval between the extremity of one flank and that of the other. 

Gorge, of any work, is that part next to the body of the place, where there is no rampart or parapet: that is, at the countercarp of the ditch. 

Half-moon, (Fr. Demi-Lune,) is an out-work that has two faces which form a salient angle, the gorge of which resembles a crescent. It owes its original invention to the Dutch, who use it to cover the points of their bastions. This kind of fortification, is, however, defective, because it is weak on its flanks. Half-moons are now called ravelins; which species of work is constructed in front of the curtain. See RADELINS. 

Gorge of a half-moon, the distance between the two flanks, taken on the right of the countercarp. 

Head of a work, its front next the enemy, and farthest from the place. 

Hornwork, is composed of a front and 2 branches: the front is made into 2 half bastions and a curtain: this work is of the nature of a crown-work, only smaller, and serves for the same purposes. The use of horn-works in general is to take possession of some rising ground advanced from the fortification; the distance of which determines that of the horn-work; and they are placed either before the curtain, or before the bastions, according to circumstances. 

Horse-shoe, is a small round or oval work, with a parapet, generally made in a ditch, or in a marsh. 

Insult. A work is said to be insulted, when it is attacked suddenly and openly. 

Interior side of a fortification, an imaginary line drawn from the centre of one bastion to that of the next, or rather the curtain produced till they meet. 

Lodgement. See Siege. 

Loop-holes, are either square, or oblong holes, made in the wall, to fire through with musquets. They are generally 8 or 9 inches long, 6 or 7 inches wide within, and 2 or 3 without; so that every man may fire from them direct in front, or oblique to right or left, according to circumstances. 

Lunettes are works made on both sides of a ravelin: one of their faces is perpendicular to half or 2-3ds of the
faces of the ravelin, and the other nearly so to those of the bastion.

There are likewise lunettes, whose faces are drawn perpendicular to those of the ravelin, within 1-3d part from the salient angle; whose semi-gorges are only 20 fathoms.

These kinds of works make a good defence, and are not very expensive; for as they are so near the ravelin, the communication with it is easy, and one cannot well be maintained till they are all three taken.

Lunettes, are also works made beyond the second ditch, opposite to the places of arms: they differ from the ravelins only in their situation.

Lunettons, are small lunettes.

Merlon, is that part of the breast-work of a battery, which is between the embrasures.

Orillon, is a part of the bastion near the shoulder, which serves to cover the retired flank from being seen obliquely: it is sometimes faced with stone, on the shoulder of a casemated bastion, to cover the cannon of the retired flank, and hinder them from being dismounted by the enemy's cannon.

Of all the works in a fortification, there is none more capable to defend the passage of the ditch, and to destroy the miner, wheresoever he enters himself, than the orillon. Experience has shewn us of what vast advantage it is to have 2 or 3 reserve pieces of cannon, which command the ditch, and the face of the opposite bastion, in such a manner as to destroy the attempts of the miners, and see the breach in reverse. Hence the great advantages of a double flank thus concealed weigh so very much with us, and convince us so entirely of their usefulness, that we affirm no place to be well fortified without the orillon, and that the straight flank is fit for nothing but field-works.

The orillon is as old as the bastion, and was first made use of about the year 1480; and we find it frequently mentioned in the works of Pasino and Speckle, first published in 1579.

Out-works. See Works.

Palisades are a kind of stakes made of strong split wood about 9 feet long, fixed 3 deep in the ground, in rows about 6 inches asunder: they are placed in the covert-way, at 3 feet from, and parallel to the parapet of the glacis, to secure it from being surprized.

Parapet is a part of the rampart of a work, 18 or 20 feet broad, and raised 6 or 7 feet above the rest of the rampart; it serves to cover the troops placed there to defend the work against the fire of the enemy.

Parallels. See Siege.

Port-culice is a falling gate or door, like a barrow, hung over the gates of fortified places, and let down to keep out the enemy.

Place, is commonly used in fortification instead of a fortified town.

Regular place, one whose angles, sides, bastion, and other parts are equal, &c.

Irregular place, one whose sides and angles are unequal, &c.

Place of arms, is a part of the covert-way, opposite to the re-entering angle of the counterscarp, projecting outward in an angle. It is generally 20 fathoms from the re-entering angle of the ditch on both sides, and the faces are found by describing a radius of 25 fathoms.

Places of arms. See Siege.

Pits, or ponds, are little holes dug between the higher and lower curtains, to hold water, in order to prevent the paling from the tenailles to the flanks.

Profiles are representations of the vertical sections of a work; and serve to shew those dimensions which cannot be described in plans, and are yet necessary in the building of a fortification: they may be very well executed and constructed upon a scale of 30 feet to an inch. By a profile are expressed the several heights, widths, and thicknesses, such as they would appear were the works cut down perpendicularly from the top to the bottom.

Rampart, is an elevation of earth raised along the faces of any work, 10 or 15 feet high, to cover the inner part of that work against the fire of an enemy: its breadth differs according to the several systems upon which it may be constructed: for De Ville makes them 12½ fathoms, M. Vauban 8, and others 10 fathoms.
Rams-horns, in fortification, are a kind of low work made in the ditch, of a circular arc; they were first invented by M. Belidor, and serve instead of tenailles.

Ravelin, in fortification, is a work placed before the curtain to cover it, and prevent the flanks from being discovered sideways: it consists of 2 faces meeting in an outward angle. Some ravelins are counter-guarded, which renders them as serviceable as either the cubettes, or tenailles.

Gorge of a ravelin, is the distance between the two sides or faces towards the place.

Gorges, of all other out-works, are the interval, or spaces which lie between their several wings or sides towards the main ditch. See Gorges.

Redans, in fortification, are indented works, consisting of lines or facings that form sallying or re-entering angles, flanking one another, and are generally used on the sides of a river running through a garrisoned town. They were used before bastions. Sometimes the parapet of the covert-way is carried on in this manner.

Redoubt, is a kind of work placed beyond the glacis, and is of various forms. Its parapet, not being intended to resist cannon, is only 8 or 9 feet thick, with 2 or 3 banquets. The length of the sides may be from 10 to 20 fathoms.

Redoubt, is also the name of a small work, made sometimes in a bastion, and sometimes in a ravelin, of the same form.

Redoubt, is likewise a square work without any bastions, placed at some distance from a fortification, to guard a pass, or to prevent an enemy from approaching that way.

Detached-redoubt, is a kind of work much like a ravelin, with flanks placed beyond the glacis: It is made to occupy some spot of ground which might be advantageous to the besiegers; likewise to oblige the enemy to open their trenches farther off than they would otherwise do. Their distance from the covert-way should not exceed 120 toises, that it may be defended by musket-shot from thence.

Redont-en-cremaillere, so called from their similitude to a pot-hook; the inside line of the parapet being broken in such a manner, as to resemble the teeth of a saw; whereby this advantage is gained, that a greater fire can be brought to bear upon the defile, than if only a simple face was opposed to it, and consequently the passage is rendered more difficult.

Retracement is any work raised to cover a post, and fortify it against an enemy; such as fascines loaded with earth, gabions, sand-bags, &c.

Revetment is a strong wall built on the outside of the rampart and parapet, to support the earth, and prevent its rolling into the ditch. When the revetment of a rampart goes quite up to the top, 4 feet of the upper part is a vertical wall of 3 feet thick, with a square stone at the top of it, projecting about 5 or 6 inches, and a circular one below, or where the slope begins, of 8 or 10 inches diameter. They go quite round the rampart, and the circular projection is called the cordon.

Rideau is a small elevation of earth, extending lengthways on a plane, and serving to cover a camp, or to give an advantage to a post. They are also convenient for the besiegers of a place, as they serve to secure the workmen in their approaches to the foot of a fortress.

Rideau is also used sometimes for a trench, the earth of which is thrown up on its sides, to serve as a parapet for covering the men.

Sup. See Siege.

Sillon, a work raised in the middle of a ditch to defend it when too broad. This work has no particular construction, but as it runs, forms little bastions, half-moons, and redans, which are lower than the rampart of the place, but higher than the covert-way. It is not much used at present.

Sillon means literally a furrow. In fortification, it is a work raised.

Swallow's-tail, a kind of out-work, only differing from a single tenaille, in that its sides are not parallel as those of the tenaille, but narrower towards the town than towards the country.

Talus signifies a slope made either on the outside or inside of any work, to prevent the earth's rolling down; it is of various denominations, viz.

Talus
F O R

Talus of the banquette is that gentle slope from the top of the banquette to the horizontal line.

Interior talus of the parapet, the slope from the top of the parapet to the banquette.

Talus of the top of the parapet, that slope which lessens the height of the parapet towards the berm, by which means the troops firing from the banquette can defend the covert-way.

Exterior talus of the parapet, the slope of the parapet from the top to the berm.

Interior talus of the ditch, the slope from the top of the ditch to the bottom, within.

Exterior talus of the ditch is the slope from the top of the ditch to the bottom, without.

Tenailles are low works made in the ditch before the curtains; of which there are three sorts. The first are the faces of the bastion produced till they meet, but much lower; the second have faces, flanks, and a curtain; and the third have only faces and flanks. Their height is about 2 or 3 feet higher than the level ground of the ravelin. Their use is to defend the bottom of the ditch by a grazing fire, as likewise the level ground of the ravelin, and especially the ditch before the redoubt within the ravelin, which cannot be defended from any other quarter so well as from them.

Tenailles are works made on each side of the ravelin, much like the lunettes; with this difference, that one of the faces in a tenail is in the direction of the ravelin; whereas that of the lunette is perpendicular to it.

Terre-pleine, in fortification, the horizontal superficies of the rampart, between the interior talus and the banquette. It is on the terre-pleine that the garrison pass and repass; it is also the passage of the rounds.

Tower-bastions are small towers made in the form of bastions; first invented by M. Vauban, and used in his second and third method; with rooms or cellars underneath, to place men and artillery in them. As these towers are almost a solid piece of masonry, they must be attended with great expense, though their resistance can be but little; for it has been found by experience, that the casemates are but of little use, because as soon as they have fired once or twice, the smoke will oblige the defenders to leave them, notwithstanding the smoke-holes: hence it may be concluded, that the strength of these tower-bastions does by no means answer their expense; and that, if small bastions were made instead of them, without casemates, they would be much better, and less expensive.

Traditores signifies the concealed or hidden guns in a fortification, behind the reverse of the orillon.

Traverses, are parapets made across the covert-way, opposite to the salient angles of the works, and near the places of arms, to prevent enfilades; they are 18 or 20 feet thick, and as high as the ridge of the glacis. There are also traverses made in the caponnieres, but then they are called tambours.

Traverses are likewise made within other works, when there are any hills or rising grounds from whence the interior parts of these works may be observed. Traverses that are made to cover the entrances of redoubts in the field, need not be above 8 or 10 feet thick.

Troux-de-loup, or wolf-holes, round holes made about 5 or 6 feet deep, with a stake in the middle: they are generally dug round a field redoubt, to obstruct the enemy's approach; circular at top, and about 44 feet diameter; pointed at the bottom like an inverted cone. Two or three rows of them are dug chequer-wise, about 6 paces from the edge of the ditch, viz. two rows of holes exactly opposite to each other, and a third row in the middle, covering the intervals.

Wicket, a small door in the gate of a fortified place, at which a man on foot may go in, and which may be opened though the gate itself be kept shut.

Works. All the fortifications about a place, are called the works of a place.

Out-works. All detached works in a fortification are so called. See Dohors. Zig-Zag. See Siege.

The principal maxims of fortification, are these, viz. 1. That every part of the works be seen and defended by other parts, so that the enemy cannot lodge any where without being exposed to the fire of the place.

2. A fortress should command all places.
places round it; and therefore all the outworks should be lower than the body of the place.

3. The works farthest from the center should always be open to those that are nearer.

4. The defence of every part should always be within the reach of musket-shot, that is, from 120 to 150 fathoms, so as to be defended both by ordnance and small fire-arms; for if it be only defended by casemate, the enemy may discount them by the superiority of their own, and then the defence will be destroyed at once; whereas, when a work is likewise defended by small-arms, if the one be destroyed, the other will still subsist.

5. All the defences should be as nearly direct as possible; for it has been found by experience, that the soldiers are too apt to fire directly before them, without troubling themselves whether they do execution or not.

6. A fortification should be equally strong on all sides; otherwise the enemy will attack it in the weakest part, whereby its strength will become useless.

7. The more acute the angle at the center is, the stronger will be the place.

8. In great places, dry ditches are preferable to those filled with water, because sallies, retreats, succours, &c. are necessary; but, in small fortresses, wet ditches, that can be drained, are the best, as standing in need of no sallies.

Field Fortification is the art of constructing all kinds of temporary works in the field, such as redoubts, field-forts, star-forts, triangular and square-forts, heads of bridges, and various sorts of lines, &c. An army intrenched, or fortified in the field, produces, in many respects, the same effect as a fortress; for it covers a country, supplies the want of numbers, stops a superior enemy, or at least oblige him to engage at a disadvantage.

The knowledge of a field-engineer being founded on the principles of fortification, it must be allowed, that the art of fortifying is as necessary to an army in the field, as in fortified places; and though the maxims are nearly the same in both, yet the manner of applying and executing them with judgment, is very different.

A project of fortification is commonly the result of much reflection; but in the field it is quite otherwise: no regard is to be had to the solidity of the works; every thing must be determined on the spot; the works are to be traced out directly, and regulated by the time and number of workmen, depending on no other materials than what are at hand, and having no other tools than the spade, shovel, pick-axe, and hatchet. It is therefore in the field, more than anywhere else, that an engineer should be ready, and know how to seize all advantages at first sight, to be fertile in expedients, inexhaustible in inventions, and indefatigably active.

Quantity and quality of the materials which are required in the construction of field-fortification.

1. Every common fascine made use of in the construction of field works or fortification, should be 10 feet long and 1 foot thick. A fascine is raised by means of 6 pickets, which are driven obliquely into the earth, so that 2 together form the shape of a cross. These pickets are tied with willows, or birch twigs. They are supported by branches of this kind, that fascines are made, which are properly faggots bound together with rods, at intervals of 1 foot each in breadth. Six men are required to complete each fascine; viz. 2 to cut the branches, 2 to gather them up, and 2 to bind the fascines. Six men may with great ease, make 12 fascines in an hour. The smaller sort of willows, or birch twigs, are best calculated for this work. The fascines are fastened to the parapet, which would otherwise crumble and fall down. A redoubt, constructed en crémaillere, must have fascines 8 feet long.

2. There must be 5 pickets for each fascine, and each picket must be 3 or 4 feet long, an inch and a half thick, and sharp at one end; they serve to fasten the fascines to the parapet.

3. When you cannot procure wood for the fascines, the parapet must be covered or clothed with pieces of turf, 4 inches thick, and a foot and a half square; these are fastened to the parapet with 4 small pickets 8 inches long.

4. The fraises, or pointed stakes, must be 8 feet long, 5 inches thick, and be sharp at the top. The beams upon which they are laid, must be 12 feet long.
long and six inches thick. These beams are spread horizontally along the parapet, and fraises are fixed to them, with nails 7 inches long; after which the beams are covered with earth. Two men will make 12 fraises in an hour.

5. The palisades, by which the ditch or fossé of a work is fortified, must be 9 or 10 feet long, and 6 inches thick; they must, likewise, be sharpened at the end. If you cannot procure them of these dimensions, you must use smaller ones; in which case you will have the precaution to mix a few large stakes.

6. The pickets, which are fixed in wolf-holes, must be 6 feet long, 4 inches thick, and sharp at the top.

7. The beams belonging to a chevaux-de-frize, must be 12 feet long, and 6 inches broad. The spokes which are laid across, must be 7 feet long, 4 inches thick, and placed at the distance of 6 inches from each other. These chevaux-de-frizes are made use of to block up the entrances into redoubts, to close passages or gates, and sometimes they serve to obstruct the fossé.

8. Gabions are constructed of various sizes. Those which are intended for field-works, must be 3 or 4 feet high, and contain 2 or 3 feet in diameter. These gabions are made by means of long stakes, 3 or 4 feet long, which are placed so as to form a circle, which is 2 or 3 feet in diameter. The pickets must be covered and bound in the same manner as hurdles are. Gabions are chiefly of use in embasures. They are fixed close to each other, and are afterwards filled with earth. There are also gabions of one foot, with 12 inches diameter at the top, and 9 at the bottom. The bank of the parapet is lined with gabions of this construction, behind which troops may be stationed, so as to fire under cover through the intervals. A quantity of large wooden mallets, rammers, hatchets, axes, and grappling-irons, is required for this work.

Names of all works used in field fortification.

Bridge heads, or têtes de pont, are made of various figures and sizes, sometimes like a redan or ravelin, with or without flanks, sometimes like a horn or crown-work, according to the situation of the ground, or to the importance of its defence. Their construction depends on various circumstances; for, should the river be so narrow, that the work may be flanked from the other side, a single redan is sufficient; but when the river is so broad, that the salient angle cannot be well defended across the river, flanks must be added to the redan; but should a river be 100 toises, or more across, half a square may be made, whose diagonal is the river side; and where the river is from 3 to 500 toises broad, a horn, or crown-work should be made. All the different sorts of heads of bridges, are to be esteemed as good works against a sudden onset, only, and their use is almost momentary, as they sometimes serve but for a few days only, and at most during a campaign.

Dams are generally made of earth, but sometimes of other materials, as occasion may require: their use is to confine water.

Flèche, in field fortification, a work consisting of two faces, terminating in a salient angle of 90°. The faces are generally 73, or 80 feet long, the parapet 6 feet thick, and the ditch 7 feet broad.

Forts, in field fortification, are of various sorts, viz.

Field forts may be divided into two kinds; the one defending itself on all sides, as being entirely surrounded; the other, bordering on a river, &c. remain open at the gorge. They have the advantage of redoubts, in being flanked, and the disadvantage in containing less within, in proportion to their extent.

Star forts are so called, because they resemble that figure. They were commonly made of 4 angles, sometimes of 5, and very rarely of 6; but we find them now made of 7 and 8 angles. Let their figure however, be what it will, their angles should be equal; if formed of equilateral triangles, so much the better; for then the flanking angle being 120°, the fires cross better and nearer; and as the 2 flanks are on the same line, the space not defended before the salient angle, is reduced to a parallelogram, whose smallest side is equal to the gorge.

Bastioned forts differ in nothing from that of places, except that the figure is less, and the attack supposed of another kind. It is reckoned sufficient to flank them with half bastions.

Triangular
Triangular forts, forts that have only three sides. As these kind of forts contain less in proportion than any other, they are consequently used as seldom as possible.

Square forts are in many respects preferable to the triangular ones. See Fort.

Lines, in field fortification, are of several sorts, viz. the front of a fortification, or any other field-work, which with regard to the defence, is a collection of lines, contrived so as reciprocally to flank each other.

Lines of intrenchment are made to cover an army; or a place indifferently fortified, and which sometimes contains the principal magazine of an army; or to cover a considerable extent of ground, to prevent an enemy from entering into the country to raise contributions, &c.

Lines, of whatever form or shape, should be every where equally strong, and alike guarded.

Mortar. 1st. To inclose with the work as much ground as possible, having regard to circumstances. This attention chiefly concerns redoubts and small works.

2d. If there are several works near each other, their lines of defence should be so directed, as to defend each other without being annoyed by their own fire.

3d. Not to depend on the defence of small arms, but where they can fire at right angles; as they generally fire without aim, and directly before them.

4th. Not to have recourse to the 2d flank or fire of the curtain, but when there is an absolute necessity.

5th. That the flanking angle be always a right one, or more obtuse, but never to exceed 100°, if possible; there being no fear here, as in a fortification, of the flank being too much exposed. Besides, it is not necessary to graze the faces, or even to fire obliquely on them; since there is no danger of being exposed to the defence of a breach, or lodgement of the miners. The only thing to apprehend, is a sudden attack.

6th. That the flanking parts be sufficiently extended, so that the interior of their parapets at least may rake the whole breadth of the opposite ditch.

7th. Never to make an advanced ditch in dry ground, unless it can be embanked throughout, and under a proper angle be defended by the work which it covers, or surrounds.

8th. Not to allow more than from 60 to 80 toises for the lines of defence, when they proceed from two flanks separated by two branches, forming a salient angle, or when not made to cross, though produced.

9th. That the parts most extended, and consequently the weakest in themselves, be as much defended as possible, and have at least the fire of two flanks, besides their own direct fire.

Redans are a sort of indented works, consisting of lines and faces, that form salient and re-entering angles, flanking another. Lines are often constructed with redans: their salient angles are generally from 50 to 70°.

Indented redans are when the two faces are indented, in that case the face of each indented angle is 84 feet only.

Tambour, a kind of work formed of palisades, 10 feet long, and 6 inches thick, planted close together, and driven 2 or 3 feet into the ground; so that when finished it has the appearance of a square redoubt cut in two. Loopholes are made 6 feet from the ground, and 3 feet asunder, for the soldiers to fire through, who are placed on sciaffolds 2 feet high. They have often been used by the French with great advantage.

Têtes-de-pont. See Bridge-heads.

Trou-de-loup are holes dug in the ground, circular at top, about 4½ feet diameter, and 6 feet deep, pointed at bottom, like an inverted cone, or sugar-loaf. A stake 6 feet long is fixed in their center, driven 2 feet into the ground, and made sharp at top. Two or three rows of them are dug chequer-wise, about 6 paces from the ditch of a field-work. They prevent the approach of horse, &c.

Subterraneous Fortifications.

These consist of the different galleries and branches which lead to mines, to the chambers belonging to them, or to fougasses, and which are required whenever it is found necessary to explode for the purposes of attack or defence. A subterraneous fortification may be of a permanent or temporary construction, offensive or defensive nature. Whichever this sort of work is adopted to strengthen and secure a fortified place, it is generally...
rally built of stone or brick, and made sufficiently solid to last a long time; it is then called permanent and defensive. Any place which is put in a state to withstand the subterraneous attacks of a besieging enemy, is said to be countermined.

When the besieger wishes to make an impression on a fortification of this sort, he must first construct galleries which he covers with wood, &c. He then practises offensive and temporary fortifications of the subterraneous sort. These works are well calculated to aid him in securing a lodgment for his subterraneous artillery, and in establishing chambers, fougasses, &c.

With respect to fortification in general, different authors recommend different methods; but the principal are those of Pagan, Blondel, Vauban, Coehorn, Belidor, Scheiter, and Muller.

It must, however, be constantly recollected by every engineer, that his views are not to be confined to the mere art of fortification. He ought further to know the use which different generals, in different periods, have made of natural strength and position; without an attention of this sort, he will fall very short of that extensive knowledge, which every military man, who aims at military fame, must be ambitious of acquiring.

Chains of mountains, and volumes of water, together with the influence which different climates have upon the latter element, should always constitute a part of the natural system that ought to form an essential portion of his application. Hydrography will likewise assist him in this pursuit. To enlarge upon this important branch of geography, and to point out the great means which it affords of natural defence and offence in fortification, would be to exceed the limits of our present undertaking. We shall, therefore, refer our military readers to Belair's *Éléments de fortification*, and content ourselves with submitting a short account of the different authors who have either given original systems, or have greatly improved those that were already known. Independent of whom, may be named the following writers, who have likewise contributed to the general knowledge of fortification, viz. Muller, Robins, Belidor, Cormontagne, Folard, Clairac, Le Blond, Dedier, Marshal Saxe, Cugnot, Tielke, Landsbergen, Trincano, Fallios, Rosard, Belair, &c.

**Fortification**, according to the method of Pagan, consists in three different sorts, viz. the great, the mean, and the little, whose principal dimensions are contained in the following table.

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Blondel
Blondel fortifies within the given polygon: he establishes two sorts of fortification; the great one, whose exterior side is 200 toises, and the lesser one 170; because he will not have the line of defence exceed 140 toises, which is the greatest musket-shot, nor less than 120 toises, not to increase the number of bastions. He begins by the diminishing angle, which may be found by taking 90 degrees from the angle of the polygon, and by adding 15 degrees to the third of the remainder.

Vauban's method is divided into little, mean, and great; the little is chiefly used in the construction of citadels; the mean, in that of all sorts of towns; and the great, in particular cases only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Side of polygon</th>
<th>Forts.</th>
<th>Little</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Great</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>200</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>220</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpendicular</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faces bastion</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cap. of Ravel</td>
<td>25(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the first vertical column are the numbers expressing the lengths of the exterior sides from 80 to 260.

In the second, the perpendiculars answering to these sides.

In the third, the lengths of the faces of the bastions; and in the fourth, the lengths of the capitals of the ravelins.

Bélidor's method is divided also into little, mean, and great: and in all three the exterior side is 200 toises; the perpendicular of the little is 50, that of the mean 55, and the great 40: the faces of the first 70, the second 70, and the third 55 toises.

Scheiter's method is divided into the great, mean, and small sort. The exterior side of the polygon for the great sort is 200 toises, the mean sort 180, and the small 160. The line of defence in the first is 140 toises, the second 130, and the third 120. This line is always razant. All the other lines are fixed at the same length for all polygons, whose structure chiefly depends upon the knowledge of the exterior side, of the capital, or of the flanked angle, the rest being easily finished.—See the Table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Polygons.</th>
<th>IV</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>VI</th>
<th>VII</th>
<th>VIII</th>
<th>IX</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>XI</th>
<th>XII</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The flanked angles in the 3 sorts of fortification.</td>
<td>deg.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital for the great sort</td>
<td>toises</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>54(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>56(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital for the mean sort</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>46(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>48(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>52(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital for the small sort</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>41(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>42(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>47(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>48(\frac{1}{2})</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50(\frac{1}{2})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Errard, of Bois-le-Duc, who was employed by Henry IV. and was the first that laid down rules in France respecting the best method of fortifying a place so as to cover its flank, constructs that flank perpendicular to the face of the bastion; but by endeavouring to cover it effectually, he makes the gorges too exiguous, the embrasures too oblique, and leaves the ditch almost defenceless.

The Chevalier de Ville, who succeeded Errard, draws the flank line perpendicular to the curtain; but here again the embrasures are too oblique, especially in the polygons, and the ditch is necessarily ill guarded. This engineer's method of fortifying is stiled by most authors, the French method. His favourite maxim is to make the flank angle straight, and the flank equal to the demigorge.

Count Pagan makes the flank perpendicular to the line of defence, which method seems to agree perfectly with this maxim, because by that means the flank so raised covers as much as possible the face of the opposite bastion; but notwithstanding this apparent advantage, the flank becomes too small, and is too much exposed to the enemy's batteries. This engineer acquired great reputation during the several sieges which he assisted in conducting under Louis XIII. His system has been improved upon by Alain Morrison Mallet, and his construction in fortification is to this day esteemed the most perfect. It differs very little from Marshal Vauban's first system. Count Pagan has pointed out the method of building casemates in a manner peculiar to himself.

Marshal Vauban has judiciously steered between these different methods. He has drawn his flank in such a manner, that it does not stand too much exposed, nor does its collateral line of defence extend too far from the direct line of defence. He has effected this by lengthening out his flank and giving it a circular form.

It cannot be disputed but that large and extensive flanks and demi-gorges are superior to narrow and confined ones. The more capacious the flank is, the better calculated will it prove for the disposition of a formidable train of artillery. From this conviction many writers in their proposed systems of fortification, have added a second flank, in order to augment the line of defence; but they did not foresee, that this second flank is not only incapable of covering the face of the opposed bastion, except in a very oblique and insecure direction, but that the right flank, or the flank of the bastion, is thereby more exposed to the enemy's batteries, which, it must be acknowledged on all sides, is a great fault.

The prevailing system of the present day is to make the flanks of the bastion as wide as possible, without having recourse to a second flank, unless it be absolutely necessary. Those gorges are likewise best which are most capacious, because they afford space and ground in the bastion for the construction of entrenchments within, should the enemy have effected a practicable breach.

All parts of a fortification which stand exposed to the immediate attacks of a besieging enemy, must be strong enough to bear the boldest attempts, and the most vigorous impressions. This is a self-evident maxim, because it must be manifest to the most common understanding, that works are erected round a place for the specific purpose of preventing an enemy from getting possession of it. It consequently follows, that flanked angles are extremely defective when they are too acute, since their points may be easily flanked and destroyed by the besieger's cannon.

The Dutch construct at sixty degrees; but according to Vauban's method, no work should be under seventy-five degrees, unless circumstances and situation should particularly require it.

A place to be in a state of defence, should be equally strong in all its relative directions; for the enemy would of course make the weak part his object of attack, and finally succeed in getting possession of the town. The body of the place must have a command towards the country, and no quarter in the outward vicinity of it must overlook, or command either the place itself, or its outworks, as has been the case for several years (and during the whole of the last war), on the North-East side of Dover Castle. Those works which are nearest to the center of the place, must have a greater elevation than the more distant ones.

The first regular system of fortification which appeared and was adopted in France, owed its origin to Errard of Bois-
Bois-le-Duc, whom we have just mentioned. His method, however, has been uniformly rejected by able engineers; and if we may give credit to the report of Ozanam, Érrard himself never put his own system in practice.

Next to Érrard of Bois-le-Duc, came the Chevalier Antoine de Ville, who was engineer under Louis XIII. and published an excellent treatise upon fortification. His method is styled by most authors, the French method. Others call it the Compound System, or Systeme à trait Composé, because it united the Italian and Spanish methods. He was, indeed, by no means an advocate for new systems; for he generally observed, that any new method, or invention was extremely easy, so long as it was confined to the mere alteration of something in the measure, or in the disposition of those parts of fortification which have been discussed by other authors.

The Count de Pagan followed after, and had the good fortune to propose a system which entirely superseded the other two. We have already mentioned the principal features in his method.

Marshal Vauban, whose reputation rose upon the manifest superiority which his skill gave him over all others that had written upon fortification, likewise proposed three methods, with considerable improvements; viz. The great, the mean, and the little.

The great method, according to Vauban, contains on its exterior side from 300 to 230, or 240 toises. This extent is not uniformly the same throughout all the sides of a place, but is confined to that side which lies along the banks of a river, where he uniformly erects considerable outworks.

Vauban made use of his second method in fortifying Béfourt and Landau. On account of the bad local situation of Béfourt, and the impossibility of fortifying it with common bastions that would not be exposed to an enfilade in almost every direction, in spite of the traverses or rechutes which might be made; he invented arched bastions that were bomb proof, which he called tours bastionnes, or torses avec bastions. These arched bastions are covered by counterguards, the height of whose parapet almost equals the elevation of the towers themselves. Although strictly speaking, both these places are irregularly fortified, nevertheless a method of regular defence may be established from the construction of their works.

Vauban's third system grows out of the second; and for that reason it is called ordre renforcé, the reinforced order or method. It was adopted in the fortifications of Neuf-Brisach. Vauban left nothing untried to bring this system to perfection, and he had the ingenuity to execute his plan at a less expense, than it would otherwise have been effected, by means of half revetments which he threw up in the outward works called the dehors.

This system, however, (ingenious and unrivalled, as it certainly is,) has not escaped the censure of some writers. It must nevertheless be acknowledged, that their remarks are either founded in envy, or that they proceed from ignorance.

There are other systems of fortification which have been proposed by the writers of other countries besides France. We shall give a brief detail of them, and leave the inquisitive to go more at length into the nature of their methods, by referring them to the different treatises.

The Italians have furnished several authors who have written variably on the subject of fortification. The method proposed by Sardis has been generally esteemed the best.

The Spaniards in their methods of fortifying, never adopt that which adds a second flank. The obtuse flanked angle is not looked upon by their best engineers as a defective system in fortification.

Both the Italians and the Spaniards speak frequently of the ordre renforcé, which was originally invented to lessen the number of bastions in a great town or fortified place, and to render consequently the line of defence equal to the range of musketry.

The Chevalier St. Julien, a very able engineer, has published a method by which, he asserts, that works may be constructed not only at a less expense than others require, but in a manner that must render his defence or attack more formidable. He has likewise invented a new method for the defence of small places, which is preferable to the first,
first, although it is not without faults. According to his system, the reach of the musquet is taken from the center of the curtain. To this end he directs, that a covert lodgment, 7 feet high, and 10 toises wide, be constructed from that spot to the gorge of the half-moon or ravelin. Cannon is disposed along the faces, and a gallery is erected for the musquetry, which likewise serves as a passage to the ravelin.

Francis Marchi, a gentleman of Bologna, in his folio edition, has furnished us with upwards of 100 different methods of constructing fortifications.

The Dutch uniformly pursue the system published by Marollos.

Bombelle has likewise established three sorts of fortification, the great royal, grand royal; the mean; and the little royal, petit royal. His method agrees with the sound maxims of good fortification much more than any of the preceding ones.

Blondel has published a system of fortification, which he divides into two principal heads; the great, whose exterior side contains 200 toises; and the little, where the side does not exceed 170 toises. His reason is, because he objects to the line of defence having more than 140 toises, which is the furthest reach of musquetry, or less than 120 toises, to prevent an unnecessary increase of bastions. The principles of Blondel's system resemble, in a great degree, those upon which Pagan's is founded, and chiefly consist in methods of fortifying inward posts. The invention has certainly great merit, but its adoption must prove expensive in all its practical branches. It must, moreover, be manifest, that the four long batteries which are supported by flanks of his construction, must serve as so many scaling ladders, or steps to the besiegers, the instant they have effected a breach by cannon shot or by shells.

In 1689 a work was published, entitled:

*Nouvelle maniere de fortifier les places, tire de methodes du Chevalier de Ville, du Comte de Pagan, et de M. de Vauban, avec des remarques sur l'ordre renforcé, sur les dessins du Capitaine Marchy, et sur ceux de M. Blondel.* This work is full of strong reasoning, from the result of which the author has formed a new method, containing, indeed, nothing original, but giving references to what has already appeared, and disposing the different parts in so judicious a manner, as to shew how a place may be rendered stronger, and be subject at the same time to a less expense. This writer divides fortification into three parts, the great, the mean, and the little.

There is a second and third method proposed anonymously, and containing mere simple designs. That method in which a modern author gives it the preference over the system of Neuf Bronx, contains little useful information, and contributes less to the real art of fortifying places.

Donato Rosetti, a Cmon belonging to Livournia, professor of mathematics in the academy at Piedmont, and mathematician to the Duke of Savoy, has written upon a method of constructing works in what he calls *fortification à rebours*, or fortification in reverse; so called not only because the re-entering angle of the counterscarp is opposite to the flanked angle; but because in his idea, it will be necessary to attack it from the reverse side of other works. His system is very simple, and does not require a sacrifice of much money, or stand in need of many men to defend the works: although he can, on his side, pour as much fire upon the enemy, as could be furnished by more complicated methods.

Antonio de Herbart, major of artillery, in the Duke of Wurtemburgh's service, in 1735, published a treatise on fortifications with square angles, which he calls angular polygons.

Monsieur de Montalembert has lately endeavoured to bring arches, which are so much condemned by the Chevalier de Ville, into repute. He treats the subject in a manner, and upon principles so similar to those proposed by Antonio de Herbart, that it is almost impossible to separate the two systems. M. de Montalembert asserts, that the science of fortification, as it is established and taught at present, can only be valued by the public on account of its illusion. He looks upon the use of bastions, as the effect of prejudice; he rejects them wholly, and substitutes in their room a front of angular tenaille, polygons with small
small wings and angular polygons. The engineers of the present day assert with confidence, that the chief security to be derived in works that are supported by bastions, must depend upon cross and reverse firing directed against the enemy's lodgments on the glacis. Large half-moons are made, not only for the purpose of covering the curtains and the flanks of bastions, but principally to obtain a reverse firing, which effectually prevents the enemy from maintaining his ground on the glacis of a bastion, before he has taken the two collateral half-moons.

M. Minuo, Baron of Coehorn, who was general of artillery in the Dutch service, lieutenant-general of infantry, director general of all the fortified places belonging to the United Provinces, and governor of Flanders and all the fortresses that lay along the Scheldt, has been justly esteemed for his extensive knowledge in the art of fortifying places. He was contemporary with Vauban. This intelligent and sagacious officer being thoroughly convinced, that, however expensively the rampart of a town may be constructed, it could not long sustain the shock of heavy ordnance, invented three different systems, by which he throws so many obstacles in the way of a besieging enemy, that although the place be not in reality rendered impregnable, it is nevertheless so far secured as to make its conquest a business of considerable hazard and expense. We must however acknowledge, that the three methods which have been pointed out by this Dutch general, can only suit places and grounds that are nearly on a level with the surface of the water; that is to say of 3, 4, or 5 feet; which circumstance plainly indicates, that his attention has been chiefly directed to the soil and ground of the United Provinces; so that his instructions are peculiarly applicable to low and aquatic situations. There is much skill discovered in his manner of treating the subject, and considerable ingenuity in the treatise he has published, which certainly contains several improvements that are exclusively his own. It would be impossible to force a passage, or to penetrate into any of his works, without being exposed on all sides to the fire of the besieged, who are under cover, and from whose dis-

charge of ordnance and musquetry, it is scarcely possible for an assailing enemy to secure himself.

Scheiter, a German writer, describes two kinds of fortification, the great or the superior, and the small or the inferior species. It has been erroneously and unjustly stated, that the celebrated Vauban only copied after Scheiter, at Neuviès Brisach.

Every man of the least knowledge or penetration must see, that the whole system of that illustrious engineer differs essentially from the author we have quoted.

The defects that are manifest in all these different systems shew the superiority which exists, to this day, in all the fortifications that have been constructed by Vauban.

An anonymous writer in the Sardinian service, proposes two new methods of fortification, in a work entitled Science de la Guerre, which was published at Turin in 1744. After having discussed, at considerable length, the art of fortification in general, its utility, the different sciences which must be acquired towards obtaining any degree of perfection in that art, the various systems in it, regular and irregular, and the construction of parliades, gates, mines, casemates, magazines, &c. &c. he concludes with this extraordinary sentence: "It is not my intention to propose any alteration in the general system, but merely to suggest, that the style be rendered more intelligible." It must be noticed, that this Italian writer in his preface frankly confesses his deficiency in the French language. We shall however pass over what he says relative to the approbation which his proposed systems, or rather his explanation of methods already known has met with from scientific men, and give his own observations concerning the improvements that might be made. His words are—

"The first method which I propose, consists of a new figure and position that should be given to exterior works in fortification. Having constructed the body of the place after Vauban's manner, my next object is to erect counter-guards with bastions at the head, and flanks upon the wings. I have been induced to adopt this species of work, in order to remedy the inconveniences and
and the dangers which invariably attend
works erected at the foot of the glacis.
These works contribute very little to the
security of the place, and can only be
defended by cannon, which eventually
do more harm to the garrison than to
the besieging enemy, since they serve
as an épaulement to the battery, which
the latter will naturally erect the instant
he obtains footing in that quarter. This
was proved during the siege of Turin,
where in a very short space of time the
French carried the bonnets and flèches,
and made use of them for the purpose
of bringing up their artillery.

By means of the small bastions which
I have proposed, and which must be
pushed forward into the country, the
enemy's approaches are necessarily
checked, the salient angle of the coun-
terguard is covered, the ditch is com-
pletely flanked, and the garrison are im-
pressed with confidence, because the
artillery and the troops can always be
called in, in cases of exigency. They
moreover equal the enemy in the fire
which they can furnish, and the whole
body of the place is covered by them.

I construct the bastions and flanks out
of the sides of the counterguard which
are detached by means of a ditch
6 toises wide. This ditch is covered
above by vaults made of brick or tim-
ber, and by boards well supported un-
derneath by strong stakes, the whole
being strengthened and rendered bomb-
proof with earth 3 or 4 feet thick. This
earth keeps the upper plan of the bas-
tion compact, and is sufficient to form
a parapet to the counterguard when the
bastion is destroyed. If the vaults
should be blown up by mines, and the besiegers
set fire to the beams that supported
them, a fresh work will present itself,
together with a ditch which they had
not foreseen or expected, and which
they must cross before any further im-
pression can be made.

This sort of subterraneous fortifica-
tion is extremely advantageous, and may
be converted to various purposes. It
serves for casemates and galleries to the
mines, which I would construct along
the whole extent of the faces belonging
to these bastions; a communication with
them is kept up by means of the galle-
ries attached to the counterguard. These
galleries must be blocked up the ins-
stant the bastion is demolished. The
flanks of the side will be built after the
same method, with a ditch as wide as
the one dug in front of the bastion, and
which according to circumstances, may
be covered like that already described.
The flanks will be of a round figure, in
order to avoid the projection of any
angles towards the body of the place,
which would be the case, should the
work be carried; for the enemyavail-
ing himself of the earth in front of the
walls, and throwing it up, would de-
rive considerable advantage from these
angles.

The principal advantage to be ob-
tained from my system arises out of the
double defence which it affords to the
salient angles of the bastions, by cover-
ing a part of the demi-lunes mitrées, or
mitred half-moons (which are their chief
protection,) and by these means concealing
the body of the place from any out-
ward command or eminence. This cov-
ver or defence cannot, in fact, be taken,
before the enemy has got complete pos-
session of the outworks.

I have spoken of these sorts of fortifi-
cation in the chapter that treats of field
works, which, in any humble opinion,
are more useful, more solid, less expen-
sive, and more easily built than a variety
of others that have been adopted to this
day.

The demi-lunes or half-moons, which
are nearly mitred or crossed, and which
I dispose between the counter-guards,
have been constructed in that manner
for the purpose of stretching as far as
possible, beyond the body of the place
towards the country. One essential ad-
vantage attends this method, which is
that the work being more spacious, it is
better calculated to hold a greater quan-
tity of artillery, and a larger garrison;
that it becomes double by means of the
ditch, which separates it from the ad-
vanced work, which it covered as de-
scribed above, and which is joined to
the interior revetment by plain walls,
separating a whole half-moon from it
in which space a small fort with looph-
holes may be constructed to enable the
garrison to dispute every inch of ground
as the enemy advances. Under the
main body of the place, I build a subter-
raneous chamber, to serve as occasion
may
may require, either for a powder magazine, or for mines.

Between the half-moons and counter-guards, I construct another kind of ravelins, which are open towards the body of the place, over the curtains of the counter-guards, and supply a double fire against the enemy and the covert way. These ravelins are not raised so high as the other works, in order to keep them under their fire; and I preserve a communication by means of parapeted caponnières. I leave them empty within, that the besiegers may have as little ground as possible; they are moreover sufficiently thick and solid to withstand the discharge of ordnance, which can only batter in breach from the counter-carp, which acquires double strength, because, by means of these works, it is reinforced, and secured against the enemy's attack or attempt to make a lodgment.

If the plan, which I had the honour of laying before the king of Sardinia, be carefully examined, it must be apparent to every military man, that the works I therein describe, are not only more useful, but capable of being constructed at a less expense, than those which are generally practised to this day.

It will be clearly seen, that I have done nothing more than add some additional proportions of the flanks and bastions to the counter-guards, which are usually erected; and that I have augmented their double face, by joining it to the half-moons of the curtain. The object of this addition, is to throw obstacles in the enemy's way, should he attempt to make close approaches, to cover the body of the place, to render the siege difficult, to increase the besieger's expense, and to give confidence to the troops of the garrison, who are thereby no longer exposed, as they must be in all out-works erected upon the foot of the glacis.

It is not, however, my design to throw works of this kind into utter disrepute. There are situations and local circumstances, which not only make their adoption useful, but render it absolutely necessary. I cannot pretend to describe the specific nature of such exigencies, as they grow out of existing cases, which an able general and an engineer will know how to discriminate, by examining the ground.

The ditch belonging to the body of the place, be its soil what it may, must be very broad, as the chief security to be derived from it, depends entirely upon its width. The enemy cannot easily fill it up, and he must suffer a considerable loss of men, should he attempt to cross it; being exposed to the discharge of artillery from the flanks, which artillery cannot be dismounted from any quarter or lodgment, before the counter-guards are taken. The storming of the place must depend entirely upon the previous conquest of the side ravelins, and of the center half-moons; for unless the enemy has first effected this, he will not be able to cross the ditch, or make any lodgment, since at every approach he must be annoyed from the flanks, and battered in front; he must, in fact, attack and get the better of five works at once. The execution of any part of so important a task, must be the more dangerous, because in proportion, as he overcomes one line of defence, another presents itself which is equally formidable, and the rest increase in difficulty and hazard.

When I submitted this new method to the consideration of able and intelligent men, only one opponent started to controvert the propriety of its general adoption. This was a celebrated Dutch engineer, who asserted, that it could not be of any essential service, except in hexagons, or figures that had many sides; he further argued, that the method was more faulty in small works, because the angles became more acute, and that no use could be made of them in irregular fortification.

I had the good fortune to satisfy this gentleman, and to convince him, that his objections were not well founded. I stated to him, that by increasing the width of the ditch at the angle of the flanks of the bastion, I reduced that angle to any size I judged necessary; I maintained, that by so doing, I did not weaken the place; but that on the contrary, by cancelling the parallelogram of the counter-guards, I rendered more oblique any battery which the enemy might erect in front of the bastion, whilst the rampart belonging to it fell under a cross fire from the mitred half-moon.

With respect to its uselessness in irregular
regular fortification, after having discussed the subject at some length, I got him to agree with me, that every detached piece of fortification might be constructed anywhere (and with greater advantage to the ultimate defence of a place) sooner than in plain counters, horns or crown-works, tennials, and such-like fortifications, because, by means of the retreat which was secured under a second line of retreatment, by means of the regular resistance it afforded, without having one dead angle attached, and by means of the little ground it left for the enemy to lodge on, the main body of the place was more effectually protected, and the approaches of the enemy were considerably checked.

With regard to the construction proposed in this new method, I take all the measurements, and I mark all the essential points upon capital lines; that is to say, I prolong the lines of the salient angles of the bastion, and those of the centre of the curtain; after which I determine the width of the ditch at 23 or 24 toises, in order to make the parallels of the faces of the different bastions for the counterscarp of the counters, and of the great half-moon, and finally the thickness of the works, to agree with the ditches in front.

With regard to the ravelins which are made between the mitred half-moons and the counters, I place the salient angle in the centre of the site, and I construct faces to them in such a manner, that they are under a straight line of defence from the half-moons and counters. I erect the counterscarp and glacis in the usual manner, only with this difference, that I wish to have a ditch of moderate breadth and depth between the covert-way and the glacis: say, two toises broad upon two deep.

In order to clear the ditch of occasional rubbish that may fall in, or of pieces that may drop from the demolished parts of a fortification during a siege, square excavations or wells must occasionally be made along the flanks and faces of the different works; by which means the ditch is always kept clean, and you may at any time repair the fortifications, whilst on the other hand, the enemy, should he attempt to storm the place, must have recourse to fascines, as he could derive no advantage from the materials that would otherwise be found under the walls.

This ingenious writer has described every part of the method proposed in a clear and perspicuous manner. His plan is particularly valuable, on account of the exact measurements it contains, whereby the most common understanding may become acquainted with the construction. He appears singularly anxious to have it practically proved, that works can be erected according to this method at a less expense than by any other, and that there is no comparison between the advantages it affords in point of real utility. In chap. 16, p. 61, the following account is given of his second system, which he calls the Great System.

"After I had thoroughly digested my plan, relative to the best method of covering a town or fortified place by outworks, it naturally occurred, that I had not provided the necessary means of keeping the troops under shelter, of securing a retreat to the artillery, which is always seized whenever a work is taken by assault, nor of furnishing a heavier discharge of ordnance and musketry than the enemy could pour in. These important objects put my invention to work, and I directed all the faculties of my mind towards discovering a kind of fortification which might not only cover the body of the place, and by a new disposition of its relative parts communicate equally with every quarter, without there being any necessity to carry the heavy ordnance into the ditch; but likewise oblige the besieging enemy to increase his means of attack, and make extraordinary efforts. I necessarily saw, that the salient angles of the bastions should be well covered, and that the strongest ought to be raised before the curtain belonging to the body of the place, in order to force the assailants to make their attack on a quarter from whence the concentrated fire of several works, presenting a wide front of artillery, would issue with considerable effect.

After having for several years directed the whole of my attention to this specific object, and tried the result of my reflexions upon paper by a variety of designs; I had the good fortune to discover a method
a method, whose plan exhibits to the eye several pieces that are joined together by their different walls, and in front of which there are ditches covered in with beams and strong oak boards, and made bomb proof by means of a sufficient quantity of earth that is spread upon the whole. So that it appears evident to me, that there is only one species of fortification, which affords the means of concentrating your line of defence from every quarter, and of lining the parapets with heavy ordinance. By means of this construction, the lines and glacis will be secured against any immediate approaches of the enemy, during which seasonable interruption, the artillery may without risk, be withdrawn and lodged in the interior work; a convenience which cannot be obtained in detached pieces, on account of the difficulty which always attends the first erection, or ultimate demolition of them.

By taking away the beams, or by destroying them at once, and by pulling down the walls which compose the flanks, you suddenly open a new work upon the enemy; which work has the advantage of being considerably larger than the one he has just attacked and taken, and against which he must raise fresh batteries, and prepare the means of crossing a ditch, he had not foreseen, and which he cannot easily pass. This work either communicates with a tenaille that commands it, or is connected with a horned work, flanked by two others of similar construction. The tenaille is open in the center (being divided into two parts by a ditch) in order to leave as little room as possible for the enemy to lodge on, and to multiply the enfilading points of the place.

Between these large works, demi-lunes or half-moons, of three orders, are constructed in the shape of bastions. These have orillons and ditches between the two, which flank the side-works, and are always protected by an enfilade, that the enemy never can lodge without being exposed to a cross and rear fire. In order to cover the whole body of the place, I construct other intermediate demi-lunes, which are equal in elevation to the first works. These contribute greatly towards preventing the enemy's approaches; for they not only enfilade the covert-way, but they likewise double the defences in such a manner, that the enemy, as has already been observed, cannot attack one place without experiencing a necessity to attack four others at the same time; to which may be added this disheartening circumstance, that as fast as he advances, so fast a retreat is made behind some new work, and he is; of course, obliged to recommence his attack.

The regular communication between the several works must be kept up by means of sleeping bridges, which are well supported underneath by strong beams, or stakes. Those which form a part of the rampart must be covered with four feet of earth, well pressed together. The walls by which the works are connected, must be so built as to be easily demolished, and they must only serve to cover the subterranean fortifications. These walls are never within the reach of the enemy's cannon, and when they are pulled down, their ruins are thrown into wells, or excavations, which have been previously dug at the foot of the main wall, to prevent the ditch from being filled with them; subterranean embrasures are opened from within to enfilade the ditch, and to obstruct the passage.

When by dint of perseverance, and after having expended considerable sums of money, lost many lives and consumed much time, the enemy has at last obtained possession of these works, he discovers, that his sacrifices have only led him to an unexpected body of the place which he cannot injure. This new construction he finds flanked on both sides by two double bastions, and a broad curtain lined with a triple front of artillery, having a very wide ditch, traversed by tenailles, batteries from casemates, and defended by flanks with the two cavaliers belonging to the bastions, which keep up an incessant fire upon the artillery that is planted in the carried outworks, and render it almost impossible for him to establish a lodgment.

"I do not pretend," continues the same author, "to have discovered by this new method, any certain means of rendering a place impregnable; such an idea would be chimerical and absurd. Let a town be ever so well fortified, that town, if properly invested and resolutely attacked, must eventually fall.
unless it be seasonably succoured from without. My chief object is to correct the errors into which former writers seem to have fallen, and by the methods I have proposed, to harass a besieging army, not only by increasing its expense, but by occasioning a considerable loss of men; I thereby prolong the siege, and gain time for the garrison, so that succours may arrive, or such conditions be entered into as will secure the country, which the place attacked is destined to cover.

Counter-guards, ravelins, and demi-lunes are, in fact, a species of fortification by which they flank one another obliquely, and which only tend to embarrass the troops of the garrison, whenever it is judged expedient to manoeuvre under the fire of artillery; a circumstance that invariably causes confusion; whereas the works which I have proposed are capacious enough to admit of every movement and evolution without inconvenience.

Horned and crowned works are extremely expensive in their construction, and of little use when completed; their lines of defence, their faces, and their flanks are so short and limited, that a besieging enemy can, with great ease, attack and carry them by means of an equal front and range of fire; and when he has so far succeeded, he derives considerable advantage from having opened a wide space of ground on which he can erect angles to annoy and batter the place. Whereas in the works of my proposed method, the foundations are broader, the defences are more direct and within musquet shot; and when the garrison retreats towards the body of the place, the ground which it abandons is scarcely sufficient for the erection of a small battery; it is moreover exposed to all the retrenched and flanking points, so that the enemy would be instantly dislodged.

Tenaillles and quenbs d'hironnelle contain dead angles which may always be taken advantage of by the besieging enemy. This does not exist in the works I propose. For, at every approach, not only fresh expences must be incurred by the assailant, but he will remain exposed to several fires at once, without being able to cover himself from the reverse and cross ones.

Double ditches afford the means of creating perpetual uneasiness in the enemy, by uncovering fresh works as he advances. So that the siege is protracted, his expences are increased, and his loss of men, ammunition, stores, and artillery, is proportionally multiplied.

In the examination which was made of the relief proposed by me; some persons well acquainted with the particular subject, objected to its adoption on account of the expence. I made an accurate calculation of the amount, and I found that it cost a sixth more than the usual fortification. This does not assuredly form sufficient ground to outbalance the many advantages which can be derived from the construction. Besides, there is no occasion of fortifying all the parts of a town in this manner, since it would be advisable to strengthen the weak points only.

The construction which is proposed in this new method, is simple, and easily understood. The principal objects to be attended to are these; that there be mines under all the works, and that a regular communication be kept up with the chambers, by means of subterraneous galleries, which must be resorted to in proportion as the enemy approaches.

The Piedmontese engineer, from whom we have made these extracts, has added to Vauban's and Coehorn's systems. We leave the subject to the consideration of those professional men who have made the art of fortification their peculiar study; they must determine whether the theory of the proposed method be susceptible of practice, and if so, whether it can be rendered so generally useful, as the author seems to promise it would.

On a general view of the subject it must, however, be acknowledged, that a situation is not always found which will admit of the improvements and additions that might otherwise be made. There are some old places in which the figure of the fortifications erected for their defence, is so strange and whimsical, that the least correction of its errors must be attended with an enormous expence.

A town may be irregularly fortified, and owe that irregularity either to the figure of the works only, by the angles not being equally distant from the cen-
different means of attack and defence. We refer the inquisitive officer to those works. Before we conclude these interesting remarks upon an art, which is certainly equal to any invention that has employed the skill and ingenuity of man, we must observe that in all periods, productions on that head have been as numerous as the subject has hitherto proved inexhaustible. It must, however, be acknowledged with some regret, that the tendency of the greater part, if not of all, seems to be an indiscriminate and bold attack upon the works of the immortal Vauban. These writers conspire the methods of that great engineer by proposing something of their own, which only differs in appearance, and which they think proper to call a superior system. Assertions, and promises to afford new lights upon the science of fortification, have always, in fact, been profusely given by authors of this description. Their labours, however, are only so far to be regarded and esteemed, in as much as their different systems tend to point out the necessary calculations which are required to shew the expence attending their construction, and to prove the effects they might produce. The memoirs upon perpendicular fortification, written by M. M. engineer, will throw considerable light upon these observations.

With respect to the knowledge of fortification, it must be manifest to every thinking man, that from a sovereign prince, or head of a country, down to the lowest infantry officer, the acquirement of it is more or less indispensably necessary.

A prince, or chief magistrate of a country, should be well versed in the science of fortification, in order to examine the plans that are laid before him, and to determine upon the execution of proposed projects.

A minister should know it, in order to explain the nature of the plans when questioned by a superior power, to calculate the expences which will attend the construction of works, and to distinguish good ones from those which might be useless and expensive.

Every governor of a town, or fortified place, should be well acquainted with the subject, because it may fall to his peculiar share to construct works in
cases of emergency, or to add to those already erected for the defence of the place entrusted to his care. He likewise ought, at all times, to be able to ascertain how far such a place is capable of holding out.

Every director of fortification should be master of it, in order to discriminate between what is proper, or what is defective, and make his report accordingly.

Every infantry officer, in a word, should be conversant in field fortification at least, if not acquainted with the general system. For without some knowledge of its branches, how will he, in cases of emergency, be capable of throwing up a temporary redoubt, of fortifying a spot of ground which he is ordered to maintain, or of securing a common out-post?

Field Fortifications, (fortifications de campagne,) Fr. consist in the art of fortifying, constructing, attacking, and defending all sorts of temporary field works during a campaign.

Although an engineer may be perfectly master of the different methods by which a town can be strengthened and secured by permanent works, he should not remain satisfied with that acquisition, but carefully direct his attention to the distribution of ground, for field fortification. He should be able to ascertain, with geometrical precision, all the relative divisions and corresponding points of any situation in which it might be judged expedient to construct that species of fortification which consists in entrenched lines, fortins, or small forts, and in redoubts of various denominations. The shape or figure of these works is exactly similar to those of the permanent kind. Ditches, ramparts, and parapets, must be dug and thrown up, to secure the former, in the same manner as they are practised for the protection of the latter. They only differ in their measurement and proportions. Entrenched lines are made for the purpose of covering a camp from any sudden insult of the enemy, which should always, on this account, be pitched in the most advantageous manner; contiguous to and facing that quarter where it is probable the attack will be made, a ditch must be dug, having three toises at least in width and two in depth. This must be defended by a parapet en redans, or be occasionally flanked with small bastions, two toises thick, consisting of solid good earth well pressed together, covered and supported with fascines, having likewise banquets behind them sufficiently high to conceal the soldiers' tents. If water could be conveyed, or drawn into the ditch from any adjacent rivulet, or river, the security would be greater. When the lines of entrenchment are thrown up with an intention to maintain the ground any length of time, a covert-way must be made, which should be regularly fenced with palisades.

There is another species of field fortification, which is resorted to in order to keep up a communication between two places; in which case great care must be taken to prevent the lines from being enfiladed in any quarter; and if they should be exposed in that manner, no time ought to be lost in strengthening the weak points by constructing redoubts, or small forts. The defence of these redoubts and forts must be entrusted to small arms and musquetry, but not to cannon, as the range of the latter is always too extensive to prevent an enemy's close approaches to the lines of communication from their field works, or forts. Necessary drains must be made to let out the water that collects, as it would otherwise destroy the works, drown the sentries, and cut off all communication with the main body.

When a position is taken upon a steep rock, or eminence extremely difficult of access, the lines which surround it do not absolutely require ditches for their safety, as the parapet and banquette may probably be sufficient; but if any vulnerable or weak part be observed, every effort should be used to get at a spring, and to fill up an excavation in front of it, to prevent surprises. An able engineer will be particularly careful in drawing his plan of communication, to ascertain the exact points whereby they may be protected by an enfilade from one fort to another; so that if the enemy should make a lodgment any where, he will not be able to maintain his position on account of his being flanked by other works.

Field works, or small forts, are generally
rally constructed in places the preservation of which is judged to be indispensably necessary. Such, for instance, are necks of land that stretch into a marsh, and are surrounded by it; the passage of a road, têtes de ponts, or heads of bridges, and other objects of similar importance in offensive or defensive operations. On these occasions the shape and size of the construction must depend upon the nature of the ground, the importance of the undertaking, and on the number of men by which the works are to be garrisoned.

Many forts in field fortification are built in triangular forms; some are square, some starred, or en étoile, some as redoubts, in the shape of demi-lunes, others in crown, or horn-work, and others again in the figures of tenailles, or queues d'hirondelle.

When the object of defence is a windmill, a castle, or a small dwelling-house, the first step to be taken, is to select a spot of ground upon which you are to build the field-work, so as to check and prevent the enemy's approaches. In order to do this effectually, the shape and adjacent parts of the building must be closely attended to, and the work be thrown up without exposing it to a rear attack; but if the place to be defended stand alone, and be not supported by any ditch or eminence on its flanks, or in its rear, you must then fortify it all round. The earth which is dug out of the ditch will serve to raise the rampart, or parapet. Salient angles, distributed at equal distances, in the shape of bastions, must be erected with good flanks to protect and cover the entrenchment. If, on account of the ground, the work should not be much raised, the parapet must be frayed, in order to prevent the enemy from attempting an easy assault.

An engineer from Piedmont, who has proposed some new methods in field fortification, is decidedly against stone and masonry, in the construction of parapets and field works. His reason is self-evident; for, as he justly observes, the scattered pieces which must naturally be thrown about in all directions by the demolishing of the walls in the discharge of heavy cannon, would do more mischief than the cannon itself.

It is frequently found necessary to fortify a bridge; the means adopted for this purpose must depend entirely upon the size and current of the river. If the stream should be broad and navigable, and so far from the fortress, that it cannot be defended by the ordnance of the town or fortified place, in that case, a large retrenchment, resembling a place of arms, must be constructed, with strong bastions to support and cover it, curtains and half-moons, a broad and deep ditch, and covert-way that must be well secured by palisades. This retrenchment, or place of arms, must be made sufficiently capacious to hold a garrison that would be capable of opposing the attack of a large detachment from the main army of the enemy. A half-moon must be constructed within the lines, with a ditch in front, to serve as a work behind which the garrison might retreat with its artillery, disputing every inch of ground, and by that means affording sufficient time to cut down the bridge.

If the river should be narrow, yet wide enough to prevent any sudden interruption into the country behind it, the bridges that are across must be fortified by works made of earth, which are to be covered by ditches dug in front. Half-moons, tenailles, crown and horn-works, and similar constructions, provided they be well fenced with palisades, will answer all the purposes required in such cases. The engineer, by the first glance of his eye, will be able to ascertain the situation of the country, and to fit his plans accordingly. Small lodgments, or wooden recesses, must be made as guard-houses, in which detached parties of men should be stationed to meet the first attacks of the enemy, and to keep him in check while the whole army passes over the river, or is drawn up in order of battle to dispute the passage. These entrenchments must invariably be well furnished with light artillery, for the purpose of annoying the approaching enemy. But the disposition and arrangement of these pieces must always be such as to admit of their being instantly removed, when the entrenchments are carried, under the cover of heavier ordnance, which is kept playing upon the enemy from the opposite side of the river.

FORTIN, FORTLETT, or FORTILAGE. See FIELD-FORT.
FORTIN, Fr. a species of field fortification, which is made of fascines and saucissons, for the purpose of securing a post, &c.

FORTRESS, any place strongly fortified.

FORWARD, a word of command, which is given when a regiment or company has been interrupted in its regular movement, and the march is continued. On this occasion every succeeding division must preserve its proper distance and mark time until the word Forward is given. This frequently occurs in the passage of obstacles, and in the windings of roads, streets, &c.

Right shoulders Forward, a word of command, by which soldiers are directed to wheel to the right or left, without halting, when a corps is on its march. Whole regiments in open column may move round the different windings of a town or country without losing their relative distances, provided each leading officer and his covering sergeant pay the requisite attention to his preceding division, and at the wheeling point give the words, right (or left) shoulders, forward! with accuracy and firmness.

FOSSE in fortification. See Ditch.

FOSSES pleins d'eau, Fr. wet ditches. See Fortification.

Fosse secs, Fr. dry ditches.

Fosse recul, Fr. ditches that are lined.

Fosse non recul, Fr. ditches that are not lined.

FOSSEWAY, one of the great Roman roads in England, so called from the ditches on both sides.

FOUCADE, FOUGADE, a small mine.

FOUDROYER, Fr. to play incessantly against a fortified town or place, troop or company, with heavy ordnance or musquetry.

FOUGASS, in mining, a small mine, from 6 to 8 feet under ground: It is generally placed under the glacis or dry ditches.

FOUGETTE, or Baguette à Feu, Fr. Indian sky-rocket, a species of firework which is frequently used by the Indians who inhabit the western peninsula of the Ganges. The author of a late military production in France makes the following observations relative to advantages which might be derived from this weapon against cavalry, and for the defence of fortified places or entrenchments. He observes, that the fougette, in shape, resembles a sky-rocket, whose flight is gradually brought to run along an horizontal direction. By throwing several fougettes into parks of artillery and upon the caissons, &c. considerable damage might be occasioned from the fire which would inevitably be communicated to some part. A fougette forces itself immediately forward, cuts as its penetrates, by the formation of its sides, which are filled with small spikes, becomes combustible and on fire at all its points, and possesses within itself a thousand various means by which it can adhere to whatever object it is destined to set on fire or to destroy. This weapon would be more effectual, because it might be more variously applied, to defend the mouth of a harbour against an enemy's shipping, than red-hot balls can ever prove. Fougettes might be used on board ships of war, but there would certainly be some danger in the experiment; although, in my humble opinion, a little experience would effectually remove that difficulty; in which case, ships might run along a coast, and easily destroy the wooden forts that are sometimes erected upon it. They would in the first place occasion more havoc than red-hot balls; and in the next, they might be used whilst the vessel was in full sail, which cannot be done in the first instance. By means of their natural velocity they would do more execution, in a less space of time, than the most active piece of ordnance could effect; and they would require fewer hands, as the only necessary operation would be to light and dart them forward. As a defensible weapon it must naturally be allowed, that, where a small body of men is attacked, the fougette might be adopted with considerable advantage.—The writer of this article, who, we find, is likewise the inventor of a fougette which has been submitted to the French government, continues to argue much in favour of its adoption. If, adds he, our enemies should imitate the invention, we must then have recourse, especially in sea-fights, to those pieces of ordnance which are calculated to do more execution at a distance;
distance; and it will then be our business
to conserve fouettes that shall reach
their shipping, by means of a greater
degree of force and velocity which might
be given to them, than they would be
capable of attaining.

FOUILLER, Fr. to search. In mili-
mary movements, it signifies to detach
small bodies of infantry round the flanks
of a column that is marching through a
wood, for the purpose of discovering an
ambuscade, and of giving timely notice,
that it may be avoided. The same pre-
caution is necessary when a body of men
advances towards, or enters a village.

FOUILLER un bois, Fr. to scour a
wood, &c.

FOULOIR, Fr. an instrument used
by gunners to cleanse the inside of a
piece as soon as it has been fired. The
foulouir has a button at the other
extremity of its shaft; it is used to ram
down the powder.

FOUNDATION, in military archi-
cture, is that part of a building which
is underground, or the mass of stone,
brick, &c. which supports a building,
or upon which the walls of a superstruc-
ture are raised: or it is the cover or
bed dug below the level of the ground,
to raise a building upon; in which
sense, the foundation either goes to the
whole area or extent of the building, as
when there are to be vaults, galleries,
casemates, or the like; or is drawn in
cuts or trenches, as when only walls
are to be raised. Sometimes the foun-
dation is massive, and continued un-
der the whole building, as in the an-
tique arches and aqueducts; but it is
more usually in spaces, or intervals; in
which latter case, insulated pillars,
bound together by arches, should be
used.

There are several things to be well
considered in laying the foundation of a
military building. We must first examine
the bed of the earth upon which we are
to build, and then the under-fillings or
substruction. We are not to rest upon
any seeming solidity, unless the whole
mould through which we cut has like-
wise been solid; and in such cases, allow
1-6th part of the height of the building
for the hollowing or under-digging, un-
less there be cellars under-ground, in
which case it may be something less.

There are many ways to try the firmness
of the ground; but the following, in
our opinion, is the best. Take an iron
crow, or such a borer as well-diggers
use, which at once will point out the
goodness and tenacity of the ground.

Engineers should use the utmost diligo-
ence in this point; for, of all the er-
ors that may happen in building, those
are the most pernicious which are com-
mitted in the foundation, because they
bring with them the ruin of the whole
building; nor can they be amended
without very great difficulty.

FOUNDATIONS are either natural, or
artificial: natural, as when we build on
a rock, or very solid earth; in which
case we need not seek for any other
strengthening; for these, without dig-
ging, or other artificial helps, are of them-
selves excellent foundations, and most fit
to uphold the greatest buildings. But
if the ground be sandy or marshy, or
have lately been dug, in such case re-
course must be had to art. In the former
case, the engineer must adjust the depth
of the foundation by the height, weight,
&c. of the building: 1-6th part of the
whole height is looked upon as a medium;
and as to the thickness, double that of
the width of a wall is a good rule. If
you build upon mossy and loose earth,
then you must dig until you find sound
ground. This sound ground, fit to sup-
port a building, is of divers kinds: in
some places so hard, as scarcely to be
cut with iron; in other places very stiff;
in other places blackish, which is ac-
counted the weakest; in others like
chalk, and in others sandy: but of all
these, that is the best which requires
most labour in cutting or digging, and
when wet does not dissolve into dirt.

If the earth to be built upon is very
soft, as in moorish grounds, or such that
the natural foundation cannot be trusted,
then you must get good pieces of oak,
whose length must be the breadth of the
trench, or about 2 feet longer than the
wall; these must be laid across the foun-
dation about 3 feet asunder, and being
well rammed down, lay long planks
upon them; which planks need not lie
so broad as the pieces are long, but
only about four inches on a side wider
than the basis, or foot of the wall is to
be. But if the ground be so very bad,
that this will not do, then you must
provide good piles of oak, of such a
length...
length as will reach the good ground, and whose diameter must be about 1-13th part of their length. These piles must be driven down by an engine for that purpose, and must be placed as close as one can stand by another; then lay planks upon them, and pin them fast. But if the ground be faulty in some parts, and firm in others, you may turn arches over those loose places, which will discharge them of the weight. You must not forget to place the piles under the inner, as well as the outer walls; for if these should sink, it would be a means to make the outer walls crack, and so ruin the whole building.

Having thus far considered the bed of the earth on which the building is to be erected, we shall next consider the substruction, as it was called by the ancients; but our modern engineers call it the foundation. This is the groundwork of the whole edifice, which must sustain the walls, and may be termed artificial, as the other was natural; with regard to which, the following things are most necessary to be observed: 1. That the bottom be exactly level; therefore lay a platform of good boards. 2. That the lowest ledge or row be all of stone, the broader the better, laid closely without mortar; which is a general caution for all parts of a building that are contiguous to board or timber, because lime and wood are utter enemies to one another, and, if unfit confiners any where, they are more especially so in the foundation. 3. That the breadth of the foundation be at least double the breadth of the wall which is to be raised upon it; but even in this case art should give way to discretion; and the foundation may be made either broader, or narrower, according as the ground and the ponderosity of the edifice require. 4. That the foundation be made to diminish as it rises, but yet so that there may be as much left on the one side as on the other; so that the middle of that above may be perpendicularly over the middle of that below, which should, in like manner, be observed in diminishing the walls above ground; for by this means the building will become much stronger, than it would be if the diminution were made by any other way. 5. That you should never build on the ruins of an old foundation, unless you are well assured of its depth, and that its strength is sufficient to bear the building.

The stones in the foundation should be laid as they naturally lay in the quarry, for they have the most strength in their natural position. This should be observed in all parts of a building, because all stones have a cleaving grain; consequently, if the horizontal position of the stones in the quarry should be placed vertically in the building, the super-incumbent weight would be apt to cleave them, and so render the building ruinous.

FOUNDEE, a person who casts cannon, &c.

FOUNDERING, a disorder in horses, which may be considered under two heads, viz.

FOUNDERING in the feet, which is an universal rheumatism, or defluxion of humours upon the sinews of a horse’s feet; so that in the course of time the hoofs become stiff and callous, and the horse has no sense or feeling of them. This disorder is generally brought on by hard riding. Sometimes it proceeds from sudden heats and colds; and frequently from the horse being watered when he is very hot. Too tight a shoe, or frequent travelling upon hard flinty ground, will likewise produce this disorder.

FOUNDERING in the chest, a disorder which may be occasioned by crudities collected in the stomach, or by other infirmities which obstruct the free action of the lungs. It is discovered by the horse not being able to bend his joints, and, when once laid, by not being able to rise again. A swelling in the legs is likewise symptomatic of it.

FOUNDERY,  1 in military matters, FOUNDRY,  2 the art of casting all kinds of ordinance, such as cannon, mortars, howitzers, &c. It likewise signifies the place or work-house wherein these operations are performed. At present all pieces of artillery are cast solid, and bored afterwards. Formerly guns were bored perpendicularly, but at present in a horizontal position: the boring instrument is fixed immovably, and forced into the gun or mortar by a mechanical power. The piece of artillery is turned round by a large wheel and horses; and at the same time the gun is bored, the outside is turned and polished,
lished, by another very curious machine for that purpose; invented by the very ingenious Messrs. Verbruggen, founders at Woolwich. Guns were first founded in England in 1587.

FOUR, Fr. a place of confinement in Paris, to which vagabonds and persons who could not give a satisfactory account of themselves, were committed; and when once shut up had their names enregistered, and were enlisted for the service of the old French government. A four in this acceptance of the term, means a room arched over without having the least aperture to receive day-light. There were several such places of confinement in Paris. They owed their invention to a Monsieur D’Argenson, and were supposed to add annually two thousand men at least to the king’s regular army; by which means the capital was relieved from a multitude of thieves, pick-pockets, &c.

Fou de campagne. Fr. A field oven.

FOURAGE, Fr. Forage. In the artillery, it is used figuratively to signify hay, straw, or any thing else of vegetable growth, which is used to rum into the bore of a cannon for the purpose of cleansing it.

Aller au Fourage, Fr. to go a foraging.

FOURAGER, Fr. To forage, or look about for provender and provisions.

Fourager likewise means among the French, to ravage, desolate, pilage, and waste a country, for the purpose of throwing the inhabitants into disorder. The word is derived from, foras agere, or to seek for forage in the fields. Hence Fourager un pays, to ransack and plunder a country.

Fourager au sec, Fr. To seize upon the granaries, hay-stacks, &c.

Fourager au vert, Fr. To mow the fields, &c. for the purpose of obtaining stores and provisions.

FOURAGEURS, The French say also Fauscheurs, Fr. foragers, or men employed to procure forage, &c. for an army.

FOURBISSEUR, Fr. a sword-cutter. The French familiarly say of two persons who are extremely intimate, Ceux sont têta à tête comme des fourisseurs, meaning, that, like sword-cutters, (who when they work sit closely opposite to each other) they are putting their heads together.

Se battre à l’epée qui est chez le fourbisseur, Fr. to fight with a sword which is still in the cutler’s hands; signifying figuratively to dispute about any thing that does not concern either party.

FOURCHETTES à mousquet, Fr. Rests for a musket. They are sometimes used to relieve men who do duty on the rampart of a town.

Chemise Fourchu, Fr. a cross way.

FOUHON, Fr. a sort of waggon. It likewise signifies a poker.

FOURNEU, Fr. Furnace; also the chamber of a mine.

FOURIER, Fr. A quartermaster belonging to a cavalry or infantry regiment. In France there were fouriers-majors of cavalry who composed a part of the cavalry staff.

FOURIER d’armée, Fr. A non-commissioned officer who is attached to the general staff of an army.

FOURIER d’un régiment, Fr. The quarter-master, or quarter-master sergeant of a regiment, troop or company.

FOURMILLER, Fr. to swarm with. La France fourmille en soldats; France swarms with soldiers. L’Angleterre fourmille en braves marins; England swarms with brave seamen.

FOURNIMENT, Fr. A horn which holds about one pound of gun-powder to prime cannon. It is likewise used by cavalry and infantry soldiers, who hang it across their shoulder. The cannoneers keep it in a belt.

FOURNIR, Fr. to supply.

FOURNITURE d’une armée, &c. Fr. The necessary stores and provisions for an army.

FOURNITURES des vivres, Fr. See Stores, &c.

FOURREAU de pistole, Fr. a holster. Faux Fourreau de pistole, Fr. pistol bag.

Fourreau d’épée, Fr. the scabbard of a sword.

Pays FOURRÉ, Fr. a country thick set with hedges, &c. properly called a close country.

Pair FOURRÉ, Fr. a peace suddenly patched up.

Consp Fourrées, Fr. Blows given and received at the same time by two antagonists.

FOURRIER de campement, Fr. A quarter-master-serjeant, who is assisted by a private, and fixes the different racks
racks for the stands of arms in the front of an encampment.

FOURS de boulangerie pour une armée, Fr. field-ovens for the use of an army.

FOUTOUER, Fr. The quick motion which was given to the ram, that battered the walls of a besieged town.

FOYER, Fr. Focus, or center of the chamber. See MINE.

FOY-mentie, Fr. A breach of trust, a base surrender of any thing. In ancient times, when a governor in trust, a general, or a commandant surrendered shamefully, he was degraded in the following manner: The delinquent was armed cap-a-pee; he next mounted on a scaffold; and as soon as his sentence had been read to him, by which he was declared guilty of a breach of trust, traiterous and disloyal; twelve priests began to sing the psalms of All Souls day. At the conclusion of each psalm, the priests paused, when the herald at arms stripped the criminal of one part of his armour, crying aloud, "this is the helmet, this is the shield of the traitor, etc." When the last psalm was over, a basin of warm water was poured over his head, a rope tied under his arms, and he was let down from the scaffold. He next was laid on a hurdle, covered with a shroud, and carried to the church, where the priests concluded the ceremony of the degradation, by singing the psalm, Deus laudem meam ne taceris, which contains imprecations against traitors. When he had undergone this humiliating ceremony, he was dismissed the service.

FRAGMENT de bombe, de grenade, Fr. any piece of a shell or grenade that has burst.

FRAIS, Fr. expenses.

FRAIS de guerre, Fr. the general expenses to which a country is subjected for the support of an army in time of war.

FRAISE, in fortification, a kind of stakes or palisades placed horizontally on the outward slope of a rampart made of earth, to prevent the work being taken by surprise. They are generally 7 or 8 feet long, and about 5 inches thick. When an army invades itself, the parapets of the retrenchments are often raised in the parts exposed to an attack.

To FRAISE a battalion, is to line or coat it every way with pikes, that it may withstand the shock of a body of horse.

FRAISER, Fr. To plait, knead, or drill; in a military sense to raise or fence; as fraiser un bataillon, is to raise or fence all the musquetry-men belonging to a battalion with pikes, to oppose the irruption of cavalry, should it charge them in a plain. At present it means to secure a battalion by opposing bayonets obliquely forward, or cross-ways in such a manner as to render it impossible for a horseman to act against it.

FRAISER un Retranchement, Fr. to raise an entrenchment by placing palisades horizontally towards the enemy.

FRAISES, Fr. See FRAISE, an adopted English term.

FRAMEA, a kind of javelin formerly used by the Germans.

FRANC-aleu, Fr. Free allegiance, a custom in force under the first kings of France. Every individual who was free, and had no chief over him, was at liberty to choose the prince and chief-tain, under whom he wished to live. Instances of the kind are recorded under the reign of Louis I. in 817.

FRANCHES, Fr.—Unattached; independent. Les compagnies franches, free companies, were bodies of men detached and separated from the rest of the French army, having each a chief or commandant. They consisted chiefly of dragoons, hassars, &c. and their peculiar duty was to make irruptions into an enemy's country; and may not improperly be called land pirates, as their chief occupation was to harrass and plunder the enemy and his adherents, in whatever manner they could, without paying any regard to military forms. The persons who composed these corps were termed partisans. They always accompanied the main army in time of war, and were distributed among the different garrison towns in France during peace. Three were always stationed in Paris, under the command of a colonel, who was created in 1550 with the title of captain-general.

FRANCHIR un fossé, une palisade, un rovin, Fr. to get over a fosse, palisade, or ravine.

FRANCHIR des obstacles, Fr. To overcome difficulties with prudence and resolution.

FRANCISQUE, Fr. an offensive weapon
weapon used by foot soldiers under the reign of Cæsar, besides the bow, lance and javelin. It was made in the shape of a double hatcher, with a short handle.

FRANC-tampin, Fr. a soldier who was employed in excavating the earth, in working at the trenches and mines, &c. &c. was so called. It comes from tamp, a mole.

FRAPE, Fr. to strike.

FRATER, the former appellation of military surgeons mates.

FRAY, a battle, combat, or duel.

FRAYER le chemin à une Brèche, Fr. to be foremost in an assault; to be first in entering a breach.

FRETTES, Fr. Iron ferrils fastened to the ends of sticks, beams, &c. to secure them from impression.

FRICTION, in mechanics, the rubbing of the parts of engines and machines against each other, by which a considerable part of their effect is destroyed.

It is hardly possible to lay down general rules for computing the quantity of friction, because it depends upon a multiplicity of circumstances, as the structure, firmness, elasticity, &c. of bodies rubbing against each other. Some authors make the friction upon a horizontal plane, equal to 1-3d of the weight to be moved; while others have found it to be considerably less. But however this be, the doctrine of friction, as uncertain by the latest experiments, may be summed up in the following manner.

1. When one body rests on another upon a horizontal plane, it presses it with its whole weight, which being equally reacted upon, and consequently the whole effect of its gravity destroyed by the plane, it will be absolutely free to move in any horizontal direction by any least power applied thereto, provided both the touching surfaces be smooth.

2. But since we find no such thing as perfect smoothness in the surfaces of bodies, arising from their porosity and peculiar texture, it is easy to understand, that when two such surfaces come together, the prominent parts of the one will, in some measure, fall into the concave parts of the other; and therefore, when an horizontal motion is attempted in one, the fixed prominent parts of the other will give more or less resistance to the moving surface, by holding and retaining its parts; and this is what we call friction.

3. Now since any body will require a force equal to its weight, to draw it over a given obstacle, it follows that the friction arising to the moving body, will always be in proportion to its weight only, and not to the quantity of the surface, by which it bears upon the resisting plane or surface. Thus if a piece of wood 4 inches wide, and 1 thick, be laid upon another fixed piece of the same wood, it will require the same weight to draw it along, whether it be laid on its broad or narrow side.

4. For, though there be 4 times the number of touching particles on the broad side (ceteris paribus) yet each particle is pressed with only 1-4th of the weight, that those are on the narrow side, and since 4 times the number multiplied by one-fourth of the weight, it is plain the resistance is equal in both places, and so requires the same force to overcome it.

5. The reason why friction is proportional to the weight of the moving body, is, because the power applied to move the body must raise it over the prominent parts of the surface on which it is drawn; and this motion of the body, as it is not upright, will not require a power equal to its whole weight; but being in the nature of the motion on an inclined plane, it will only require a part of its own weight, which will vary with the various degrees of smoothness and asperity.

6. It is found by experiment, that a body will be drawn along by nearly 1-3d of its weight; and if the surfaces be hard and well polished, by less than 1-8d part; whereas, if the parts be soft or rugged, it will require a much greater weight.

The ingenious Mr. Emerson, in his principles of Mechanics, has given us the following rules deduced from experiments; but they require some variation under different circumstances, which must be left to the judgment of the artist.

1. Wood and all metals, when greased, have nearly the same friction; and the smoother they are, the less friction they have; yet metals may be so far polished as to increase friction by the cohesion of their parts.

Wood slides easier upon the ground in
in wet weather than in dry, and easier than iron in dry weather; but iron slides easier than wood, in wet weather. Lead makes a great deal of resistance. Iron or steel running in brass, makes the least friction of any. In wood acting against wood, grease makes the motion twice as easy, or rather 2-3ds easier. Wheel-naves, greased or tarred, go 4 times easier than when wet.

Metals oiled make the friction less than when polished, and twice as little as when unpolished.

In general, the softer or rougher the bodies, the less or greater their friction.

2. As to particular cases: a cubic piece of soft wood of 8 pounds weight, moving upon a smooth plane of soft wood, at the rate of 3 feet per second; its friction is about 1-5d of the weight of it; but if it be rough, the friction is little less than 1-half the weight.

Upon the same supposition, other soft wood upon soft wood very smooth, the friction is about 1-4th of the weight.

Soft wood upon hard, or hard wood upon soft, 1-5th or 1-half of the weight. Hard wood upon hard wood, 1-7th or 1-8th of the weight.

Polished steel moving upon steel or pewter, 1-4th of the weight; moving on copper or lead, 1-5th of the weight; on brass, 1-5th of the weight. Metals of the same sort have more friction than different sorts.

The friction, ceteris paribus, increases with the weight almost in the same proportion. The friction is also greater with a greater velocity, but not in proportion to it, except in very few cases. A greater surface also causes somewhat more friction, with the same weight and velocity; yet friction may sometimes be increased by having too little surface to move on; as upon clay, &c. where the body sinks.

3. The friction arising from the bending of ropes about machines, differs according to their stiffness, the temper of the weather, degree of flexibility, &c. but, ceteris paribus, the force or difficulty of bending a rope is as the square of the diameter of the rope, and its tension, directly; and the diameter of the cylinder or pulley it goes about, reciprocally.

A rope of 1 inch diameter, whose tension or weight drawing it is 5 pounds, going over a pulley 3 inches diameter, requires a force of 1 pound to bend it.

4. The resistance of a plane moving through a fluid is as the square of the velocity; and putting \( v \) = velocity in feet in a second; it is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid, whose base is the plane, and height \( \frac{v}{4} \). And in a globe it is but half so much.

5. As to the mechanic powers, the single lever makes no resistance by friction; but if, by the motion of the lever in lifting, the fulcrum, or place of support, be changed further from the weight, the power will be decreased thereby.

6. In any wheel of any machine, running upon an axis, the friction on the axis is as the weight upon it, the diameter of the axis, and the angular velocity. This sort of friction is but small.

7. In the pulley, if \( p, q \), be 2 weights, and \( q \) the greater; and \( w = \frac{4pq}{px} \), then

\( w \) is the weight upon the axis of the single pulley; and it is not increased by the acceleration of the weight \( q \), but remains always the same.

The friction of the pulleys is very considerable, when the sheaves rub against the blocks; and by the wearing of the holes and axles.

The friction of the axis of the pulley is as the weight \( w \), its angular velocity, the diameter of the axis directly, and the diameter of the pulley inversely. A power of 100 pounds, with the addition of 50 pounds, will only draw up 500 with a tackle of 5; and 15 pounds over a single pulley will draw up only 14 pounds.

8. In the screw, there is a great deal of friction: those with sharp threads have more friction than those with square threads; and endless screws have more than either. Screws with a square thread, raise a weight with more ease than those with a sharp thread.

In the common screw the friction is so great, that it will sustain the weight in any position given, when the power is taken off; and therefore the friction is at least equal to the power. From whence it will follow, that in the screw, the power must be to the weight or resistance,
istance, at least as twice the perpendicular height of a thread to the circumference described by one revolution of the power; if it be able to raise the weight, or only sustain it. This friction of the screw is of great use, as it serves to keep the weight in any given position.

9. In the wedge, the friction is at least equal to the power, as it retains any position it is driven into; therefore in the wedge, the power must be to the weight at least as twice the base to the height, to overcome any resistance.

10. To find the friction of any engine, begin at the power, and consider the velocity and weight at the first rubbing part; and estimate its quantity of friction by some of the foregoing articles; then proceed to the next rubbing part, and do the same for it, and so on through the whole.

And note, that something more is to be allowed for increase of friction by every new addition to the power.

FRILL. An ornamental appendage to the skirt, which all officers and soldiers belonging to the British army generally exhibit whenever they appear in regiments. A small aperture is usually made at the top to admit the hook and eye of the uniform coat. Detached frills for the privates are certainly preferable to those which are fixed to the skirts, as two per week, at the regular times allotted for a change of linen, would answer every purpose of cleanliness.

FRISF. Fr. See Cheval de Frisé.

FRISRUTTER. An instrument made of iron, and used for the purpose of blocking up an haven, or a river. The following description of it is among General Monk's observations on political and military affairs.

The beams through which the upright bars pass must be twelve feet in length, and the upright bars that go through the beam must be of that length, so that when one of these iron frisutters is let down into an haven or river, the perpendicular bars of this iron instrument shall be deep enough to reach at high water within five feet of the surface.

FROCK, the undress regimental coat is very often so called.

FRONDE, Fr. a sling. This weapon was used in France by the Huguenots at Sancerre, as late as the year 1572, in order to save their powder. There are two sorts, one which is used in throwing a stone from the arm, and the other that was fixed to a lever, and was so contrived, that a large quantity of stones might be thrown out of a machine, either from a camp into a besieged town, or from a town into the enemy's camp. This machine has been used since the invention of cannon.

The fronde or sling was used by the Romans on three different occasions, viz. when they sent their light-armed men, called velites, forward to skirmish before a general engagement; when they wished to drive the enemy from under the walls of a town which they were preparing to storm, and finally to harass and wound the men in the enemy's works. This weapon, in fact, together with the bow and arrow, may be numbered among the primitive arms of mankind.

FRONDER, Fr. to throw stones out of a sling.

FRONDER une entreprise, une manœuvre, un projet, Fr. a figurative expression, which signifies, to render any project or plan abortive, and by such conduct to deprive the author of the merit, which might be attached to its execution.

FRONDEURS, Fr. slingers. These composed a part of the Roman militia. There were some in the French service under the reign of Philip I.

FRONT, a word of command, signifying, that the men are to turn to their proper front; this movement is performed at once by revolving on the left heel, without first planting the right foot, as in the facings. If the battalion has been faced to the right, the men turn on this word a quarter circle to the left; if faced to the left, they turn a quarter circle to the right; if they have been faced to the right, or left about, they turn a half circle to the right. When the battalion is marching by files, or is put through its right or left facings, as, To the Right, Face, To the Left, Face, the word front is always practised to restore it to its natural situation in line. In displaying, or to use the French term, in deploying, from close or open column, or in executing either of those movements from line, the word front invariably follows halt.
FRONT, (Front, Fr.) an extent of ground, &c. which faces something opposite: as the front of a camp, the front of a line of action, the space in a fortification which is comprehended between the capitals of two bastions.

FRONT of a regiment, the foremost rank of a battalion, squadron, or any other body of men. To front every way, is when the men are faced to all sides.

Quatres hommes de front, four men in front.

FRONT of a fortification. See Face.

FRONT d'un bataillon, Fr. The front of a battalion, consisting of the leading man of each file. This term is variously used in the French service, as Un bataillon qui fait front de tous côtés, et presente les armes par tout. A battalion which is fronted towards every quarter, and presents arms in every direction. Un bataillon est sur son front signifies, that a battalion is drawn up so that it presents its natural front in line.

FRONT-give-point, a movement of the sword used by the cavalry. See Sword Exercise.

Rear-Front is the disposition of a body of men in line, or column, so that the natural formation of the battalion is changed with regard to aspect, but not to shape. Those files, which in the first telling off were leaders, become followers. It sometimes happens, that to save time a column is ordered suddenly to face about and retire; in this case the different companies march rear front. In the conversion of a regiment, and during the various manoeuvres, the divisions, &c. frequently appear rear front. They are restored to their natural order by the countermarch. Thus a battalion standing in open column, the right in front, when faced about stands rear front; when countermarched it resumes its original or natural formation, and stands left in front with its proper leading files. When a battalion retiring in line, files by wings or alternate companies, every retrograde movement is made rear front.

FRONT d'une armée, Fr. The front of an army. Its extent from the right to left. It also signifies the whole line of communication which an army occupies, whether by divided camps, cantonments, &c. or by columns of troops posted in a country.

FRONT d'attaque, Fr. That part against which an enemy directs his immediate operations.

FRONT d'attaque, Fr. in artillery, that part of a fortress against which an enemy opens his works, &c.

FRONT de bandière, Fr. The front rank of a battalion; the advanced line upon which a camp, &c. may be formed.

FRONT-couverte, Fr. Any space which serves to cover a town or army against the immediate approaches of an enemy.

FRONT-decouvert, Fr. Any space or ground in front of a fortified place or army, which is exposed to the immediate approaches of an enemy.

FRONT-hérissé, Fr. Any space or ground in front of a fortified place or army, which is defended by a range of ordnance, line of troops, &c. so as to render it inaccessible.

FRONTEAU de mire, Fr. A wedge of wood, which is placed under a piece of ordnance to raise it to a proper point of elevation.

FRONTIER (Frontière, Fr.), the limit, confine, or boundary of any kingdom. The frontier towns are generally guarded by troops of two or more nations. See Barrier Towns.

FUEL, the matter or aliment of fire; any thing capable of ignition.

There is a certain and regulated allowance of coals made by government, through the barrack office, to regiments of cavalry and infantry stationed in Great Britain. At the Cape of Good Hope and in our other colonies, the allowance of fuel is generally regulated by the general officer commanding in those quarters.

When there is a sufficient number of rooms in a barrack to allow of one to a subaltern of infantry, a full allowance of fuel and candles may be issued for the same.

The weekly deliveries of coals and candles for every room are not to exceed the following quantities, viz. Three bushels and one quarter of coals, and two pounds and a half of candles, to the cavalry, in November, December, January, February, and March. The same quantity of coals, and one pound and one quarter of candles to the infantry for the same time.

Two bushels and one half of coals, and two pounds of candles, in April, September,
September, and October, to the cavalry. The same quantity of coals, and one pound of candles to the infantry, for the same time.

One bushel and three quarters of coals, and 1 pound and a half of candles, in May, June, July, and August, to the cavalry. The like quantity of coals, and three quarters of a pound of candles to the infantry, for the same time.

A commissioned officer's guard, seven bushels of coals, and four pounds of candles, from 1st September to 1st May. A non-commissioned officer's guard, half those quantities of coals and candles for the same time.

N. B. When sea-coal is not used, one Cwt. of coal is considered as equal to a bushel.

When it is found necessary to have lights in the passages and galleries in the several barracks, one pound of candles will be allowed per week for each lantern, from the 1st of September to the 1st of May.

FUGEL-MAN, (an incorrect method of pronouncing flugel-man) a well drilled intelligent soldier advanced in front of the line, to give the time in the manual and platoon exercises. The word flugel is derived from the German, and signifies a wing; the man having been originally posted in front of the right wing.

FUGITIVE, one who runs from his post, station, or duty.

FUTIE, Fr. Flight.

FULMINANTE (legion) Fr. The Romans had a legion of this name, composed of christian soldiers, who rendered essential services to the Emperor Marcus Aurelius, in his expedition against the Sarmatii, the Quades, and the Marcomani.

To FUMIGATE, in a general acceptance of the term, to medicate or heal by vapours; to correct any infected building, or limited circumference of atmosphere, by smoke, impregnated with antipulverulents particles of heat. Hospitals are strictly ordered to be attended to on this head; especially when any contagious disorder has prevailed. But in no instance ought this important precaution to be so scrupulously observed as when troops are embarked for any space of time. The subsequent regulations have been published by authority, under the following word:

FUMIGATION, the act of fumigating or conveying smoke into any confined place.

The frequent fumigation of every ship on which troops, or prisoners of war are embarked, is deemed highly material, in order to prevent mischief from confined air. The materials for fumigation may be brinestone with saw-dust; or the brinestone may be thrown over hot coals. Nitre, to which a little vitriolic acid is added; or common salt, with the same addition of vitriolic acid. Gun-powder wetted, or the heated loggerhead in the pitch pot.

This operation should always be performed under the immediate eye of the medical officer on board, to prevent improper quantities of the articles being used.

FUND. See Stock Purse.

FUNERALS. See BURLIUS.

FUNNEL, any pipe, or passage of communication from one place to another.

FUREUR, Fr. Fury, rage.

To FURL, in regard to military flags or colours, is opposed to their exposure; and is used, to express the act of folding them so as to be cased.

FURLOUGH, a leave of absence. Every non-commissioned officer and soldier, who obtains leave of absence from his regiment, must be provided with a proper voucher to satisfy the commanding officer of any place or party, that he has the sanction of his superiors to pass and repass within a given period.

The following form has been adopted in a regiment of dragoons, to the interior regulations of which very minute attention is paid.

By lieutenants-colonel—commanding the—quartered at—

"Permit the bearer—private dragoon in the above regiment, and in captain—troop, to pass to—in the county of—for the space of—ending the—of—and then to return to his regiment and troop, wherever they may happen to be; as no excuse will be taken but that of sickness, for his overstaying his furlough; and that to be certified by an officer of the army, or civil magistrate; he behaving as cometh. He is—feet—inches high, K k —years
---years of age,---complexion,---
hair,---eyes, &c."

All soldiers found half a league from a camp or garrison, going towards an enemy's country, or quarters, without a pass, are deemed and treated as deserters.

FURNACE. In a general acceptation of the term, any vessel or utensil for maintaining a strong and searching fire, either of coal or wood.

Furnace is sometimes applied, but improperly so, to that used in the melting of iron, and by some authors it is confounded with iron forges; although there is a considerable difference between them. See Foundry.

Furnace in mining, signifies a hollow, or excavation which is made in the earth, and is charged with gun-powder, for the purpose of blowing up a rock, wall, or any part of a fortification.

Mine Furnaces must be made under that part of the glacis belonging to the covert way, which faces the quarter from whence the besiegers will make their principal attacks, the instant they can be ascertained by the opening of the trenches. Several small ones must likewise be sunk under the glacis of the outworks, in order to blow up the lodgments which the enemy may have made when he has carried the advanced posts. Mine furnaces are moreover extremely useful in the defence of the covert-way, especially to overthrow the saps and lodgments, together with the batteries that may have been erected by the besieging enemy. For a scientific explanation of this article, see Foissac's late edition of Traité de la défense des places par le Maréchal Vauban, tom. ii. pages 203, 224, 240.

FURNITURE, in a general sense, means all sorts of moveables made use of for the comfort, or decoration of a house. In a military sense it applies to certain articles which are allowed in barracks, to which are added household utensils, according to the number of rooms.

By the last General Regulations, commissioned and warrant officers' rooms of cavalry and infantry are to have a closet, 1 table, 2 chairs, a coal-box, coal-tray, bellows, fire-irons, and fender.

Non-commissioned officers and private men's rooms of cavalry and infantry are to be furnished with bedsteads, mattresses, or paillasses, bolsters, blankets, sheets, rugs, round-towel, closet or shelves, 1 table, rack for arms, set of fire-irons, a fender, and three forms.

The following utensils are also allowed for each room: 2 iron pots with wooden lids, 2 pair of iron pot-hooks, 2 iron trivets, 2 wooden ladles; an iron flesh-fork, and a frying-pan, 2 large bowls or platters; 8 small bowls or porringer, 8 trenchers and 8 spoons for cavalry rooms; 12 of each of the three last articles for infantry rooms; a water bucket, coal-tray, candlestick, tin can for beer, large earthen pan for meat, box or basket for carrying coals; 2 drinking horns; a wooden urinal, broom and mop.

The guard rooms of cavalry and infantry are furnished with a water bucket, candlestick, tin can for beer, drinking horns; also with fire-irons and a coal-tray, from 1st Sept. to 1st May, when they are to be taken into store.

N. B. The rooms of the quarter masters and sergeants of cavalry, and the serjeant-major, and quarter-master serjeant of infantry, to be furnished with the necessary bedding and utensils, in the same manner as is allowed to the soldiers' rooms.

Each stable of cavalry for 8 horses is provided with 2 pitchforks, 2 shovels, 1 lantern, 1 wheel-barrow, 2 water buckets; and allowed 4 brooms per month.

Horse-Furniture, ornaments and embellishments which are adopted by military men when they are mounted for service or parade, consisting chiefly of housings, saddle-cloth, &c. The following distinctions have been abolished.

Field Marshal, General, Lieutenant-General, Major-General, Brigadier-General, Colonel of Infantry, Lt. Colonel of ditto, White furniture, Major of ditto, Aid de camp, White do. trimmed with black bear skin, Brigade Major, med with black. And blue furniture has been adopted, with gold or silver lace, according to the epaulette, and more or less broad according to the rank of the wearer.

Cavalry—cloth trimmed with silver,
or gold. Privates in cavalry regiments—large saddle cloths, the center of which is yellow, with a border to agree with the facings of the regiment. The tenth regiment of light dragoons is an exception to this general custom. The privates of that corps have a large piece of broad blue cloth which is thrown over the saddle, and covers the horse's loins.

As the article of horse furniture is by no means an inconsiderable one, it were to be wished, that the utmost regard could be paid to economy; since whenever the ornamental parts of an officer's dress or accoutrements exceed his finances, discontent, or embarrassment must be the consequence. At the commencement of the late war, his Majesty was graciously pleased to dispense with officers wearing furniture at reviews, because it was judged very properly, that the expense of 14 or 15 guineas for an article which was worn one day in the year, was at such a moment unnecessary.

FUSES, in artillery, according to Capt. George Smith, formerly inspector to the military academy at Woolwich, are chiefly made of very dry beech wood, and sometimes of horn-beam taken near the root. They are turned rough and bored at first, and then kept for several years in a dry place. The diameter of the hole is about ¼ of an inch; the hole does not go quite through, having about ¼ of an inch at the bottom; and the head is made hollow in the form of a bowl.

The composition for fuses is, salt-petre 3, sulphur 1, and mealed powder 3, 4, and sometimes 5. This composition is driven in with an iron driver, whose ends are capped with copper, to prevent the composition from taking fire; and to keep it equally hard; the last shovel-full being all mealed powder, and 2 strands of quick match laid across each other, being driven in with it, the ends of which are folded up into the hollow top, and a cap of parchment tied over it until it be used.

When these fuses are driven into the loaded shell, the lower end is cut off in a slope, so that the composition may influence the powder in the shell. The fuze must be of such a length as to continue burning all the time the shell is in its range, and to set fire to the powder as soon as it touches the ground, which occasions the shell instantly to burst into many pieces.

When the distance of the battery from the object is known, the time of the shell's flight may be computed to a second or two; which being ascertained, the fuze may be cut accordingly, by burning two or three, and making use of a watch, or of a string, by way of a pendulum, to vibrate seconds.

FUSEE, Fr. according to the French acceptation of the word, is applied to various purposes, and belongs to various instruments of destruction which are used in war. The fusée is differently made by different artificers. Some make it consist of one pound of gunpowder, and two or three ounces of charcoal well mixed together; others of four pounds of gun-powder, two of saltpetre, and one of sulphur. It must be generally remarked, that the time a bomb, or grenade will take to burst after it has been thrown out of the mortar, must depend entirely upon the length and quality of the fusée.

FUSÉES À BOMBES, Fr. bomb fuses. The intent and object of these fuses, are to communicate fire to the gun-powder, with which the bomb is filled, in order to force it to burst and separate in broken pieces on any given spot. These fuses are usually made in the shape of a wooden pipe or tap, out of the linden tree, the elder, or any other dry and solid wood, and are afterwards filled with a slow combustible composition. The materials are increased, or diminished, according to the nature of their application. Fuses are sometimes made of copper, and they must not have the least aperture or fissure.

There are fuses for bombs of 12, of 10, and of 8 inches diameter. Fuses for bombs of 12 inches diameter, are 8 inches 4 lines long, being 1 inch 8 lines broad at the thick, and 1 inch 2 lines broad at the thin end; the breadth, or diameter of the light, or aperture is 5 lines. Fuses decrease nearly 1 inch in length and 2 lines in diameter, according to the caliber of the bomb. The diameters of the lights or apertures, only diminish one half line.

The composition for bomb fuses consists of seven parts of priming powder to four of salt-petre, and three of sulphur. These different materials are (each separately) first passed through a silk.
silk sieve; and after they have been well mixed together, the whole mass is thrown into a moderate sized hair sieve, and again passed through.

The fuse is gradually filled with this composition, each proportion being well pressed in, without violence. Iron ramrods, fitted to the bore of the fuse are used for this purpose. Every time the materials are poured in, the ramrod is inserted, and by means of a small mallet, with which it is struck 14 or 15 times, the composition is pressed into a hard consistency.

When fuses have been well loaded, and the materials have previously been properly mixed, they will naturally burn with an equal steady fire, preserving in general an even length of flame, without spitting, or irregularly shaking.

In order to preserve fuses for a length of time, the composition, when thoroughly prepared, must be covered with a mastick or cement made of 2-3ds bees-wax and 1-3d rosin, well mixed together. Bomb fuses prepared in this manner, will burn either in water, or in earth, nearly 70 seconds, without being extinguished.

The usual method of priming fuses, is to grate about one-third of a French inch of composition. Two small matches about 5 or 6 inches long, with the ends bent inwards, are then well fixed with pounded composition to the eye of the fuse, by which last operation it is completely filled and closed. This part is finally covered over with cartridge paper, that is tied, and remains so till there is occasion to use it. Before the fuse is driven into the bomb, the thin or small end must be cut off, in order that the fire may be easily communicated to the mass of gunpowder, which is lodged in the bomb.

Fuses à bombes, à feu-mort, bomb-fuses with dead light. There is a species of bomb-fuse, which is distinguished by the term feu-mort, or dead-light. The difference between these fuses and the ordinary ones consists in this, that the eye, instead of being pierced and hollow, is full, and of a half-spherical shape. In both cases, however, the composition is introduced through the small end.

The composition for fuses, à feu-mort, consists of 16 parts of pounded gunpowder, and 9/4 parts of ashes. The ashes must be baked over again, and run through a silk sieve. Potter's earth, or clay, will produce the same effect as ashes.

In proceeding to charge a bomb-fuse that is made of ordinary wood, the eye, or aperture is first closed with pipe-clay, which is well beaten and pressed against the fuse in a small platter; the thin end of the fuse being held upwards. Three lines (or 3-12ths of a French inch) of this earth, will be sufficient to stop the communication of any fire. A tube, or trundle, filled with pounded gunpowder for the purpose of setting fire to the composition called feu-mort, is thrust into the fuse, by which it is finally charged. If this charge of pounded gunpowder were to be omitted, the fuse might not be susceptible of ignition; but the quantity never ought to exceed 3 lines, as the fuse would split by the explosion.

When the grains of gunpowder have been well pounded, a trundle, or tube filled with the aforementioned composition must be applied, and it is finally loaded like the rest.

It must be recollected, that 2 inches of this composition will last as long as one of the quality with which common fuses are charged. Before the fuse is driven into the bomb, it must be pierced through with a gimlet of one line diameter, taking care, that the hole is made precisely through the charge of pounded gunpowder. One end of a priming match must be forced in, and three others be tied to it, which three are to fall upon the bomb when it lies in the mortar.

The particular object to be obtained from this sort of fuse, is to prevent the least trace of fire or light being visible in its projection; so that the enemy may remain ignorant of the range, or direction of the bomb, and not be able, of course, to get out of the way when it falls, or to avoid the effects of its explosion.

These fuses were made use of at the siege of Ham in 1761. The experiments which were made in 1792, with this composition, by an artister belonging to the ordnance-board at Douay, have proved, that it answers every purpose for which it is invented.

The author of the Manuel de l'Artilleur, from whose treatise these observations are taken, concludes this article by stating, that the advantages to be derived
rived from this invention are not so great as they at first appear.

He remarks, that with respect to the real utility of the fuze à feu mort, if it be considered as tending materially to the defence of any besieged place, the argument cannot be very forcible, when we reflect, that to gain time constitutes one of the principal means of defence, and that the only way to obtain it, is by retarding the besiegers' operations. These ends are gained by various expedients. Among others, the common lighted fuse conduces not a little: since during the whole direction of the bomb against the works of the assailants, the attention of the workmen is diverted from their immediate labour, and as long as it continues in its range, much un easiness is created, because its ultimate explosion, and consequent destruction are unknown.

Add to this, that independent of the confusion which is occasioned among the assailants by repeated projectiles, the bombardier by means of the lighted fuses, is enabled to correct his aim during the darkest night. The same principles must certainly hold good in attack; and from a conviction of their sold utility in both instances, the common fuses have been hitherto adopted, although the kind in question has been known for several years.

Fusées à grenades, Fr. fuses for grenades. These fuses are made of the same quality of wood as those adopted for bombs. Their length is 2 inches 6 lines; their diameter at the head is 10 lines; 7 lines in diameter 1 inch from the head, and 3 lines in diameter to the sight or aperture. The composition of these fuses consists of 5 parts of priming gunpowder, 3 parts of sulphur, and 2 of saltpetre; or 3 parts of priming powder, 2 of saltpetre, and 1 of sulphur.

These fuses must be loaded with the same care and precision as are required in bomb-charges; that is, the thick end of the fuse must be placed downwards, so that it stands upright; the composition must then be introduced by means of a trundle, which the French call lanterne, made for that specific purpose; the composition must, after that, be well pressed in with an iron ramrod, fitted to the bore of the fuse, and gradually forced in by gentle taps with a mallet. Great precaution must be observed during this operation, as too much violence might split the fuse. When the fuse has been half filled, a shorter ramrod must be used, with which the charge is completed. In making bomb-fuses great care must be taken to strike equal blows with the mallet, until you get to the three last, when the strength of each blow must be increased.

Fusées d'obus, Fr. howitzer fuses. These are generally made of the same composition and wood, as serve for bombs, and are loaded in a similar manner. They have the same dimensions when applied to calibres of 8 or 6 inches diameter; that is, they contain 5 inches 4 lines in length; 15 lines diameter at the small end, 3 lines diameter at the thick end; 13 lines diameter 1 inch from the head; the eye, or vent is 10 lines. These fuses do not exceed the vent of an howitzer, so much as bomb fuses do the vent of bombs. They are, in fact, shorter.

Fusées volantes, Fr. sky-rockets. These fuses are made of various dimensions, and serve for signals in time of war. They are sometimes 2 inches and more in diameter. The cartridges with which they are loaded, contain in thickness the sixteenth part, or more of the diameter.

The composition which is used for fuses of this description, consists of 16 parts of saltpetre, 7\frac{1}{4} of charcoal, and 4 of sulphur; or of 16 parts of saltpetre, 6 of charcoal, 4 of sulphur, and 2 of priming gunpowder. The materials must be carefully pounded and well mixed together. Hollow rods of various lengths are used to charge these fuses. They must have cavity enough to admit the stick.

Fuses are tied to long sticks, or rods made of very light wood, such as hazel tree, which must have been cut some time, and be perfectly dry. They must likewise be straight, and contain from 7 to 8 feet in length; the thick end of the rod, in which two notches are made to fix it to the fuse, must be 7 or 8 lines in diameter, and at the small end 3 to 4 lines diameter. When the rod is rather heavy, it takes a more upright direction than when it is light; but it does not
not require so many degrees of elevation.

It must be generally remarked, that as soon as a fuse is fixed to a grenade, which is not intended for immediate use, you must melt some pitch and immerse the head of the fuse, instantly dipping it into cold water, by which precaution the composition will remain unaltered; unless the wood be rotten.

**FUSÉE, FUSIL, or FUZÉE, a light musquet.**

**FUSIL sur épale, Fr. A word of command in the manual exercise. Shoulder arms.**

**FUSILIER quelqu'un, Fr. to shoot any body.**

**FUSILS à l'épée, Fr. fusils with long bayonets, shaped like a cut and thrust sword. These weapons have been proposed by the writer of Mélanges Militaires, as being extremely useful in the rear rank of a battalion, or in detached bodies that are stationed for the defence of baggage, &c.**

Something similar to this invention has been adopted by the dismounted light horse volunteers in London, who have in addition temporary sword-hilts made to fit the sockets of their bayonets.

**FUSILS mousquets, Fr. a sort of fusil which was invented by Marshal Vauban, and which was so contrived, that in case the flask did not strike fire, the powder might be inflamed by means of a small match which was fixed to the breech.**

**FUSILS à chevalets, a species of fusils upon rests, which is recommended by Marshal Vauban, to be used at the commencement of a siege, about 50 or 100 toises in front of the glacis, at the entrances of narrow passes, &c.**

**FUSILEERS in the British service, are soldiers armed like the rest of the infantry, with this difference only, that their musquets are shorter and lighter than those of the battalion and the grenadiers. They wear caps which are somewhat less, in point of height, than common grenadier caps. There are three regiments in the English service; the 7th regiment of foot (or Royal Fusiliers) raised in 1685; the 21st regiment of foot (or Royal N. British Fusiliers) raised in 1678; and the 23d (or Royal Welsh Fusiliers) raised in 1688.**

It is always presumed, that these corps, like the guards, possess an esprit de corps, which is peculiar to themselves.

As the fusilier regiments upon the British establishment are distinguished from other corps by some peculiarities, we shall briefly state what has occurred to us on the subject. In former times the officers of these regiments did not carry spontoons, but had fusils like the officers of flank companies throughout the line. At present they wear swords. It is necessary to remark, that there are not any ensigns in fusilier regiments; their junior officers rank as second-lieutenants, taking precedence of all ensigns, and those of the 7th or Royal Fusiliers, have no second lieutenants; so that they rank with the rest of the army according to the dates of their several commissions, as lieutenants. On account of this difference, the first commission in the fusiliers was, by a regulation issued from the War Office in 1773, rated 50l. higher than that of an ensign; whilst the first commission in the 7th having the pay of lieutenant attached to it, was rated at 550l. that of the other two, having only the pay of ensign annexed, was 450l.

When the estimates of the British army were made out for the year 1755, the extra sum of 164l. 5s. per annum was charged against the 7th regiment. This surplus however was easily explained when it came to be understood, that that regiment being a fusilier corps, had 20 lieutenants, instead of 11 lieutenants and 9 ensigns. The difference between these commissions amounted to 9s. per diem, and the sum total to 164l. 5s. per annum. The 23d, or royal regiment of Welch fusiliers, wear helmets; and all officers belonging to fusilier corps have two epauletts.

**FUSILIERS, Fr. Fusiliers are men armed with fusils or light musquets.**

When pikes were in use among the French, each regiment had only four fusiliers, exclusive of ten grenadiers who carried the fusil or musquet. At present fusils or musquets are universally adopted in the European armies. Among the French there was a distinct regiment of fusiliers, under the immediate command of the grand master of the ordnance. The length of a French fusil
fusil was directed to consist of three French feet eight inches from the touch-hole to the muzzle, and the caliber to have the diameter of a ball taking twenty to the pound.

FUSKIBALAS, a machine used by the ancients in the defence of their walls, to throw stones and darts at the enemy.

FUT, Fr. the stock of a musquet; any piece of wood, upon which portable fire-arms are mounted.

FUYARD, Fr. a run-a-way, a coward.

Un corps fuyard, Fr. a regiment that has been in the habit of running away.

FUZE. See FUSE.

GABION, in fortification, is a kind of basket made of ozier twigs, of a cylindrical form, having different dimensions, according to what purpose it is used for. Some gabions are 5 or 6 feet high, and 3 feet in diameter; these serve in sieges to carry on the approaches under cover, when they come pretty near the fortification. Those used in field-works are 3 or 4 feet high, and 2' or 3 feet diameter. There are also gabions about 1 foot high, 12 inches diameter at top, and from 8 to 10 at bottom, which are placed along the top of the parapet, to cover the troops in firing over it; they are filled with earth. In order to make them, some pickets 3 or 4 feet long, are struck into the ground, in form of a circle, and of a proper diameter, wattled together with small branches, in the manner of common fences. Batteries are often made of gabions. See BATTERY.

GABBONS, stuffed-gabions, in fortification, are made in the same manner as the former: they are only filled with all sorts of branches and small wood, and are 4 or 6 feet long; they serve to roll before the workmen in the trenches, to cover them in front against musket-shot.

GABION forci, Fr. a stuff gabion.

GABIONADE, Fr. a term made use of when a retrenchment is suddenly thrown up and formed of gabions, for the purpose of covering the retreat of troops, who may be obliged to abandon a work, after having defended it to the last extremity. Every parapet that is made of gabions is generally called gabionade.

GABIONNER, Fr. to cover or secure with gabions.

GADARA, a Turkish sabre, with a large blade, somewhat curved.

GAFFLES, the steel lever with which the ancients bent their crossbows.

GAGE, Fr. the gauntlet. The glove that was thrown in defiance at the person one intended to fight, was formerly called gage de combat, or gage de bataille.

GAGES, Fr. wages. Among the French this phrase signified the fruits or compensations which were derived by individuals from appointments given by the crown, whether of a military, civil or judicial nature, or for service done at sea or by land.

GAGNER battaille, Fr. to overcome an enemy by superior skill and courage in manoeuvring.

GAGNER une marche, Fr. to reach some particular point or position before the enemy, by means of a more active and skillful movement.

GAGNER du terrain, Fr. To gain ground by making an enemy give way.

To GAIN, to conquer; to get the better: as they gained the day, &c.

To GAIN ground. See GROUND.

GAIN d'une battaille, Fr. The successful issue of an engagement; the act of conquering an enemy.

GAINE de flamme, Fr. a sort of linen sheath or cover, into which the staff of a flag or pendant is put.

GAINE de pavillon, Fr. a cloth, or linen braid, which is sewed across the flag, and through which the different ribbons are interlaced.

GAINES de girouettes, Fr. bands or pieces of linen, with which the vanes are tied to the staff.

GAITERS, a sort of spatter-dashes, usually made of cloth, and are either long, as reaching to the knee, or short, as
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as only reaching above the ankle; the latter are termed half-gaiters.

Galerie Capitales, Fr. are those galleries which lie under the capitals in works of fortification.

Galerie tranversale, Fr. is a gallery in fortification which cuts the capital in a perpendicular direction.

Galerie nucléaire ou de première enveloppe, Fr. a gallery which runs under the whole extent of the covert-way, and is frequently carried close to the counterscarp, in order to afford a circulation of air.

Galerie d'enveloppe, Fr. a gallery which is constructed at the extremity of the glacis, and is commonly made parallel to the magistral or principal line of fortification. The enveloppe is the chief gallery in a fortress, or garrison town, and serves as a path of communication or covered way to all the rest. It is of the utmost consequence to the besieged to secure this gallery from every approach of the enemy; and if any impression should be made, so repair the injury without delay. From this gallery the garrison always direct their attacks, whenever it is necessary to keep the assailants out of the covert-way.

Galerie d'écoule, Fr. a gallery in front of the enveloppe. Écouler, which signifies to listen, sufficiently explains the purpose for which these galleries were erected.

Petites Galeries, ou ramées, Fr. small galleries, branches, or arraignées, in fortification, which issue from the countermine, and at the extremities of which the furnace or chamber for the lodgment of gunpowder is constructed. There is not any established or fixed rule to direct the height to which small galleries, branches, or arraignées ought to be carried; in general they should have the least possible elevation.

When galleries are built of masonwork, their height is from five to six feet, their breadth from three to four, and sometimes only three.

Galeries de mines, Fr. galleries in mining differ from counter-mines, in as much as that they are supported by coffers resting upon frames, which are covered with earth three feet in depth; that is, two feet and a half from one frame to another. These galleries are usually built three feet and a half high, and two and a half broad; and whenever there is a necessity to work in the raméau or arraignée, the galleries in that case are reduced to smaller proportions.

Galerie magistrale, Fr. in mining, signifies any covered avenue or gallery, which is parallel to the magistral or principal line of the place, and exists under the whole or part of the front of the fortifications. This gallery is usually as thick as the enemy's mason work against which the countermine is directed. By means of this work the besieged generally endeavour to interrupt every attempt which the besiegers may make in the passage of the fossé or ditch.

Galerie à passer un fossé, Fr. a gallery constructed for the purpose of crossing a ditch. It is a small passage made of timber-work, having its beams or supporters driven into the bottom of the ditch, and being covered at the top with boards that are again covered with earth, sufficiently strong to bear the miner, and to withstand the effects of artificial fire, or the weight of stones which the enemy might direct against them. This sort of gallery is sometimes called the traverse or cross-way.

These galleries have been out of use for some years. The miner gets at the body of the place which is attacked, either through a subterraneous gallery that is practised under the ditch, when the nature of the ground will permit the attempt, or under cover of the épangement, which covers the passage of the ditch. When the ditch is full of water, and the miner has made considerable progress in it, he instantly makes the best of his way to the breach, either by swimming, or by supporting his body on a raft of timber; as soon as he has reached the spot, he works into the earth among the ruins of the wall, and completes the object of the enterprise.

Galeries de communication, Fr. are subterraneous galleries, by means of which the garrison of a besieged town or place may, without being perceived by the enemy, communicate from the body of the place, or from the counterscarp, with the different outworks.

Galeries souterraines des anciens, Fr. Subterraneous galleries as originally invented by the ancients. The author
of the Dictionnaire Militaire in his last edition of that work enters upon the explanation of these galleries, by the following curious assertion:

I must, he observes, in this place, assert with the Chevalier Folard, that it would be absurd to deny the superiority which the ancients possessed over us in the essential knowledge and requires of war, and that they pushed the different branches of that science to as high a pitch of perfection as it was possible to raise it.

"The only inventions which the moderns can boast of, are those of firearms, mines and furnaces. But then on the other hand, we stand indebted to them for our lines of circumvallation and of contravallation, our approaches or trenches, which are effected from a camp to its different batteries, together with the construction of those batteries; our parallel entrenchments or places of arms, the descent into or the filling up of the ditch, our covered saps in mining, and our open galleries; we owe to them in fact, the original art of throwing up works, and of creating obstacles, by which we are enabled to secure ourselves, or by various stratagems to annoy our enemies. The ancients were indeed superior to us, in the means of defence.

"The origin of subterraneous galleries or passages in mining, is totally unknown to us; a circumstance which proves their antiquity. We read in the History of Josephus, that the Jews frequently made use of them; so that neither the Greeks nor the Romans, who in many instances arrogate to themselves the exclusive glory of invention, were the authors of this discovery.

"The method which was pursued by the ancients in their passages of mines, resembled the one that is invariably followed by the moderns. But the latter possess a considerate advantage over the former in this sort of attack and defence, which advantage consists wholly in the invention of gunpowder.

"The ancients, it is well known, could only undermine in one way; namely under the terraces or cavaliers, or under the towers and battering trabendo-machines (tortues bellières,) and in order to do any execution, they were obliged, in the first place, to construct a spacious high subterraneous chamber to carry away and raise the earth, to support the remainder by powerful props, and afterwards to fill the several chambers with dry wood and other combustible materials, which were set fire to, in order to reduce them, the towers and various machines that were placed above, into one common heap of ruins. But this attempt did not always succeed; for owing to the magnitude of the undertaking and the time it required, the enemy might either trace the miners, cut off their communication with the main body of the place, or get into the chambers before they could be finished, or be properly prepared for inflammation.

"The ancients constructed their galleries on a larger scale than we adopt. They were wider, but less elevated; whereas those that we use require less trouble; our chamber mines being more contracted, and having an advantage of access by means of the different branches. One or two small chambers are sufficient with us to blow up the whole face of a bastion. But the ancients only sapped in proportion to the extent of wall which they were determined to demolish. This was a tedious operation; for when the besieger had reached the foot of the wall, it became necessary to run a gallery along the whole extent of what he proposed to demolish. Subsequent to this, he had to operate upon the entire front, during which the besieged found time and opportunities to open subterraneous passages, and to discover those which the assailants were practising against them. In the latter, indeed, they seldom failed.

"The ancients were extremely partial to subterraneous galleries. By means of these secret passages they took I defne and Veie; and Darius, king of Persia, by the same method took Caledon. That species of gallery which is run out under the soil of an encampment, and pushed forward into the very body of a town, has been known from time immemorial. The Gauls were likewise very expert in their management of subterraneous galleries. Caesar mentions the use of them in five or six places of his Commentaries.

**GALERIE DE POURTOUR**, Fr. in architecture.
ture, a sort of gallerie which is raised either in the inside, or on the outside, and surrounds the whole or part of a building.

Galea, a low built vessel for the Galiot, conveyance of troops and stores, having both sails and oars.

Galion, Fr. a name which was formerly given to French ships of war that had three or four decks. The term, however, is in disuse, except among the Spaniards, who call vessels galions, that sail to Santa Marguerita, to Terra Firma, Carthagena, Porto-Bello, &c.

Galiote a bombes, Fr. a bomb-ketch. A vessel built of very strong timber, with flat ribs and half decks. It is used for the carriage of mortars, that are placed upon a false deck which is made in the hold. Chevalier Renau first invented this species of naval battery, and submitted it to the French government. The Duke of Algiers having declared war against France, this ingenious man naturally imagined, that the most effectual method which could be adopted to strike terror into the barbarians, would be to bombard their capital, and this, he knew, could not be done, except from the decks of ships. His proposal was at first treated with extreme neglect, and was considered, in full council, as the project of a visionary madman.

This disheartening circumstance, however, (which, as Monsieur De Belidor has very justly remarked, almost always attends original plans and inventions) did not check the warm mind of Chevalier Renau. His known abilities had secured some powerful partisans in his favour, and the French government at last consented, that he should construct two galiotes a bombes at Dunkirk, and three at Havre de Grace. Having completed them, he sailed for Algiers; and after having braved the most tempestuous weather, got before the place with five vessels of that description. The town was bombarded during the whole of the night; and so great was the consternation of the inhabitants, that they rushed out of the gates, to avoid the dreadful effects of so unexpected an attack. The Algerines immediately sued for peace, and as M. De Fontenelle has shrewdly remarked, the Chevalier Be-
nau returned to France with his galiotes a bombes, having obtained a complete triumph, not only over the Algerines, but over the petty cavilers against his invention.

Orders were instantly issued to construct others after the same model, and the king gave directions, that a new corps of artillery officers should be formed, for the specific purpose of doing duty on board the galiotes or bomb-ketches.

Gallery, a passage of communication to that part of a mine where the powder is lodged. See Galerie.

Gallet, Fr. See Jalt.

Gallivats are large row-boats, used in India. They are built like the galiote, but of smaller dimensions, the largest rarely exceeding 70 tons; they have two masts, of which the mizen is very slight; the main-mast bears only one sail, which is triangular and very large, the peak of it, when hoisted, being much higher than the mast itself. In general the gallivats are covered with a spar deck, made for lightness of bamboo split, and these carry only petteraires, which are fixed on swivels in the gunnel of the vessel; but those of the largest size have a fixed deck, on which they mount six or eight pieces of cannon, from two to four pounders; they have forty or fifty stout oars, and may be rowed four miles an hour. See History of Indostan, vol. i. p. 408, 409.

Gallooglasses, Fr. A corps of Irish cavalry, so called under the French monarchy.

Galloper, a piece of ordnance of small caliber.

Gamache, Fr. See Gaiters.

Gambeson, Fr. a term which the French formerly applied to a coat of mail that was worn under the cuirass. It was likewise called cotte gamboise. It was made of two strong cloths interwoven with pointed worsted.

Gambling. Every species of chance play, such as hazard, &c. is strictly forbidden in the British army. The non-commissioned officers and private soldiers are severely punished when found guilty of this mischievous practice; and in some services the officers are treated with equal severity.

Gambée, Fr. See Gambeson.

Game. Officers or soldiers killing game without leave of the lord of the manor,
GAMELLE, Fr. a wooden or earthen bowl used among the French soldiers for their messes. It generally contained the quantity of food which was allotted for three, five, or seven men belonging to the same room. The porridge-pots for the nary were made of wood, and held a certain allowance. During the monarchy of France, subaltern officers and volunteers were frequently punished for slight offences by being sent to the gamelle, and excluded their regular mess, and put upon short allowance, according to the nature of their transgression.

GANGES, a considerable river of India in Asia. It rises in the mountains which border on Little Thibet, in 82 degrees of east longitude, and 32 degrees, 45 minutes of north latitude. According to the ingenious author of the History of Judostan, it disembogues itself into that country through a pass called the strait of Kupele, which are distant from Delhi, about 30 leagues, in the longitude of 96, and in the latitude of 30° 2'. These straights are believed by the Indians, who look very little abroad, to be the sources of the Ganges; and a rock 15 miles distant from them, bearing some resemblance to the head of a cow, has joined in the same part of the kingdom, two very important objects of their religion; the grand image of the animal which they almost venerate as a divinity, and the first appearance of that immense body of holy water, which is to wash away all their sins.

GANTLET, in ancient military, history, a large kind of glove, made of iron, and the fingers covered with small plates: it was formerly worn by cavaliers, or single knights of war, when armed at all points, but is now in disuse.

GANTLET or gantelope, denotes a kind of military punishment, in which the criminal running between the ranks receives a lash from each man. See Run the Gantlet.

GAOLER or JAILER, (Géolier, Fr.) The keeper of a prison.

Gaolers are obliged by act of parliament to receive the subsistence of deserters while in custody, but they are not entitled to any fees. They are likewise directed to receive into their custody deserters on their route to their regiments. In default whereof they are subject to a penalty of 20 shillings.

GAP. See BreaCH.

GAR, the general term used by the Saxons, for a weapon of war.

GARCON-Major, Fr. an officer so called in the old French service. He was selected from among the lieutenants of a regiment, to assist the aid-majors in the general detail of duty.

GARDE d'une Place, Fr. the garrison of a place. See Garrison.

GARDE de l'armée, Fr. the grand guard of an army. Guards in the old French service were usually divided into three sorts: Guard of Honour, Fatigue Guard, and the General's Guard. That was called a guard of honour in which the officers and men were most exposed to danger; for the quintessence of military honour is to be often in peril, and either to fall courageously in the discharge of duty, or to return from the field after having exhibited proofs of valour, prudence, and perseverance. A fatigue guard belonged to a garrison or to a camp. A general's guard was mounted before the door or gate of the house in which the commanding officer resided. For a more specific account of guards in general, See Guard.

GARDES du corps, Fr. the body guards. Under the old government of France they consisted of a certain number of gentlemen or cavaliers whose immediate duty was to attend the King's person. They were divided into four companies, under as many captains, whose tour of duty came every quarter. They took rank above the Gens-d'armes and the King's light cavalry.

The first and most ancient of the four companies was called the Scotch company.

In 1423 Charles VII. established this body of gentlemen or cavaliers, for the purpose of shewing the great confidence which he placed in the Scots; who were not a little indebted for this mark of distinction to the service which their countryman Lord Buchan, eldest son to the Duke of Albany, rendered the French in 1421 at the battle of Banjé en Anjou, where the English army was completely routed. In order to preserve the remembrance of their behaviour, and in token of their gratitude to the Scotch
nation, the French King gave orders that whenever the roll-call took place in the Scotch company, each individual, instead of answering Me voila! should say I am here! or here!

Garde du Général, Fr. a general's guard.

Gardes-feur, Fr. wooden cases or boxes used to hold cartridges.

Gardes-fous, Fr. the rails of a bridge.

Garde du consulat, Fr. the consular guard. The only guard of honour which at present exists in France.

Gardes Francoises, Fr. the French Guards—In 1563 Charles IX. King of the French, raised a regiment for the immediate protection of the palace. The colonel of the gardes Francoises was on duty throughout the year, and was entitled to the baton de commandement in common with the four captains of the body guards. Peculiar privileges were attached to every officer belonging to this body. No stranger, not even a native of Strasburgh, Savoy, Alsace, or Piedmont, could hold a commission in the French guards. The age at which men were enlisted was above 18 and under 50 years. The height 5 French feet 4 inches and upwards. The sergeants were strictly forbidden to exercise any trade or business, and many of them got the Croix de St. Louis.

In the revolution of 1789 the French guards took a very active and leading part. Their attachment to the new order of things, however, eventually got the better of the loyalty they owed their sovereign. Nor is it a matter of doubt at this period by what means they were seduced from their allegiance; it being established as a well known fact, that no small proportion of the late duke of Orleans's wealth went towards corrupting them.

Gardes-magazins, Fr. In the old French service there were two sorts of magazine guards—one for the military stores, and the other for the artillery. The first was subject to the grand master, and the second was appointed by the secretary at war.

Garde-général d'artillerie, Fr. A king's officer was so called under the old government of France, who had charge of all the ordnance and stores belonging to his majesty for the land service. He gave receipts for all ammunition, &c. and his bills were paid by the treasurer general of the artillery.

Gardes provinciaux, Fr. Provincial guards, were persons appointed to superintend, take charge of, and be responsible for the artillery belonging to Paris, Metz, Chalons, Lyons, Amiens, Narbonne, and Calais.

Gardes particuliers des magazins d'artillerie, Fr. Officers appointed by the grand master of the ordnance for the specific purpose of attending to the ammunition, &c. Their pay was in proportion to the quantity of stores with which they were entrusted. They enjoyed some particular privileges, and were lodged at the expense of government.

Garde magasin d'un arsenal de marine, Fr. An officer in France appointed to take charge and to keep a register of all warlike stores, &c. for the service of the Navy.

Gardes de la porte, Fr. A company so called during the monarchy of France, and of so ancient a date, indeed, with respect to original institution, that it appears to have been coeval with it. Mention is made of the gardes de la porte in the oldest archives or records belonging to the king's household, in which service they were employed, without being responsible to any particular treasurer as other companies were.

This company consisted of one captain, four lieutenants, and fifty guards. The captain and officers received their commissions from the king. The first took an oath of fidelity to the king in person, and received the baton from his hands. The duty he did was purely discretionary, and depended upon his own will. The lieutenants served by detachment, and took their tour of duty every quarter. Their specific service consisted in guarding the principal gate belonging to the king's apartments. Their guard-house was within the palace, which they occupied from six o'clock in the morning until six in the evening; when they were relieved by the body guards. They delivered the keys to a brigadier belonging to the Scotch garrison.

Gardes Suisses, Fr. The Swiss guards. This body originally consisted of a certain number of companies which
were taken into the French service in consequence of the close alliance that subsisted between the Swiss Cantons and France; but they were not distinguished from other troops by the appellation of guards, until a considerable period had elapsed from their first establishment. The zeal, fidelity, and attachment, which they uniformly evinced whenever they were entrusted with this distinguished part of the service, induced the crown in 1616 to bestow upon them this additional name.

The regiment was composed of twelve companies of two hundred effectives each. Some consisted of half companies complete in men. They were commanded by the three following officers, subordinate to each other, and created in 1689, viz. One colonel general of the nation, one particular colonel of the regiment, and one lieutenant-colonel. The Swiss guards received double the pay which was given to the French guards. It is somewhat remarkable, that one hundred and three years after the regular establishment of the regiment under the three mentioned field officers, this brave body of men should have fallen victims to their attachment to the monarchy of France. On the 10th of August, 1792, they withstood the Parisian populace, aided by a desperate set of men from Marseilles, and defended the palace in the Louvre until almost every man was killed. During the resistance which the Swiss guards made, Louis the XVth, with his family escaped, and took shelter in the national assembly.

**Gardes (cent) Suisses du corps du Roi**, Fr. One hundred Swiss guards immediately attached to the king's person. They were a select body of men who took an oath of fidelity to the king, and were formed into a regular troop. Louis XIV. during several sieges which be personally attended, gave directions, that the head of the trench should be guarded by a detachment of this troop; so that the hundred Swiss guards might properly be ranked as military men, although their officers did not wear any uniform, and in the last periods of the monarchy of France, the principal duties of the hundred Swiss guards consisted in domestic and menial attendance.

**Garde qui monte**, Fr. The new guard.

**Garde qui descend**, Fr. The old guard.

**Gardes ordinaires des lignes**, Fr. ordinary guards.

**Garde de la tranche**, Fr. Guard for the trenches. Among the French, this guard usually consisted of four or six battalions. It was entrusted to three general officers, viz. one lieutenant-general on the right, one major-general on the left, and one brigadier-general in the center. All general officers, when on duty for the day in the trenches, remained the succeeding night, and never left them until they were regularly relieved by others of their own rank.

When it came to the tour of any particular battalion to mount the trench guard, it was the duty of the major of that battalion to examine the ground on which it was to be drawn up, to look at the piquets, and to see where the grenadiers were posted, in order to go through the relief with accuracy and expedition.

The battalion was drawn up in front of the camp; the grenadiers being stationed on the right, next to them the piquet, and on its left flank the body of the battalion. The latter was divided into different piquets, and formed in order of battle. So that instead of the several companies being posted together, the men were drafted out, and distributed in such a manner, that the whole battalion was separated into troops or companies, each consisting of forty-eight men, promiscuously thrown together.

The advantage which was derived from this disposition of the battalion, and from its having been previously told off according to each company's roster, is manifest; for when a second or third battalion piquet was wanted in the trenches, the different detachments were already formed without going into the small detail of companies. The officers in conformity to their roster were ordered to march, and the piquet moved out without a moment's delay.

Add to this, that whenever it was found necessary to make a sortie, the loss of men did not fall upon one company, but was divided among the whole battalion.

A general rendezvous or parade was fixed for all the regiments who were
do duty in the trenches; they assembled in that quarter, and were drawn up in line, with all the grenadiers on the right, and the whole of the piquets upon the same alignment. At the hour appointed the latter began to file off, and each regiment followed according to its seniority. The lieutenant-general whose tour of command was in the trenches, placed himself at the head of those troops who were to attack from the right; the major-general at the head of those belonging to the left, and the brigadier-general took the center; the oldest regiment headed the right, the next in seniority stood in front of the left, and the third preceded the center.

As soon as the troops reached the tail of the trench, the men marched by Indian files, or rank entire, and each one took his post. Sentries were stationed, and the necessary detachments were made. The colours were planted upon the parapet of the trench. At night the adjutants of corps went to head quarters, to receive instructions relative to the projected attack, and got the parole and countersign from the general. The senior adjutant communicated his orders to the rest, who conveyed the same, first to their several colonels, and afterwards to the serjeants of each regiment.

When on duty in the trenches, soldiers must not, on any account, quit their fire-arms; and the instant the least noise is heard, it is their duty to throw themselves upon the back of the trench, and there remain till the order is given to march. When an attack is directed to be made, the execution of it is always entrusted to the grenadiers. These are supported by the different piquets, and the main body of the corps follow with the colours.

When the chamade was beat by the besieged, with a view to capitulate, it was a rule among the French, that the battalions which were posted in the trenches, might refuse to be relieved, and could remain at their station until the garrison marched out. When the capitulation was signed, it fell to the oldest regiment belonging to the besieging army to take possession of the gate that was delivered up, and that corps remained in the town until a governor was named, and a regular garrison appointed.

**Garde du camp, Fr. See Quarter-Guard.**

**Garde avancée, ou Garde folle, Fr.** a small body of cavalry, consisting of 15 or 20 horsemen, under the command of a lieutenant, whose station is beyond, but still in sight of the main guard. The particular duty of those men is to watch the motions of the enemy, for the greater security of the camp.

During the famous crusade to the Holy Land, the Christians having taken the town of Damietta, and finding it impossible to make farther progress, on account of the overflowings of the river Nile, effected a passage over, but neglected to retrench themselves according to the custom of those days. The consequence was, that the Arabs insulted them in their camp, and frequently murdered their sentries at their very tents. In order to prevent these incursions, advanced guards of the description just mentioned were resorted to. Vedettes were posted round the camp, and from hence most probably was derived their origin.

Many methods have been proposed by the military writers of all ages to secure advanced guards from surprise. Frocheta advises fires to be lighted during the night in one quarter, while the rendezvous and station of the guard are in another. His reason is this: if the enemy should approach the quarter which is lighted up, the soldiers belonging to the advanced guard, may readily discover him, without being themselves exposed to a direct attack. Onosander is of the same way of thinking. Silence on these occasions is indispensably requisite. Xenophon, on the other hand, has proposed, that the station should be often changed, and that the guard should consist of different numbers. His object is to form a considerable ambuscade in front of the spot where the guard has been usually posted, so that when the enemy approaches towards it, he may be suddenly surprised by a larger body of men than he expected, and instead of carrying off the ordinary guard, be himself taken prisoner.

**Garde du pont, Fr.** Guard for the security of a bridge. The same author (Frochetta) proposes, that one or two sentries be posted at each end of the bridge, if it be of any length. His motive
tive is to prevent too heavy loads from being conveyed upon it, and to check bodies of cavalry who might be disposed to gallop or trot across it. If the bridge be constructed upon barges or boats, there must always be a certain number of wooden scoops to drain off the water as it rises, or gets through small apertures upon the surface. The commanding officer of the guard must order frequent rounds to be made, both night and day, lest the enemy should send divers to get under the boats and pierce their bottoms.

Foresti, the historian, relates, that the Emperor Henry III. having ordered several barges to be constructed and stationed in the Danube for the purpose of storming Posone, his project was defeated by the bold and desperate act of an individual. One Zornonde, a Hungarian, having provided himself with a wimble, swam under the surface of the water, and got beneath the boats, which he bored in several places, without the least suspicion or knowledge of the mariners. The boats gradually filled, and were finally sunk, which circumstance obliged the emperor to raise the siege.

Garde des travailleurs, Fr. A particular guard which is kept among the workmen and artificers during a siege. In France they had a particular roster among themselves; beginning from the eldest downwards, as well among the officers as among the men.

Garde relevée, Fr. The guard that is relieved, commonly called the old guard.

Gardes de la marine, Fr. During the existence of the old French government several young gentlemen received brevet commissions from the king, and were permitted to serve on board ships of war. They were distributed among the fleet, and when they had acquired a knowledge of their profession, were promoted to the rank of officers. Their duty was near the admiral, when he commanded in person; and during his absence they were placed on board the different vessels, in order to assist the several officers, particularly in the discharge of their functions at the batteries.

Gardes costes, Fr. From the Spanish guarda costa, signifying ships of war that cruize along the coast to protect merchantmen, and to prevent the depredations of pirates.

Gardes côtes (capitaineries), Fr. The maritime divisions, into which France was formerly divided, were so called.

Each division was under the immediate superintendence of a captain, named capitaine gardes-côtes, who was assisted by a lieutenant and an ensign. Their duty was to watch the coast, and to attend minutely to every thing that might affect the safety of the division they had in charge.

There were thirty-seven capitaineries gardes côtes in Normandy, four in Poitou, two in Guyenne, two in Languedoc, and six in French Flanders, Picardy, Boulogne, Calais, &c.

The establishment of sea-fencibles in Great Britain, which took place during the late war, most probably owes its origin to the gardes côtes.

Garde (grande), according to the French corps of cavalry, consisting of several troops that are detached in front of a camp, in order to keep the enemy in check while the army is preparing for battle.

Garde de Piquet, Fr. Piquet-guard. It is a guard of fatigue, like all others that are mounted in rotation.

Garde d'honneur, Fr. A guard given in time of war, to general officers and commanders in chief.

Gardes de la Manche, Fr. Two men belonging to the first company of the King of France's body guards, who, upon certain occasions, stood on each side of his Majesty, dressed in a hoqueton, and armed with a partuisane.

Garde de Pourtour, Fr. A guard or detachment which goes the rounds. It is more properly called Garde des Rondes.

Gardes-blancs, Fr. A militia composed of the tallest and best made men that could be selected from the legions, during the time of the Roman Emperors.

Gardes-du-corps, Fr. Horse-men who composed the body-guard of the French Kings, and who took rank of all the gendarmes or light-horse of his Majesty's household. They were first created in 1423, under Charles VII. At first there was but one company, which was entirely composed of Scotchmen. The gardes du corps were under the immediate command of the king and of their
their own officers. The life-guards in England are of the same description.

Garde du Pavillon Amiral, Fr. A company of gentlemen who, both at sea and in the sea-ports, were attached to the person of the high admiral of France. These are not to be confounded with the gardes de la marine, who are also a company of Gentlemen.

Gardes de la prêtrée de l'Hotel du Roi, Fr. Troops which formerly belonged to the king's household. This company was created under Philip III. in 1271, and Charles VI. was pleased to distinguish it by the title of prevot de l'hôtel du Roi, in 1421.

Gardes de fatigue, Fr. See Dé- tachements non armés.

Garde d'épée, Fr. Sword-hilt, or guard.

Garde, Fr. Watch, guard, protection.

Corps de Garde du guet, Fr. Watch-house or rendezvous for the street patro- lroles.

Garde bois, Fr. a forest-keeper.

Garde du corps, Fr. life-guard.

Garde chasse, Fr. a game-keeper.

Garde pluie, Fr. literally means a fence, or cover against rain. This machine was originally invented by a Frenchman, who left his native country to avoid persecution or unmerited neglect, and submitted it to the Prussians, who adopted it for the use of their infantry. Other armies, however, either seem ignorant of the invention, or do not think it worthy of imitation. Be- lair, the author of Elements de Fortifica- tion, in his military dictionary, (which forms a small part of that interesting work), observes, that "these machines might be rendered extremely useful in the defence of fortresses, outposts, redoubts, or retrenchments. Under the cover of them, the besieged, or the troops stationed in the posts attacked, would be able to keep up a brisk and effectual discharge of musketry during the heaviest fall of rain, and thereby silence, or considerably damp the fire of the enemy. The garde pluie is capable of being much improved. Light corps ought to be particularly anxious for its adoption, as the service on which they are generally employed, exposes their arms to every change of weather; and by means of this cover, both them- selves and their rifles, or musquets, would be secured against rain."

Attaquer la Garde, Fr. to make an attempt on the guard.

Une forte Garde, Fr. a strong guard.

Un piquet de Garde, Fr. a piquet guard.

La Garde à pied, Fr. the foot guards.

La Garde à cheval, Fr. the horse guards.

La Garde Ecossoise, Fr. the Scotch guards.

La Garde Irlandoise, Fr. the Irish guards.

Faire monter la Garde, Fr. to set the guard.

Etre de Garde, Fr. to be upon guard.

Monter la Garde, Fr. to mount guard.

Descendre la Garde, Fr. to come off guard.

Récuser ou changer la Garde, Fr. to relieve guard.

La Garde montante, Fr. the guard that mounts, or the new guard.

La Garde descendante, Fr. the guard that comes off, or the old guard.

Garde à vous, Fr. A cautionary phrase used in the French service. We formerly adopted the term, take care, or have a care—at present we use the word attention, which is usually pro- nounced 'tention.

Gardens, in our ancient military history, were of two different kinds, viz.

Artillery-Gardens, about the year 1650, was a place of resort in London, where vast numbers of young people practised every kind of artillery exercise, insomuch, that it was famous through the whole world, and universally stiled the great nursery, or academy of mili- tary discipline. See Artillery Com- pany.

Military-Gardens was likewise fa- mous, about the year 1650, in the city of London, for the great improvement of numbers of our nobility and other gen- tlemen of fashion, in every kind of mili- tary exercise. The captains in chief of those academies or gardens were major- general Skippon, and major Tillyer.

Gardiennerie, Fr. The gunners' rooms.

Gares, Fr. creeks made in narrow rivers, to facilitate the passage of boats.

Gargouillis, Fr. the powder with which cannon is charged.

Gargoussé,
GARGOUSSE, Fr. a cartouch, a cartridge.
GARGOUSSIERE, Fr. a pouch for cartridges.

GARLAND, a sort of chaplet made of flowers, feathers, and sometimes of precious stones, worn on the head in the manner of a crown. The word is formed of the French guirlande, and that of the barbarous Latin Garlanda, or Italian Ghirlanda. Both in ancient and modern times it has been customary to present garlands of flowers to warriors who have distinguished themselves. Among the French the practice is still familiar. A beautiful young woman is generally selected for the purpose.

GARNIR d’artillerie, Fr. to line with artillerie. Un rampart garni de grosse artillerie, a rampart covered or lined with heavy ordnance.
Garnir, Fr. to seize.

GARNISH - nails, diamond-headed nails, formerly used as ornaments to artillery carriages.

GARNISON, Fr. See Garrison.

GARNITURE. See Equipage, &c.
GARNITURE DES JANISSAIRES, Fr. The Elite or flower of the Janissaries of Constantinople is frequently sent into garrison on the frontiers of Turkey, or to places where the loyalty of the inhabitants is doubted. The Janissaries do not indeed assist in the immediate defence of a besieged town or fortress, but they watch the motions of all suspected persons, and are subject to the orders of their officers, who usually command the garrison.

GARRISON, a body of forces, disposed in a fortress or fortified town, to defend it against the enemy, or to keep the inhabitants in subjection; or even to be subsisted during the winter season: hence garrison and winter-quarters are sometimes used indiscriminately for the same thing; while at others they denote different things. In the latter case, a garrison is a place wherein forces are maintained to secure it, and where they keep regular guards, as a frontier town, a citadel, castle, tower, &c. The garrison should always be stronger than the townsman.

Winter-quarters, places where a number of forces are laid up in the winter season, without keeping the regular guards. See Winter-quarters.

GARRISON-town, a strong place in which troops are quartered, and do duty, for the security thereof, keeping strong guards at each port, and a main-guard in, or near the market-place.

GARROT, Fr. an old word which signified the shooting of an arrow.

Order of the Garter, a military order of knighthood, the most noble and ancient of any lay-order in the world, instituted by King Edward III. This famous order consists of 26 knights companions, generally princes and peers, whereof the king of England is the sovereign or chief. They are a college or corporation, having a great and little seal.

Their officers are a prelate, chancellor, register, king at arms, and usher of the black rod. They have also a dean and 12 canons, and petty canons, vergers, and 26 pensioners, or poor knights. The prelate is the head. This office is vested in the bishop of Winchester, and has ever been so. Next to the prelate is the chancellor; which office is vested in the bishop of Salisbury, who keeps the seals, &c. The next is the register, who by his oath is to enter upon the registry, the scrutinies, elections, penalties, and other acts of the order, with fidelity. The fourth officer is Garter, and king at arms, being two distinct offices united in one person. Garter carries the rod and sceptre at the feast of St. George, the protector of this order, when the sovereign is present. He notifies the election of new knights, attends the solemnity of their installation, carries the garter to the foreign princes, &c. He is the principal officer within the college of arms, and chief of the heralds.

All these officers, except the prelate, have fees and pensions. The college of the order is in the castle of Windsor, with the chapel of St. George, and the chapter-house, erected by the founder for that purpose. The habit and ensign of the order are, a garter, mantle, cap, George and collar. The 8 first were assigned the knights companions by the founders; and the George and collar by King Henry VIII. The garter challenges pre-eminence over all other parts of the dress, because from it the noble order is denominated; that it is the first part of the habit presented to foreign princes, and
and absent knights, who, together with all other knights elect, are therewith first adorned; and it is of such honour and grandeur, that by the bare investiture with this noble ensign, the knights are esteemed companions of the greatest military order in the world. It is worn on the left leg, between the knee and calf, and is enamelled with this motto, Honi soit qui mal y pense; that is, "Evil be to him who evil thinks." The meaning of which is, that king Edward having laid claim to the kingdom of France, retorted shame and defiance upon him that should dare to think amiss of the just enterprise he had undertaken, for recovering his lawful right to that crown; and that the bravery of those knights whom he had elected into this order, was such as would enable him to maintain the quarrel against those that thought ill of it.

The mantle is the chief of those vestments that are used upon all solemn occasions. The colour of the mantle is by the statutes directed to be blue. The length of the train of the mantle, only, distinguishes the sovereign from the knights companions. To the collar of the mantle is fixed a pair of long strings, anciently wove with blue silk only, but now twisted round, and made of Venice gold and silk, of the colour of the robe, with buttons and tassels at the end. The left shoulder of the mantle is adorned with a large garter and device Honi soit, &c. Within this is the cross of the order, which was ordained, by king Charles I. to be worn at all times. At length the star was introduced, being a sort of cross, irradiated with beams of silver.

The collar is composed of pieces of gold in the shape of garters, the ground enamelled blue, and the motto gold.

The garter is of blue velvet bordered with fine gold wire, having commonly the letters of the motto of the same: it is, at the time of installation, buckled upon the left leg, by two of the senior companions, who receive it from the sovereign, to whom it is presented upon a velvet cushion by Garter king at arms, with the usual reverence, whilst the chancellor reads the following admonition, enjoined by the statutes—

"To the honour of God omnipotent, and in memorial of the blessed martyr St. George, tie about thy leg, for thy renown, this noble garter; wear it as the symbol of the most illustrious order, never to be forgotten or laid aside; that thereby thou mayest be admonished to be courageous, and having undertaken a just war, in which thou shalt be engaged, thou mayest stand firm, valiantly fight, and successfully conquer."

The princely garter being thus buckled on, and the words of its signification pronounced, the knight elect is brought before the sovereign, who puts about his neck kneeling, a sky-coloured ribbon, whereon is appendant, wrought in gold within the garter, the image of St. George on horseback, with his sword drawn, encountering the dragon. In the mean time the chancellor reads the following admonition: "Wear this ribbon about thy neck, adorned with the image of the blessed martyr and soldier of Christ, St. George, by whose imitation provoked, thou mayest so overpass both prosperous and adverse adventures, that having stoutly vanquished thy enemies both of body and soul, thou mayest not only receive the praise of this transient combat, but be crowned with the palm of eternal victory."

Then the knight elect kisses his sovereign's hand, thanks his majesty for the great honour done him, rises up, and salutes all his companions severally, who return their congratulations.

Since the institution of this order, there have been several emperors and kings, besides numerous sovereign princes, enrolled as companions thereof. Its origin is somewhat differently related. The common account is, that it was erected in honour of a garter of the countess of Salisbury which she dropped dancing with king Edward, and which that prince picked up; but our best antiquarians think it was instituted on account of the victory over the French at Cressy, where the king ordered his garter to be displayed as a signal of the battle.

**GASCONADE, a boast or vaunt of something very improbable.** The term is originally derived from the Gascons, or people of Gascony in France, who, it seems, have been particularly distinguished for extravagant stories.

**GASCONNERY, Fr. to gasconade, to repeat extravagant wild stories.**

Thus
Thus one of the French generals may be said to have gasconaded, when he officially announced to the Convention of France, that after a severe and bloody engagement against the Austrians, the whole amount of the loss in the French army, was a grenadier's little finger!!!

GASTADOIRS, Fr. pioneers; foot soldiers so called, because they dug up, destroyed, and cut down all that opposed the progress of an army.

GATE, in a military sense, is made of strong planks with iron bars to oppose an enemy. Gates are generally fixed in the middle of the curtain, from whence they are seen and defended by the two flanks of the bastions. They should be covered with a good ravelin, that they may not be seen or enfiladed by the enemy. The palisades and barriers before the gates within the town are often of great use. The fewer ports there are in a fortress, the more you are secured against the enemy. At the opening of a gate, a party of horse is sent out to patrol in the country round the place, to discover ambuscades or lurking parties of the enemy, and to see if the country be clear.

GAUCHE, Fr. the left.
A GAUCHE, Fr. to the left.
GAUCHE D'UNE RIVIÈRE, D'UN RUISSEAU, Fr. The left of a river is ascertained by looking at its stream, or standing with your back to its source, and facing the quarter whence it disembogues itself. The bank on your left hand is called the left bank.

GAUCHE, Fr. This word is used among the French to signify the second post of honour in an army, or in regiments: thus the second battalion of a corps, which is brigaded, and is senior to another, takes the left of the line; and if two battalions of the first regiment of guards were to be brigaded with the Coldstream, the second battalion of the former would be on the left, being the post of honour, and the latter would occupy the center, as being the youngest regiment.

GAUGE. See Standard.
GAUGES, in gunnery, are brass rings with handles, to find the diameter of all kinds of shot with expedition.

GAULS, the name given by the Romans to the inhabitants of the country that now forms the kingdom of France. The original inhabitants were descended from the Celts or Gomerians, by whom the greatest part of Europe was peopled; the name of Galli or Gauls, being probably given them long after their settlement in that country.

GAUNTELOPE. See GAUNTLET.
GAUNTLET.

GAZETTE, or newspaper, a printed account of the transactions of all the countries in the known world. This name with us, is confined to that paper of news which is published by authority.

The word is derived from gazetta, a Venetian coin, which was the usual price of the first newspaper printed there, and which name was afterwards given to the paper itself.

The first gazette in England was published at Oxford, the court being there, in a folio half sheet, November the 7th, 1665. On the removal of the court to London, the title was changed to the London Gazette. The Oxford Gazette was published on Tuesdays, the London on Saturdays. And these have continued to be the days of publication ever since that paper has been confined to London.

All commissions in the regular army, militia, fencible and volunteer corps must be gazetted. The dates specified in the gazette generally agree in every point with those of the original commissions. So that by referring to the gazette, an officer may generally know the precise day on which he is entitled to receive subsistence from the agent, and to assume rank in the British army. Should an erroneous statement, however, get into the gazette, or a commission be wrong dated therein, a reference to the latter (i.e. commission) will always supersede any notification in the former.

GAZONNER, Fr. to revet or cover with sods.

GAZONS, in fortification, pieces of fresh earth or sods, covered with grass, and cut in the form of a wedge, about a foot long, and half a foot thick, to line the outsides of a work made of earth; as ramparts, parapets, banquettes, &c. The first bed of gazons is fixed with pegs of wood; and the second bed is so laid as to bind the former, by being placed over its joints; and so continued till the works are finished. Between those it is usual to sow all sorts of
of binding weed or herbs, in order to strengthen the rampart.

GEAR, furniture, equipage, or carriages.

GEAT, the hole through which the metal is conveyed to the mould in casting ordnance.

GEBEGIS, armourers among the Turks are so called.

GEBELUS. Every Timarist in Turkey, during a campaign, is obliged to take a certain number of horsemen, who are called gebelus, and to support them at his own expense. He is directed to take as many with him as would annually cost three thousand aspers (each asper being equal to two-pence farthing English) for subsistence.

GELD, in the English old customs, a Saxon word signifying money, or tribute. It also denoted fine or a compensation for some crime committed. Hence wer-geld, in the old Saxon laws, was used for the value of a man slain; and orf-geld for that of a beast.

GELIBACH, a sort of superintendent or chief of the gebegis, or armourers among the Turks. He is only subordinate to the topit bach, or the grand master of the Turkish artillery.

GENDARME, Fr. in the original signification of the term, a man in complete armour. His horse was also shielded by a breast-plate, head-piece, and covers for his sides. The Gendarmes were at first called Hommes d'armes (men at arms), and were esquires.

GENDARMERIE, Fr. the gendarmerie was a select body of cavalry that took precedence of every regiment of horse in the French service, and ranked immediately after the king's household. The reputation of the gendarmerie was so great, and its services so well estimated by the king of France, that when the Emperor Charles V. in 1552, sent a formal embassy to the Court of Versailles to request a loan of money, and the assistance of the gendarmerie to enable him to repulse the Turks; Francis I., returned the following answer: "With respect to the first object of your mission, (addressing himself to the ambassador) I am not a banker; and with regard to the other, as my gendarmerie is the arm which supports my sceptre, I never expose it to danger, without personally sharing its fatigue and glory."

The uniform of the gendarmerie, as well as of the light cavalry, under the old French government, was scarlet with facings of the same colour. The coat was formerly more or less laced with silver, according to the king's pleasure. A short period before the revolution, it was only laced on the cuff. The waistcoat of buff leather, and the bandouliere of the same, silver laced; the hat was edged with broad silver lace. The horse-cloths and holster-caps were red, and the arms of the capitan embroidered on the corners of the saddle cloths, and on the front of the holsters. In 1762, a considerable body of men was raised by order of Louis XIV. The soldiers who composed it were called gendarmes. And in 1792 the number was considerably augmented, consisting of horse and foot, and being indiscriminately called gendarmes; but their clothing was altered to deep blue. Their pay was greater than what the rest of the army enjoyed; and while others were paid in paper currency, they received their subsistence in hard cash (en argent somnant). They possessed these privileges on account of the proofs they were obliged to bring of superior claims to military honour, before they could be enlisted as gendarmes. It was necessary, in fact, that every individual amongst them should produce a certificate of six or eight years service.

GENDARMES de la garde, Fr. a select body of men so called during the old government of France, and still preserved in that country; but their services are applied to different purposes. They consisted originally of a single company which was formed by Henry IV. when he ascended the throne. He distinguished them from his other troops, by stiling them hommes d'armes de ses ordonnances; men at arms under his own immediate orders. They were persons best qualified for every species of military duty, and were to constitute a royal squadron, at whose head the king himself might personally engage the enemy, as necessity should require. He gave this squadron to his son the Dauphin, who was afterwards king of France, under the name and title of Louis XIII. According to Dupain de Montessou, the gendarmes de la garde
Gendarmerie were a body of horse, which formed part of the household guard during the French monarchy. This body consisted of two hundred men, and was divided into two squadrons.

Gendarmeres Anglais, Fr. In the establishment of the old French army, the English gendarmeres formed the second troop or company of the corps.

Gendarmeres d'Anjou, Fr. the eleventh troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres de Berry, Fr. the thirteenth troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres Bourguignons, Fr. the third troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres de Bretagne, Fr. the ninth troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres Dauphin, Fr. the seventh troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres Ecossois, Fr. the first troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres de Flandre, Fr. the fourth troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres d'Orleans, Fr. the fifteenth troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

Gendarmeres de la Reine, Fr. the fifth troop belonging to the old French gendarmerie.

General, in a military sense, is an officer in chief, to whom the prince or senate of a country have judged proper to intrust the command of their troops. He holds this important trust under various titles, as captain-general in England and Spain, Feldmarschall in Germany, or Marechal in France.

In the British service the king is constitutionally, and in his own proper right, captain-general. He has ten aide-de-camp; each enjoying the brevet rank of full colonel in the army. Next to his majesty is the commander in chief, whom he sometimes honours with the title of captain general. During the expedition to Holland, his Royal Highness the Duke of York was entrusted with this important charge.

The natural qualities of a General. These should be a martial genius, a solid judgment, a healthy robust constitution, intrepidity and presence of mind on critical occasions, indefatigability in business, goodness of heart, liberality, and a reasonable age; for if too young he may want experience and prudence; and if too old, he may not have vivacity enough. His conduct must be uniform, his temper affable, but inflexible in maintaining the police and discipline of an army.

Acquired qualities of a General. These should be secrecy, justice, sobriety, temperance, knowledge of the art of war from theory and practice, the art of commanding, and speaking with precision and exactness; great attention to preserve the lives and supply the wants of the soldiers, and a constant study of the characters of the officers of his army, that he may employ them according to their talents. His conduct appears in establishing his magazines in the most convenient places; in examining the country, that he may not engage his troops too far, while he is ignorant of the means of bringing them off; in subsisting them, and in knowing how to take the most advantageous posts, either for fighting, retreating, or shunning a battle. His experience inspires his army with confidence, and an assurance of victory; and his quality, by creating respect augments his authority. By his liberality he gets intelligence of the strength and designs of the enemy, and by this means is enabled to take the most successful measures. He ought to be fond of glory, to have an aversion to flattery, to render himself beloved, and to keep a strict discipline and regular subordination.

The office of a General is to regulate the march and encampment of the army, in the day of battle to chuse out the most advantageous ground; to make the disposition of the army, to post the artillery, and, where there is occasion, to send his orders by his aids-de-camp. At a siege he is to cause the place to be invested; to regulate the approaches and attacks, to visit the works, and to send out detachments to secure the convoys, and foraging parties.

Generalissimo, a supreme and absolute commander in the field. This word is generally used in most foreign languages. It was first invented by the absolute
absolute authority of Cardinal Richlieu, when he went to command the French army in Italy.

**General of artillery.** See Ordnance.

**Generals of horse** are officers next under the general of the army. They have an absolute command over the horse belonging to an army, above the lieutenant-generals.

**Generals of foot** are officers next under the general of the army, having an absolute command over the foot of the army.

**General officers.** All officers above the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the line are so called. The Board, (which subject to his majesty and the commander in chief) determines every regulation respecting the clothing of the army, is composed of general officers.

**General.** In the German armies, and among the sovereigns of the North, there are certain generals of cavalry, and others of infantry, who take rank of all lieutenant generals. Those belonging to the infantry in the imperial service, and who are of this description, are called *general fieldzeugmeisters*. In Russia they bear the titles of generals in chief; of which class their are four belonging to the armies of that empire, two for the infantry, and two for the cavalry. They are only subordinate to field marshals; which title or dignity is the same in Russia as was formerly that of marshal of France.

In the two imperial armies just mentioned, it is usual for generals, lieutenant generals, and major generals to take their routine of duty, and rise progressively in the infantry or cavalry corps, to which they were originally appointed, until they arrive at a chief command; whereas in France (according to the old military system of that country; and according to our own in England) a major general might be employed to take charge of either infantry or cavalry, without any regard being paid to the particular line of service in which he was bred.

**General chez les Turcs.** Fr. Turkish generals. Whatever opinion we may be disposed to entertain of the troops of the Ottoman Empire, (and we have recently had some experience of their manner of fighting, especially at St. Jean d'Acre, which was preserved by a handful of British seamen and marines) we shall wave our own private sentiments on the subject, and give the following curious account of their generals, as faithfully extracted out of a French work.

The Turks, observes that author, have likewise good generals. They possess experience, because from their earliest infancy they become inured to arms; because through the different stages of acknowledged service, they rise by degrees; and because their empire being very extensive, it is necessary that they should over-run several provinces for its protection, and be almost constantly engaged in skirmishes or battles. These, at least, were the original principles upon which the military code of that country was established. But abuses, the natural consequences of corruption, have since crept in amongst them; for there have been persons suddenly raised from subordinate employments under the Porte to the supreme command of armies. The primary cause of this abuse is to be found in the luxury and effeminacy of the grand signors, who are become heedless of the Mahometan laws, and never go to war in person.

The acknowledged valour of the Turkish generals may be attributed to the following causes. To a constitution which is naturally robust, to a practical knowledge of war, and to habitual military exercises. To these may be added the confidence with which they are inspired by the recollection of former victories; but they are influenced above all, by the secret dictates of religion, which holds out eternal happiness to those who shall die in battle, and which teaches them to believe, that every Turk bears written on the forehead, not only the hour of his departure from this earth, but the manner of his removal.

A Turkish general possesses a power as absolute and uncontrouled as that which was entrusted to the dictators of the Roman republic. He has no competitor, or equal in the charge he holds, no assistants or colleagues with whom he is directed to consult, and to whose assent or dissent, in matters of consultation, he is to pay the least regard. Not only the army under his command, but
but the whole country into which he marches, is subject to his orders, and bound implicitly to obey them. Punishments and rewards are equally within his distribution. If an authority so absolute as this be considered in the light of executive effect, nothing most unquestionably can so readily produce it; for the tardiness of deliberation is superseded at once by a prompt decision; before which all sorts of objections, and every species of jealousy, subside. When a project is to be fulfilled, secrecy is the natural consequence of this arbitrary system, and rational plans are not interrupted by a difference of opinion, by prejudice or cabal.

**General de bataille, or a particular General major,** is the rank or appointment, whose functions correspond with those of a ci-devant marshal of France. This situation is entrusted to a general officer, and is only known among the armies of Russia, and some other northern powers. He takes precedence in the same manner that our major generals do, of all brigadier generals and colonels, and is subordinate to lieutenant generals. The rank of brigadier general is only known in Russia, England, and Holland. It does not exist in Austria or Sweden.

**General des galères,** Fr. Superintendant officer or general of the galleys. This was one of the most important appointments belonging to the old government of France. The officer to whom it was entrusted commanded all the galleys, and vessels which bore what the French call *voiles latines* (a triangle rectangular sail) in the Mediterranean. He had a jurisdiction, a marine police, and an arsenal for constructing ships under his own immediate command, without being in the least subordinate to the French admiralty board. When he went on board he was only inferior in rank to the admiral.

The privileges which were attached to his situation, and the authority he possessed with regard to every other marine or sea-officer, were specifically mentioned in the king’s regulations, and were distinguished by the respect and compliments that were paid to the royal standard, which this general bore, not only on board his own galley, but whenever he chose to hoist it in another.

During the reign of Louis XIV. in 1669, the Duke de Vivone, marshal of France, raised the reputation of the galley service to a considerable degree of eminence, by gaining several hard fought engagements. His son, the Duke de Mortomart succeeded him in the appointment; and the chevalier d’Orléans, grand prior of France, was general of the galleys at his decease.

**General des vivres,** Fr. A sort of chief commissary, or superintendent general of stores, whose particular functions were to provide ammunition bread and biscuit for the army. There were several subordinate commissaries who watched the distribution of these stores, and saw that the bakers gave bread of the quality they contracted for. It was likewise within the department of the superintendent general to attend to the collection of grain and flour, and to see that proper carriages and horses were always at hand to convey them to the several depots or magazines. The different camps were also supplied from the same source. See *Munitionnaire*.

**General and staff officers** are all officers as above described, whose authority extends beyond the immediate command of a particular regiment or company, and who have either separate districts at home, or commands on foreign service.

**Lieutenant General.** This office is the first military dignity after that of a general. One part of the functions belonging to lieutenant generals, is to assist the general with counsel: they ought therefore, if possible, to possess the same qualities with the general himself; and the more, as they often command armies in chief, or succeed thereto on the death of the general.

The number of lieutenant generals have been multiplied of late in Europe, in proportion as the armies have become numerous. They serve either in the field, or in sieges, according to the dates of their commissions. In battle the oldest commands the right wing of the army, the second the left wing, the third the center, the fourth the right wing of the second line, the fifth the left wing, the sixth the center, and so on.
on. In sieges the lieutenant-generals always command the right of the principal attack, and direct what they judge proper for the advancement of the siege, during the 24 hours they are in the trenches, except the attacks, which they are not to make without an order from the general in chief. Lieutenant generals are entitled to two aids-de-camp.

**Lieutenant-General of the ordnance.** See Ordinance.

**Lieutenant-General of artillery,** ought to be a very great mathematician, and an able engineer, to know all the powers of artillery, to understand the attack and defence of fortified places, in all its different branches; how to dispose of the artillery, in the day of battle to the best advantage; to conduct its march and retreat; as also to be well acquainted with all the numerous apparatus belonging to the train, laboratory, &c.

**Major-General,** the next officer to the lieutenant-general. His chief business is to receive orders from the general, or in his absence from the lieutenant general of the day; which he is to distribute to the brigade-majors, with whom he is to regulate the guards, convoys, detachments, &c. On him the whole fatigue and detail of duty of the army roll. It is the major-general of the day who is charged with the encampment of the army, who places himself at the head of it when it marches; who marks out the ground of the camp to the quarter-master-general, and who places the new guards for the safety of the camp.

The day the army is to march, he dictates to the field-officers the order of the march, which he has received from the general, and on other days gives them the parole.

In a fixed camp he is charged with the foraging, with reconnoitering the ground for it, posting the escorts, &c.

In sieges, if there are two separate attacks, the second belongs to him; but if there be only one, he takes either from the right or left of the attack, that which the lieutenant-general has not chosen.

When the army is under arms, he assists the lieutenant-general, whose orders he executes.

If the army marches to an engagement, his post is at the head of the guards of the army, until they are near enough to the enemy to rejoin their different corps; after which he retires to his own proper post; for the major-generals are disposed in the order of battle as the lieutenant-generals are, to whom, however they are subordinate, for the command of their divisions. The major-general has one aid-de-camp and one brigade major.

**Brigadier General,** in the British service, is the next in rank to a major general, being superior to all colonels, and having frequently a separate command. Brigadier generals are not entitled to aids-de-camp, but they have each one brigade major.—Several brigadier generals have been made during the present war, in order to render the distribution of line-officers more effectually beneficial to the common cause, by investing them with commands superior to the militia and volunteer establishments. See 5th edition of the Regimental Companion, for further particulars on this head.

**General of a district,** a general officer who has the charge and superintendence of a certain extent of country, in which troops are encamped, quartered or cantoned. He is entitled to have three aids-de-camp and one brigade major.

He receives reports, &c. from the major general, respecting the troops in his district; reviews and inspects them, likewise orders field days of the whole brigaded, or by separate corps, when and in what part he pleases; making the necessary reports to the war-office, commander in chief, &c.

**Colonel General,** an honorary title, or military rank which is bestowed in foreign services. Thus the prince of peace in Spain is colonel general of the Swiss guards.

**Brigade major General.** When England and Scotland were divided into different districts, each district under the immediate command of a general officer, it was found necessary, for the dispatch of business, to establish an office, which should be solely confined to brigade duties. The first brigade major general was appointed in 1797. At that period all orders relative to corps of officers, which were transmitted
mitted from the commander in chief to
the generals of districts, pass through
this channel of intermediate communi-
cation.

By the last General Regulations, it is
particularly directed, that all general
officers commanding brigades, shall very
minutely inspect the internal economy
and discipline of the several regiments
under their order. They are frequently
to visit the hospitals and guards. On
arriving in camp they are never to leave
their brigades till the tents are pitched,
and the guards posted; they must always
encamp with their brigades, unless quar-
ters can be procured for them immedi-
ately in the vicinity of their camp. Ge-
neral officers must not at any time
change the quarter assigned them, with-
out leave from head quarters.

All general officers should make them-
selves acquainted, as soon as possible,
with the situation of the country near
the camp, with the roads, passes, bridges,
&c. leading to it; and likewise with the
out-posts, that in case they should be
ordered suddenly to sustain, or defend
any post, they may be able to march
without waiting for guides, and be com-
potent, from a topographical knowledge
of the country, to form the best dispo-
sition for the service. They should in-
struct their aids-de-camp in these par-
ticulars, and always require their atten-
dance when they visit the out-posts.

All general officers, and others in
considerable command, must make
themselves thoroughly acquainted with
the nature of the country, the quality of
the roads, every circuitous access through
valleys or openings, the relative height
of the neighbouring hills, and the course
of rivers, which are to be found within
the space entrusted to their care. These
important objects may be attained by
maps, by acquired local information,
and by unremitting activity and obser-
vation. And if it should ever be the
fate of a country, intersected as Great
Britain is, to act upon the defensive, a
full and accurate possession of all its
fastnesses, &c. must give each general
officer a decided advantage over the
commanding officer of an enemy, who
cannot have examined the ground upon
which he may be reduced to fight, and
must be embarrassed in every forward
movement that he makes. Although
guides may serve, and ought always to
be used in the common operations of
marches, there are occasions where the
eye and intelligence of the principal of-
icers must determine the movements of
troops, and enable them to seize and
improve every advantage that occurs as
the enemy approaches.

General officers on service abroad, or
commanding districts at home, may ap-
point their own aids-de-camp and bri-
gade majors. The latter, however, are
to be considered as officers attached to
their several brigades, not personally to
the officers commanding them. The
former are their habitual attendants and
domestic inmates. In the selection of
aids-de-camp and brigade majors, too
much attention cannot be given to their
requisite qualifications; and that general
would not only commit an act of injus-
tice against the interests of his country,
but deserve the severest censure, and
displeasure of his sovereign, who, through
motives of private convenience, family
connexion, or convivial recommendation,
could so far forget his duty, as to prefer
an unexperienced stripling, to a charac-
ter marked by a knowledge of the pro-
ession, a zeal for the service, and an
irreproachable conduct.

In the day of battle the station of a
general is with the Reserve, where he
remains so situated, that he can see
every thing which is going forward; and
by means of his own observation, or
through the communications of his aids-
de-camp, is enabled to send reinforce-
ments, as the exigencies of the conflict
may require.

The celebrated Marshal Saxe has
made the following remarks on the ne-
cessary qualifications to form a good ge-
eral. The most indispensable one, ac-
cording to his idea, is valour, without
which all the rest will prove nugatory.
The next is a sound understanding with
some genius; for he must not only be
courageous, but be extremely fertile in
expedients; the third, is health and a
robust constitution.

"His mind must be capable of
prompt and vigorous resources; he must
have an aptitude, and a talent at discov-
ering the designs of others, without
betraying the slightest trace of his own
intentions. He must be seemingly com-
municative, in order to encourage others

N a
to unboast, but remain tenaciously reserved in matters that concern his own army; he must, in a word, possess activity with judgment, be able to make a proper choice of his officers, and never deviate from the strictest line of military justice. Old soldiers must not be rendered wretched and unhappy, by unwarrantable promotions, nor must extraordinary talents be kept back to the detriment of the service, on account of mere rules and regulations. Great abilities will justify exceptions; but ignorance and inactivity will not make up for years spent in the profession.

"In his deportment, he must be affable, and always superior to peevishness, or ill-humour; he must not know, or at least seem to know, what a spirit of resentment is; and when he is under the necessity of inflicting military chastisement, he must see the guilty punished without compromise or foolish humanity; and if the delinquent be from among the number of his most intimate friends, he must be doubly severe towards the unfortunate man. For it is better, in instances of correction, that one individual should be treated with rigour (by orders of the person over whom he may be supposed to hold some influence), than that an idea should go forth in the army, of public justice being sacrificed to private sentiments.

"A modern general should always have before him the example of Manlius; he must divest himself of personal sensations, and not only be convinced himself, but convince others, that he is the organ of military justice, and that what he does is irrevocably prescribed. With these qualifications, and by this line of conduct, he will secure the affections of his followers, instil into their minds all the impulses of deference and respect. He will be feared, and consequently obeyed.

"The resources of a general's mind are as various as the occasions for the exercise of them are multiplied and chequered; he must be perfectly master of the art of knowing how to support an army under all circumstances and in all situations, how to apply its strength, or be sparing of its energy and confidence; how to post all its different component parts, so as not to be forced to give, or receive battle in opposition to settled plans. When once engaged, he must have presence of mind enough to grasp all the relative points of disposition and arrangement, to seize favourable moments for impression, and to be thoroughly conversant in the infinite vicissitudes that occur during the heat of a battle; on a ready possession of which its ultimate success depends. These requisites are unquestionably manifold, and grow out of the diversity of situations, and the chance medley of events that produce their necessity.

"A general, to be in perfect possession of them must, on the day of battle, be divested of every thought, and be inaccessible to every feeling, but what immediately regards the business of the day; he must reconnoitre with the promptitude of a skilful geographer, whose eye collects instantaneously all the relative portions of locality, and feels his ground as it were by instinct; and in the disposition of his troops, he must discover a perfect knowledge of his profession, and make all his arrangements with accuracy and dispatch. His order of battle must be simple and unconfused, and the execution of his plan as quick as if it merely consisted in uttering some few words of command, as: the first line will attack! the second will support it! or such a battalion will advance and support the line.

"The general officers that act under such a chief, must be ignorant of their business indeed, if, upon the receipt of these orders, they should be deficient in the immediate means of answering them, by a prompt and ready co-operation. So that the general has only to issue out directions, according to the growth of circumstances, and to rest satisfied, that every division will act in conformity to his intentions; but if, on the contrary, he should so far forget his situation as to become a drill sergeant in the heat of action, he must find himself in the case of the fly in the fable, which perched upon a wheel, and foolishly imagined, that the motion of the carriage was influenced by its situation. A general, therefore, ought on the day of battle to be thoroughly master of himself, and to have both his mind and his eye rivetted to the immediate scene of action. He will by these means be enabled to see every thing; his judgment will be unembarrassed, and be
be will instantly discover all the vulnerable points of the enemy. The moment a favourable opening offers, by which the contest may be decided, it becomes his duty to head the nearest body of troops, and, without any regard to personal safety, to advance against his enemy's line. [By a ready conception of this sort, joined to great courage, General Desaix determined the issue of the battle of Marengo.] It is, however, impossible for any man to lay down rules, or to specify, with accuracy, all the different ways by which a victory may be obtained. Everything depends upon variety of situations, casualty of events, and intermediate occurrences which no human foresight can positively ascertain, but which may be converted to good purposes by a quick eye, a ready conception and a prompt execution.

Prince Eugene was singularly gifted with these qualifications, particularly with that sublime possession of the mind, which constitutes the essence of a military character.

Many commanders in chief have been so limited in their ideas of warfare, that when events have brought the contest to issue, and two rival armies have been drawn out for action, their whole attention has devolved upon a straight alignment, an equality of step, or a regular distance in intervals of columns. They have considered it sufficient to give answers to questions proposed by their aids-de-camp, to send orders in various directions, and to gallop themselves from one quarter to another, without steadily adhering to the fluctuations of the day, or calmly watching for an opportunity to strike a decisive blow. They endeavor, in fact, to do every thing, and thereby do nothing. They appear like men, whose presence of mind deserts them the instant they are taken out of the beaten track, or are reduced to supply unexpected calls by uncommon exertions. And from whence, (continues the same sensible writer), do these contradictions arise? from an ignorance of those high qualifications without which the mere routine of duty, methodical arrangement and studied discipline must fail to the ground, and defeat themselves. Many officers spend their whole lives in putting a few regiments through a regular set of manoeuvres; and having done so, they vainly imagine, that all the science of a real military man consists in that acquirement. When, in process of time, the command of a large army falls to their lot, they are manifestly lost in the magnitude of the undertaking, and from not knowing how to act as they ought, they remain satisfied with doing what they have partially learned.

"Military knowledge, as far as it regards a general, or commander in chief, may be divided into two parts, one comprehending mere discipline and settled systems for putting a certain number of rules into practice; and the other originating in a sublimity of conception, which method may assist, but cannot give,

"If a man be not born with faculties that are naturally adapted to the situation of a general, and if his talents do not fit the extraordinary casualties of war, he will never rise beyond mediocrity.

"It is, in fact, in war as it is in painting, or in music. Perfection in either art grows out of innate talents, but it never can be acquired without them. Study and perseverance may correct ideas, but no application, no assiduity, will give the life, and energy of action; those are the works of nature.

"It has been my fate (observes the Marshal) to see several very excellent colonels become indifferent generals. I have known others, who have distinguished themselves at sieges, and in the different evolutions of an army, lose their presence of mind and appear ignorant of their profession, the instant they were taken from that particular line, and be incapable of commanding a few squadrons of horse. Should a man of this cast be placed at the head of an army, he will confine himself to mere dispositions and manoeuvres; to them he will look for safety; and if once thwarted, his defeat will be inevitable, because his mind is not capable of other resources.

"In order to obviate, in the best possible manner, the innumerable disasters which must arise from the uncertainty of war, and the greater uncertainty of the means that are adopted to carry it on, some general rules ought to be laid down, not only for the government of the troops, but for the instruction of those
those who have the command of them. The principles to be observed, are: that when the line or the columns advance, their distances should be scrupulously observed; that whenever a body of troops is ordered to charge, every portion of the line should "rush forward with intrepidity and vigour;" that if openings are made in the first line, it becomes the duty of the second instantly to fill up the chasms.

"These instructions issue from the dictates of plain nature, and do not require the least elucidation in writing. They constitute the A, B, C, of soldiers. Nothing can be more simple, or more intelligible; so much so, that it would be ridiculous in a general to sacrifice essential objects in order to attend to such minutiae. His functions in the day of battle are confined to those occupations of the mind, by which he is enabled to watch the countenance of the enemy, to observe his movements, and to see, with an eagle's, or a king of Prussia's eye, all the relative directions that his opponents take. It must be his business to create alarms and suspicions among the enemy's line in one quarter, whilst his real intention is to act against another; to puzzle and disconcert him in his plans; to take advantage of the manifold openings, which his feints have produced, and when the contest is brought to issue, to be capable of plunging, with effect, upon the weakest part, and of carrying the sword of death where its blow is sure to be mortal. But to accomplish these important and indispensable points, his judgment must be clear, his mind collected, his heart firm, and his eyes incapable of being diverted, even for a moment, by the trilling occurrences of the day.

"I am not, however, an advocate for pitched battles, especially at the commencement of a war. A skilful general might, I am persuaded, carry on a contest between two rival nations during the whole of his life, without being once obliged to come to a decisive action. Nothing harrasses, and eventually distresses an enemy so much as this species of warfare. He must, in fact, be frequently attacked, and, by degrees, be broken and unnerved; so that in a short time he will not be able to shew himself.

"It must not generally be inferred from this opinion, that when an opportunity presents itself, whereby an enemy may be crushed at once, the attack should not be made, or that advantage should not be taken of the errors he may commit; all I mean to prove is, that war can be carried on without leaving any thing to chance; and in this consist the perfection and highest point of ability belonging to a general. But when a battle is risked, the triumphant party ought well to know all the advantages which may be derived from his victory. A wise general, indeed, will not remain satisfied with having made himself master of the mere field of battle. This, I am sorry to observe, is too often the custom; and, strange to say, that custom is not without its advocates.

"It is too much the practice of some governments, and as often the custom of generals, to follow the old proverb, which says, that in order to gain your ends, you must make some sacrifices, and even facilitate the retreat of your enemy. Nothing can be more impolitic, or more absurd. An able surgeon might as well tamper with a mortification, and by endeavouring to save an useless limb, run the hazard of destroying all the vital parts.

An enemy, on the contrary,ought to be vigorously pushed, harassed night and day, and pursued through every winding he can make. By a conduct of this sort, the advancing army will drive him from all his holds and fastnesses, and the conclusion of his brilliant retreat, will ultimately turn out a complete and total overthrow. Ten thousand well trained and disciplined troops, that are sent forward from the main army, to hang upon the rear of a retiring enemy, will be able to destroy an army of an hundred thousand men, when that army has once been forced to make retrograde movements. A want of confidence in their generals, added to many other disheartening circumstances, will naturally possess the minds of the latter, while implicit faith and warm affection must influence the former. A first defeat well followed up, almost always terminates in a total rout, and finishes the contest. But some generals do not wish to bring war to a speedy issue.

Public
Public misfortunes too frequently produce private emoluments, and the accumulation of the latter is too endearing to suffer itself to be superseded by the former."

In order to substantiate what he thus advances with much good sense, the Marshal cites the following particular instance, from among an infinity of others.

"When the French army, at the battle of Ramilies, was retiring in good order over an eminence that was rather confined, and on both sides of which there were deep ravines, the cavalry belonging to the allies followed its track leisurely, without even appearing to wish to harass or attack its rear. The French continued their march with the same composure; retreating upon more than twenty lines, on account of the narrowness of the ground.

"On this occasion, a squadron of English horse got close to two French battalions, and began to fire upon them. The two battalions naturally presuming that they were going to be attacked, came to the right about, and fired a volley at the squadron. What was the consequence? the whole of the French army took to its heels; the cavalry went off full gallop, and all the infantry, instead of patiently retiring over the heights, threw itself into the ravines in such dreadful disorder, that the ground above was almost instantly abandoned, and not a French soldier was seen upon it.

Let any military man consider this notorious event, and then praise, if he can, the regularity of a retreat, and the prudent foresight of those who, after an enemy has been vanquished in the field, relax in their exertions, and give him time to breathe. I do not, however, pretend to maintain, that all the forces of a victorious army should be employed to follow up the pursuit; but I am decidedly of opinion, that large bodies should be detached for that purpose, and that the flying enemy should be annoyed as long as the day lasts. This must be done in good order: And let it be remembered, that when an enemy has once taken to his heels in real earnest, you may drive him before you by the mere noise of empty bladders.

If the officer who is detached in pur-

suit of an enemy, begins to manœuvre according to prescribed rules and regulations, and to operate with slowness and precaution, he had better be recalled; for the sole purpose of his employment is to push on vigorously, to harass and distress the foe. Every species of evolution will do on this occasion; if any can be defective, the regular system might prove so.

"I shall conclude these observations by saying, that all retreats depend wholly upon the talents and abilities of generals, who must themselves be governed by circumstances and situations; but I will venture to assert, that no retreat can eventually succeed, unless it be made before an enemy who acts with extreme caution; for if the latter follow up his first blow, the vanquished army must soon be thrown into utter confusion."

These are the sentiments of Marshal Saxe, as far as they relate to the qualifications, which the general of an army should indispensably possess. And no man we are persuaded was better enabled to form an opinion upon so important a subject; for as Baron Espe- nac has justly observed in his Supple- ment aux Réveries de ce Mar, p. 166, he possessed uncommon courage, was fertile in expedients and resources; he knew how to distinguish and to make use of the abilities of individuals; was unshaken in his determinations; and when the good of the service required chastisement or severity, was not influenced by private feelings, or hurried away by a sanguinary temper; he was uncommonly attentive to his men, watchful of their health, and provident to supply their wants; sparing of their blood in the day of battle, and always inspiring them, by the liveliness of his mind, tempered by experience, with confidence and attachment to his measures. He knew the cast of each man's character, particularly so of his officers; and whilst he directed the former with consummate knowledge and consequent success, he never lost sight of the merits of the latter, when they co-operated with his designs. If the natural vivacity of his mind sometimes led him into temporary neglect, good sense, and a marked anxiety to be just, soon made amends for apparent slights, by rendering the most important services to those whom
whom he had apparently neglected. He was ingenious and subtle in all his manoeuvres before an enemy, skilful in his choice of camps, and equally intelligent in that of posts; he was plain in his instructions previous to an engagement, simple in his disposition of the order of battle; and he was never known to lose an opportunity, through the want of prompt decision, whereby a contest might be ended by a bold and daring evolution. When it appeared necessary to give weight to his orders, and to turn the balance of fortune by personal exposure, no man became less fearful of his own destiny than Marshal Saxe. On these occasions he was daring to an extreme, heedless of danger, but full of judgment, and a calm presence of mind. Such, in our humble opinion, are the outlines of a real general, how well they were exemplified and filled up by the subject of this article, time and the concurring testimony of events have proved.

GENERAL’s Guard. It was customary among the French, and we believe the practice still prevails, for the oldest regiment to give one captain, one lieutenant, one ensign, two serjeants, and fifty privates, as a general’s guard. Whenever the marshals of France were on service under the immediate orders of the king, or of the princes belonging to the royal household, they always retained the rank of general.

GENERAL d’armée, Fr. the commander in chief of an army.

Batte la Générale, Fr. to beat the general. See DRUM.

GENERAL court-martial, See COURTS MARTIAL.

General, formations of the battalion, are from line into column, and from column into line; to either flank, to the front of the march, to the rear of the march.

GENERAL, is also used for a particular beat of the drum. See DRUM.

GÉNÉRALAT, Fr. The rank of a general officer.

GÉNÉRISSIMO, Géneralissime, Fr. The chief officer in command.

GENETTE, Fr. a particular sort of snaffle, which is used among the Turks; it resembles a large ring, and serves to confine the horse’s tongue.

À la Génette, Fr. with short stirrups.

GENIE, Fr. the art of engineering. It consists in a knowledge of lines, so as to be able to trace out all that is requisite for the attack or defence of places, according to established rules in fortification. Marshal Vauban and the Marquis of Louvois, have particularly distinguished themselves in this art.

GENIUS, in a military sense, a natural talent or disposition to every kind of warlike employment, more than any other; or the aptitude a man has received from nature to perform well, and easily, that which others can do but indifferently, and with a great deal of pains.

From the diversity of genius, the difference of inclination arises in men, whom nature has had the precaution of leading to the employment for which she designs them, with more or less impetuousity, in proportion to the greater or lesser number of obstacles they have to surmount, that they may render themselves capable of answering this occasion. Thus the inclinations of men are so very different, because each follows the same mover, that is, the impulse of his genius. This is what renders one officer more pleasing, even though he trespasses against the rules of war; while others are disagreeable notwithstanding their strict regularity.

GENOUILLIÈRE, Fr. in fortification, that part of the parapet of a battery which lies under the embrasure, and is within the battery. The genouillière is about 2½ or 3 French feet high from the platform to the opening of the embrasure. It lies immediately under the arch of the fortification. Its thickness, which usually consists of fascines well put together, is of the same dimensions that merlons bear; namely from 18 to 22 feet. The term genouillière is derived from genou, signifying the knee, to the height of which it is generally raised.

GENS, Fr. a word in much desultory use among the French, signifying in a general acceptation of it, folks, people, servants, soldiers, &c.

Gens d’armes. See GENDARMER.

Gens de guerre, Fr. men attached to a military profession.

Mett Gens, Fr. an affected phrase, which was formerly used among the French, to signify their servants or attendants.
Mille Gens, cent mille gens, Fr. any considerable number of men.

Gens, Fr. this word is likewise used to distinguish bodies of men that are in opposition to each other, viz.

Nos Gens ont battu les ennemis, Fr. our men, or people, have overcome the enemy.

Nos Gens ont été battus, Fr. our men or people have been beaten.

Je craignois que ce ne fussent des ennemis, et c'étoient de nos Gens, Fr. I was apprehensive that they were our enemies, but they proved to be our own people.

Nos Gens battirent les vôtres, Fr. our men beat your's.

Gens, Fr. when followed by the preposition de, and by a substantive, which points out any particular profession, trade, &c. signifies all those persons that belong to one nation, one town, &c. or who are of one specific profession or calling, as

Les Gens d'église, Fr. churchmen.

Les Gens de robe, Fr. lawyers or gentlemen of the long robe.

Les Gens de finance, Fr. men concerned in the distribution of public money.

Les Gens de loi, Fr. means generally all persons who have any connection with the law in the way of profession.


GENTILHOMMES de la garde, commonly called Au bec de corbin, or the battle axe, Fr. This company went through many alterations under the monarchy of France. During the last years of that government, it consisted of 200 guards under the command of a captain, a lieutenant, and an ensign. The captain had the power of giving away the subaltern commissions, and had moreover the entire management of the rest; every vacancy being in his gift. They marched in file, each holding his battle-axe, before the king on days of public ceremony. These were chiefly at the coronation, and the marriage of the king, or at the reception of the knights of the Holy Ghost.

When the company was first raised, its particular duty was to attend the king’s person, and to be constantly near him on the day of battle.

GENTILHOMME à drapeau établie dans chaque compagnie des gardes Frances,
cases, Fr. under the old French government, this person ranked as officier en second. He did duty in common with the ensigns of the French guards, and took precedence immediately under them. His name always stood upon the muster roll, but his appointment was merely honorary, as he did not receive any pay; his tour of duty in mounting guards, went with that of the ensigns, he was obliged to be present at all field days, and could not absent himself without leave.

GENTILSHOMMES pensionnaires, Fr. Gentlemen pensioners. See Pensioners.

GÉODESIA, GÉODESIE, Fr. that part of practical geometry, which contains the doctrine or art of measuring surfaces, and finding the contents of all plain figures. Among the French géodesie means likewise the division of lands. See Surveying.

GEOGRAPHY is the doctrine or knowledge of the terrestrial globe; or the science that teaches and explains the state of the earth, and parts thereof that depend upon quantity; or it is rather that part of mixed mathematics, which explains the state of the earth, and of its parts depending on quantity, viz. its figure, magnitude, place, and motion, with the celestial appearances, &c. In consequence of this definition, geography should be divided into general and special, or universal and particular.

By universal Geography, is understood that part of the science which considers the whole earth in general, and explains its properties without regard to particular countries. This division is again distinguished into three parts, absolute, relative, and comparative. The absolute part respects the body of the earth itself, its parts and peculiar properties; as its figure, magnitude, and motion; its lands, seas, and rivers, &c. The relative part accounts for the appearances and accidents that happen to it from celestial causes; and lastly, the comparative contains an explanation of those properties which arise from comparing different parts of the earth together.

Special or particular Geography is that division of the science which describes the constitution and situation of each single country by itself; and is two-fold, viz. chorographical, which describes countries, of a considerable extent; or topographical, which gives a view of some place, or small tract of land. Hence the object or subject of geography is the earth, especially its superfcies and exterior parts.

The properties of Geography are of three kinds, viz. celestial, terrestrial, and human. The celestial properties are such as affect us by reason of the apparent motion of the sun and stars. These are 8 in number.

1. The elevation of the pole, or the distance of a place from the equator.
2. The obliquity of the diurnal motion of the stars above the horizon of the place.
3. The time of the longest and shortest day.
4. The climate and zone.
5. Heat, cold, and the seasons of the year; with rain, snow, wind, and other meteors.
6. The rising, appearance, and continuance of stars above the horizon.
7. The stars that pass through the zenith of a place.
8. The celerity of the motion with which, according to the Copernican hypothesis, every place constantly revolves.

The terrestrial properties are those observed in the face of the country, and are 10 in number.

1. The limits and bounds of each country.
2. Its figure;
3. Its magnitude;
4. Its mountains;
5. Its waters, viz. springs, rivers, lakes and bays;
6. Its woods and deserts;
7. The fruitfulness and barrenness of the country, with its various kinds of fruits.
8. Minerals and fossils;
9. The living creatures there;
10. The longitude and latitude of the place.

The third kind of observations to be made in every country is called human, because it chiefly regards the inhabitants of the place. It consists of 10 specific branches.

1. Their stature, shape, colour, and the length of their lives; their origin, meat, and drink.
2. Their
2. Their arts, and the profits which arise from them, with the merchandise they barter one with another.
3. Their virtues and vices, learning, capacities, and schools.
4. Their ceremonies at births, marriages, and funerals.
5. The language which the inhabitants use.
6. Their political government.
7. Religion and church government.
8. Cities and famous places.
9. Remarkable histories and antiquities.
10. Their famous men, artisans, and inventions of the natives.

These are the three kinds of occurrences to be explained in special geography.

The principles of Geography, or those from which arguments are drawn for the proving of propositions in that science, are, according to the best authors, of three sorts:

1. Geometrical, arithmetical, and trigonometrical propositions.
3. Experience, being that upon which the greatest part of geography, and chiefly the special is founded.

In proving geographical propositions, we are to observe, that several properties, and chiefly the celestial, are confirmed by proper demonstrations; being either grounded on experience and observation, or on the testimony of our senses: nor can they be proved by any other means. There are also several propositions proved, or rather exposed to view, by the terrestrial globe, or by geographical maps.

Other propositions cannot be so well proved, yet are received as apparent truths. Thus, though we suppose all places on the globe, and in maps, to be laid down in the same order as they are really on the earth; nevertheless, in these matters, we rather follow the descriptions that are given by geographical writers.

 Geography is very ancient, at least the special part thereof; for the ancients scarce went beyond the description of countries. It was a constant custom among the Romans, after they had conquered or subdued any province, to have a map or printed representation thereof carried in triumph, and exposed to the view of the spectators. Historians relate, that the Roman senate, about 100 years before Christ, sent geographers into divers parts to make an exact survey and mensuration of the whole globe; but they scarcely every saw the 20th part of it. When Bonaparte went to Egypt, he had this system in view.

Before them, Necho, king of Egypt, ordered the Phenicians to make a survey of the whole coast of Africa, which they accomplished in 3 years. Darius procured the Ethiopic sea, and the mouth of the Indus, to be surveyed; and Pliny relates, that Alexander, in his expedition into Asia, took two geographers to measure and describe the roads; and that from their itineraries, the writers of the following ages took many particulars. Indeed this may be observed, that whereas most other arts and sciences are sufferers by war, geography, artihelry, mining, and fortification, alone have been improved thereby. Geography, however, must have been exceedingly defective, as a great part of the globe was then unknown, particularly all America, the northern parts of Europe and Asia, with the Terra Australis, and Magellanica; and they were also ignorant of the earth's being capable to be sailed round, and of the torrid zone being habitable, &c.

The honour of reducing geography to art and system, was reserved for Ptolemy; who, by adding mathematical advantages to the historical method in which it had been treated of before, has described the world in a much more intelligible manner: he has delineated it under more certain rules, and by fixing the bounds of places from longitude and latitude, has discovered other mistakes, and has left us a method of discovering his own.

GEOLIER des prisons militaires, Fr. the superintendent or head jailor of military prisons. Under the old French government, this person had a right to visit all prisoners that were not confined in dungeons. He could order provisions, wood and coal to be conveyed to them; but he had not the power of permitting women to visit, or to have any intercourse with the soldiers; and when their period of imprisonment expired,
he could not detain them on account of debts contracted for food, lodgings, or fees, &c. Half of the prisoner's subsistence for one day, according to his rank, was given on his release.

GEOMETRICAL elevations, just dimensions of ascent proportionate to a given scale, &c. See Orthography.

GÉOMÉTRIE, Fr. Geometry.

Géométrie composée, Fr. compound geometry, which consists in the knowledge of curved lines, and of the different bodies produced by them. The immediate object or intent of compound geometry is confined to conic sections and to lines of that species.

Géométrie subline et transcendants, Fr. these terms have been applied by the French to the new system of geometry, which was produced by Leibnitz, and Newton, when they found out the method of calculating ad infinitum.

Geometry, originally signified no more than the art of measuring the earth, or any distances or dimensions in it; but at present it denotes the science of magnitude in general; comprehending the doctrine and relations of whatever is susceptible of augmentation or diminution, considered in that light. Hence, to geometry may be referred the consideration not only of lines, surfaces, and solids; but also of time, velocity, number, weight, &c.

Plato thought the word geometry an improper name for this science, and accordingly substituted in its place the more extensive one of mensuration; and after him, others gave it the name of pantometry, as demonstrating not only the quantities of all manner of magnitudes, but also their qualities, ratios, positions, transformations, relations, &c. and Proclus calls it the knowledge of magnitudes and figures, and their limitations; also of their motions and affections of every kind.

Origin and progress of Geometry. This science had its rise among the Egyptians, who were in a manner compelled to invent it, to remedy the confusion that generally happened in their lands, from the inundations of the river Nile, which carried away all their boundaries, and effaced all the limits of their possessions. Thus, this invention, which at first consisted only in measuring the lands, that every person might have what belonged him, was called geometry, or the art of measuring land; and it is probable, that the draughts and schemes, which they were annually compelled to make, helped them to discover many excellent properties of these figures; which speculation has continued gradually to improve to this day.

From Egypt geometry passed into Greece, where it continued to receive improvement from Thales, Pythagoras, Archimedes, Euclid, &c. The elements of geometry, written by Euclid in 15 books, are a most convincing proof to what perfection this science was carried among the ancients. However, it must be acknowledged, that it fell short of modern geometry, the bounds of which, by the invention of fluxions, and the discovery of the almost infinite order of curves, are greatly enlarged.

Division of Geometry. This science is usually distinguished into elementary, and higher or sublime geometry. The first, or elementary geometry, treats of the properties of right lines, and of the circle, together with the figures and solids formed by them. The doctrine of lines comes first, then that of surfaces, and lastly that of solids. The higher geometry comprehends the doctrine of conic sections, and numerous other curves.

Speculative and practical Geometry. The former treats of the properties of lines and figures, as Euclid's Elements, Apollonius's Conic Sections, &c. and the latter shews how to apply these speculations to the use of mensuration, navigation, surveying, taking heights and distances, gauging, fortification, gunnery, &c.

Usefulness of Geometry. Its usefulness extends to almost every art and science. By the help of it, astronomers turn their observations to advantage; regulate the duration of times, seasons, years, cycles, and epochs; and measure the distance, motion, and magnitudes of the heavenly bodies. By it geographers determine the figure and magnitude of the whole earth; and delineate the extent and bearings of kingdoms, provinces, harbours, &c. It is from this science also, that architects derive their just measure and construction of public edifices, as well as of private houses.
It is by the assistance of geometry that engineers conduct all their works, take the situation and plans of towns, the distances of places, and the measure of such things as are only accessible to the eye. It is not only an introduction to fortification, but highly necessary to mechanics. On geometry likewise depends the theory of gunnery, mining, music, optics, perspective, drawing, mechanics, hydraulics, pneumatics, &c.

We may distinguish the progress of geometry into three ages; the first of which was in its meridian glory at the time when Euclid's Elements appeared; the second beginning with Archimedes, reaches to the time of Descartes; who by applying algebra to the elements of geometry, gave a new turn to this science, which has been carried to its utmost perfection by our learned countryman Sir Isaac Newton, and by the German philosopher Leibnitz.

GEORGE, or Knight of St. George, has been the denomination of several military orders, whereof that of the garter is one of the most illustrious. See GARTER.

The figure of St. George on horseback, worn by the kings of England, and knights companions of the garter is so called.

GERBE, Fr. means literally a sheaf, but here it signifies a sort of artificial firework, which is placed in a perpendicular manner, and resembles a sheaf. See büch de feu.

GERMS, Fr. small coasting vessels employed by the French, to keep up an intercourse with Egypt.

GERIT, a dart, which is used by the Turks when they go into action. It is about three feet in length.

GÉSE, Fr. a weapon used in former times; resembling a javelin.

GESSES and Muteres were adopted by the Allobroges (a body of ancient Gauls so called) independently of the broad cut and thrust sword, which the Swiss still wear. These instruments were only one cubit long; half the blade was nearly square, but it terminated in a round point that was exceedingly keen. Virgil in his Æneid calls this species of blade, alpinum, meaning, no doubt, to convey, that it was in general use among the neighbouring inhabitants of the Alps. Not only the Romans, but the Greeks received it into their armies. The former retained the full appellation and called it gese, but the latter corrupted it into yse. This is the only weapon which those soldiers wore that escorted malefactors, who were condemned to death, to the place of execution. The term gese was also applied to a sort of javelin.

GESSATÉS, a people of whom Polybius speaks in his history of the ancient Gauls, and who inhabited the countries lying adjacent to the Alps, and to the river Rhone. According to some writers, they were so called, because they constantly wore geses. The gese is said to have been a dart which the ancient Gauls exclusively used, and which some authors have since confounded with the pertuisane or partisun, a sort of halbert, called by others a javelin. This word was used in Provence, as late as the year 1300; for in the inventory which was taken of the goods, furniture, &c. appertaining to the Templars, we find gessor or gesus particularly specified in the list of weapons and iron instruments, which was understood to mean gese, and under that appellation was deposited in the king's archives at Aix. See BOUCHER, Hist. Prop. Liv. ii. c. 4, p. 82. This same author further asserts, that the Géti, and the Gesates took their names from that weapon. He quotes Julius Caesar's account of the word gesi in confirmation of his own opinion. Many authors have mentioned the same term among others, Justus, Lipsus, Hugo, Cheves, Vossius, &c.

GESSATÉ or GESATE, Fr. a knight among the ancient Gauls, who took delight in war, and frequently volunteered his services beyond the boundaries of his native country. Whenever a neighbouring country made a levy of men, it was usual for the gessates to accompany the troops, from a conviction that it would be dishonourable in them to remain inactive at home. These adventurers, or knights-errant, were called gessates, either on account of the gessus or large dart, which they carried, or, as Polybius imagines, on account of the subsistence which was paid them, and was called by that name.

GESTES, Fr. From the Latin gestum, or res gestae.—Brilliant actions, memorable
memorable deeds and exploits, performed by great generals.

GESTURE, a motion of the body intended to signify some idea, or passion of the mind. All officers and soldiers who make use of any menacing gesture before a commanding or superior officer, or before a court-martial, are liable to be punished by the articles of war.

GEZE, Fr. a rentrant angle, which is made with slate or lead, and forms a gutter between two roofs. It is likewise called nore, or pantile.

GERIAH, the capital and strongest part of Angria's dominions, which consisted of an extent of coast, from whence this piratical state was a perpetual source of uneasiness to the trading ships of all the European nations in India. It cost the English East-India company 50,000L. annually to protect their own ships. Eight or ten grabs, and forty or fifty gallivats, crowded with men, generally composed Angria's principal fleet, destined to attack ships of force or burthen. The vessel no sooner came in sight of the port or bay where the fleet was lying, than they slipped their cables and put out to sea. If the wind blew, their construction enabled them to sail almost as fast as the wind; and if it was calm, the gallivats rowing towed the grabs; when within cannon shot of the chase, they generally assembled in her stern, and the grabs attacked her at a distance with their prow guns, firing first only at the masts, and taking aim when the three masts of the vessel just opened all together to their view; by which means the shot would probably strike one or other of the three. As soon as the chase was dismayed, they came nearer, and battered her on all sides until she struck; and if the defence was obstinate, they sent a number of gallivats, with two or three hundred men in each, who boarded sword in hand from all quarters in the same instant.

The English, trusting to the report of the natives, had, until the year 1756, believed Gheria to be at least as strong as Gibraltar, and like that situated on a mountain, which was inaccessible from the sea. For this reason it was resolved to send vessels to reconnoitre it; which service commodore James, (grandfather to the present Lord Ran-
Giorno, Fr. the chief cluster, or assemblage of an artificial firework, with which a show, or illumination is generally concluded.

The fire-works on St. Peter's day at Rome were terminated by a girande or chest, containing no less a number than from 8 to 10,000 fusées, from which circumstance the name was adopted.

The effect, however, is not more brilliant than what has been produced in France by a smaller quantity of fusées containing larger proportions of composition.

A girande may be made by uniting several chests or clusters together, and securing, with a match of communication, a regular inflammation.

Girandoles, Fr. literally a chandelier; a cluster of diamonds.

Girandoles, Fr. circles ornamented with fusées. They are used in fireworks. See Soleils Journes.

Girouette, Fr. this word has been used by the French to signify a sort of ornament which was exclusively placed upon the houses of the ancient nobility. The author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, makes the following remarks upon the subject. "It is well known, that in ancient times, and even until the last century, noblemen alone could ornament the tops of their dwellings and dove-houses with weather-cocks; but it is not generally known, that in order to be entitled to this privilege, each nobleman must have been the foremost man in entering at the breach of a besieged place, and have planted his banner on the rampart.

Girouettes, Fr. Weather-cocks, vanes. They are seldom or ever used on shore, except as weather-cocks on tops of church-steeples, &c.

Girouette in the singular number, also means, figuratively, light, inconstant, not to be depended upon. As ce jeune officier est aussi girouette que de coutume. This young officer is as light as usual.

Gistes, Fr. pieces of wood which are made use of in the construction of platforms to batteries, and upon which the madders or broad planks are placed.

Glacis. See Fortification.

Glacis d'une corniche, Fr. an insensible slope which is made upon the cymatium (a member of architecture, whereof
whereof one half is convex, and the other concave, of a cornish.

GLADATOR, GLADIATEUR, Fr. a sword-player or prize-fighter. The old Romans were accustomed to make their slaves fight with one another at their public festivals, and the only weapon they used, was a gladius or sword.—This barbarous practice was abolished by the emperor Theodoric in the year of Christ 500; but it prevailed among the ancient Britons, and in England to a much later date.

GLAIS militaire, Fr. a military compliment which was paid to the remains of a deceased general. It consisted in a discharge of ordnance. In a civil sense, glais means the chiming of bells at the death of a parish priest.

GLAISE, Fr. clay, or potter's earth.

GLAISER, Fr. to do over with potter's earth or clay.

GLAIVE, Fr. a broad-sword or fulcillum, accentually so called from the Latin word gladius. The word is seldom used except figuratively, as, le glaive de la justice, the sword of justice.

GLAIRE, a kind of halbert, so called by the Saxons.

GLAS, Fr. knell.

GLIB act, a very ancient act of parliament, which directed, that the Irish nobility and gentry who were of English or Norman extraction, should forfeit the privileges of their original country, if they did not shave the upper lip. This act took place when Ireland was first conquered, and its object was to distinguish the descendants of the invaders from the old Irish nobility that traced its origin to Milesius, who wore a long beard.

GLIPHE, ou GLYPHE, Fr. signifies generally every species of canal or hollow, which constitutes any part of ornamental architecture.

GLOBE. See Geography.

GLOBE of compression, globe de compression, Fr. a globe used in the attack and defence of places. When the chamber of a mine has been established and completed in earth of an homogeneous nature, the powder which is deposited in it, acts, on taking fire, throughout the circumference of the said chamber, and by so doing, dislodges a large quantity of earth, and throws it up to a given distance. A globe of this sort was used at the siege of Valenciennes, when that place surrendered to his Royal Highness the Duke of York.

GLOBES ou ballons d'artifices, Fr. globes or balloons which are filled with artificial fire. They are used to set fire to an enemy's town or works, &c.

GLOBES de feu, Fr. a cartouch made of thickened paper, which is laid upon a wooden bowl, and made perfectly round. It is afterwards perforated in several places, and filled with inflammable composition that is used in the making up of lances à feu. The instant it catches, a very bright and lively fire issues out of the several holes.

GLOIRE, Fr. an artificial fire-work, which resembles a large sun, hence also called Soleil. It is made by means of an iron wheel containing four circles, each circle diminishing towards the center, and kept at equal distances from one another. Forty-eight jets de feu, or fire spouts, are tied to these circles; each jet is twenty French inches long, and there are twelve of them fixed to each of the four circles. The gloire or soleil is placed in the middle of the principal fire-work.

Military GLORY, honour, reputation and fame, acquired by military achievements. That precocious splendor, which plays round the brows of a warrior, and has been collected by hard service, extraordinary genius, and unblemished integrity; but which may desert the greatest hero through one unfortunate failure, occasioned by the futility of human imperfection.

GO. The verb to go is variously used in a military sense, as to march in a hostile, or warlike manner.

To Go off, implies to depart from any post.

To Go on, to make an attack.

To Go over, to revolve.

To Go out, to go upon any expedition, &c.

To Go out, is likewise frequently used to signify the act of fighting a duel, as he went out with a brother officer, and was slightly wounded.

GOA, a strong town on the Malabar coast, belonging to the Portuguese. The chief trade is in arrack. This fort was taken by the English April 2d, 1756.

GOBBLES. Glasses, usually worn in warm countries, to defend the eyes from
from the heat of the sun, and the dust of the soil. In order to derive real benefit from these glasses, there should be apertures round the edges to let in the air. The term is rather vulgar, but in general acceptance, and comes from To goggle—To look askance; a derivation not thoroughly appropriate.

GOLADAR or GOLDAIR, an Indian term, signifying a store keeper, or a store-house keeper.

GOLANDAAZEE, the Indian term for an artillery man.

GOLCONDAH, a province in India, comprehending the nabobships of Aracot, Canoul, Cudapa, Rajamandri and Chicacoole, &c. See History of Indostan, pages 158, 162.

GOLCONDAH, formerly a city, and the capital of the province. It stood at the foot of the rock and fortress of the same name; but the city has long since been deserted; and its inhabitants removed to Hyderabad; nevertheless its name is still frequently used in Indostan, when in reality the city of Hyderabad is meant.

GOLDEN Rock, a spot near Trichinopoly in India, which has been rendered immortal by the victory that was gained by the British troops over the French and their allies in 1753. The following extract from the first volume of the History of Indostan cannot fail to be interesting and gratifying to every English reader. We shall refer him to pages 289, 490, 291, &c. for a detailed account, and remain satisfied with giving the general issue of a bold and daring enterprise.

"The French battalion (to quote the author's own words,) was now arrived behind the rock, and their artillery from the right and left of it were firing upon the English troops; the rock itself was covered by their sepoys, supported by their grenadiers; the whole Mysore army was drawn up in one great body at the distance of a cannon shot in the rear; the Mornotoes, were, as usual, flying about in small detachments, and making charges on the flanks and rear of the English battalion, in order to intimidate and create confusion.

"In such circumstances, the officers unanimously agreed in opinion with their general, that it was safer to make a gallant push, than to retreat before such numbers of enemies; and the soldiers seeming much delighted at this opportunity, of having what they called a fair knock at the Frenchmen on the plain, Major Lawrence took advantage of the good disposition of the whole, and giving due commendations to their spirit, ordered the grenadiers to attack the rock with fixed bayonets, whilst he himself with the rest of the troops, wheeled round the foot of it to engage the French battalion. The soldiers received the orders with three huzzas, and the grenadiers setting out at a great rate, though at the same time keeping their ranks, paid no attention to the scattered fire they received from the rock, nor made a halt until they got to the top of it; whilst the enemy terrified at their intrepidity, descended as they were mounting, without daring to stand the shock of their onset. Some of the best sepoys followed the grenadiers, and all together began a strong fire upon the French troops, drawn up within pistol shot below. In the mean time, Mr. Astruck, perceiving, that the left flank of his battalion, would, if it remained drawn up facing the north, be exposed to the English troops, wheeling round the foot of the rock, changed his position, and drew up facing the west, in order to oppose them in front. But this movement exposed his right flank to the fire of the grenadiers and sepoys from the rock, by which his troops had already suffered considerably, when the English battalion executing their evolution with great address, drew up at once directly opposite to the enemy at the distance of 20 yards.

The French troops were struck with consternation upon seeing themselves thus daringly attacked in the midst of their numerous allies, by such a handful of men as 300 Europeans, with 50 belonging to the artillery, and no more than 500 sepoys. Indeed a stranger, taking a view of the two armies from the top of one of the rocks on the plain, would scarcely have believed, that the one ventured to dispute a province with the other.

Mr. Astruck exerted himself as a brave and active officer, and with difficulty prevailed on his men to keep their ranks with recovered arms, until the English gave their fire, which falling in a well-levelled
levelled discharge from the whole battalion, and seconded by a hot fire from the rock, together with a discharge of grape shot from the first field piece that came up, threw them into irreparable disorder; they ran away with the utmost precipitation, leaving three pieces of cannon, with some ammunition carts behind them. The Morattoes immediately made a gallant effort to cover their retreat by flinging themselves between, and some of the grenadiers who had run forward to seize the field pieces, fell under their sabres. Animated by this success, they attacked the battalion, pushing in several charges up to the very bayonets, and endeavouring to cut down the men, who constantly received them with so much steadiness, that they were not able to throw a single platoon into disorder; at length having suffered much, and lost several of their men by the incessant fire of the line, they desisted from their attacks, and retreated to the main body of the Mysoreans. Amongst their dead was Ballapah, one of their principal officers, brother-in-law to Morari-How, a very gallant man, much esteemed by the English, who had often seen him exert himself with great bravery when fighting on their side; he had broke his sword cutting down a grenadier, when another, who was loading his piece, and saw his comrade fall, shot both ball and ramrod through his body. In the mean time the French never halted until they got into the rear of the Mysore army, when their officers prevailed on them to get into order again, and drew them up in line with their allies, from whence they fired their two remaining field pieces with great vivacity, although the shot did not reach above half way.

"The major remained three hours at the foot of the rock, in order to give them an opportunity of renewing the fight; but finding that they shewed no inclination to move towards him, he prepared to return to his camp, leaving them to take possession of the rock again at their peril; for since the loss of the 200 sepoys that defended it at the beginning of the action, he did not think it prudent to expose another detachment to the same risque, at such a distance from his main body. The three guns with the prisoners were placed in the center, and the troops marching in platoons on each side, the artillery was distributed in the front, rear, and intervals of the column. The rear had scarcely got clear of the rock into the plain, when the whole of the enemy's cavalry set up their shout, and came furiously on, flourishing their swords, as if they were resolved to exterminate at once the handful of men that opposed them. Whosoever has seen a body of 10,000 horse advancing on the full gallop all together, will acknowledge, with the Marshals Villers and Saxe, that their appearance is tremendous, be their discipline or courage what it will; and such an onset would doubtless have disconcerted untried soldiers; but the enemy had to deal with veterans, equal to any who have done honour to the British nation; men convinced by repeated experience, that a body of well disciplined infantry would always prevail against irregular cavalry, let their numbers be ever so great. In this confidence they halted, and without the least emotion, waited for the enemy, who were suffered to come sufficiently near before the signal was given to the artillery officers; the cannonade then began from eight six pounders, loaded with grape, and was kept up at the rate of eight or ten shot in a minute from each piece, so well directed, that every shot went among the crowd, as was visible by the numbers that dropped: this soon stopped their career, and they stood awhile like men astonished by the full of thunder; but finding no intermission of the fire, and that the battalion and sepoys reserved theirs with recovered arms, they went to the right about and got out of the reach as fast as they had come on; leaving the troops to return quietly to their camp.

"Thus was Trichinopoly saved by a success, which astonished even those who had gained it; nor was the attempt, however desperate it might seem, justified by the success alone; for as the city would inevitably have fallen if the English had remained inactive, so the loss of it would have been hastened only a few days if they had been defeated; and major Lawrence undoubtedly acted with as much sagacity as spirit, in risking every thing to gain a victory, on which
which alone depended the preservation of the great object of the war."

GONDECAMA, Gondegama, a river in India, which makes the northern boundary of the province of Arco; Condavir extends between this and the river Krishna.

GONDOLA, (Gondole, Fr.) this word may be taken in two senses, viz. to signify a cup; or a small barge which is flat and long in its construction, and is only moved, or worked by oars. Gondolas are much used upon the canals in Venice; they are very remarkable for their shape, and the great swiftness with which they glide through the water. The middle sized ones are about thirty feet long, and are only four feet broad across the middle, gradually tapering towards each end, and rising in two sharp and narrow points to the ordinary height of a man. Upon the prow is fixed an iron of an uncommon length, which does not exceed half a finger's breadth in thickness; but which is four fingers broad, and is so disposed as to cut the air. The upper part of this iron, which is flatter than the rest, stretches out in the shape of a large hatchet, a full foot in length; so that when the gondola is on her way, it seems to menace every thing before it, and to force its passage.

GONDOLIERS, (Gondoliers, Fr.) the men who have the management of the gondolas at Venice are so called. The equipment of a gondola seldom exceeds two persons, even on board of those barges that belong to foreign ambassadors. It sometimes happens that there are four, when persons of distinction go to their country houses. The gondoliers never sit down, but row the barge standing upright, and push forward. One man always plies in the fore part of the gondola, and the other is at the poop.

GONFALON, an ensign or standard.

GONFANON, an ard.

GONG, the Persian word for a village.

GONG WALLAS, militia in India so called; from gong a village, and wallas, a man.

Goxg, an instrument of martial music used among the Indians.

GORGE, Fr. means any hollow between a chain of mountains, that affords a passage into an open country.

Gorge, Fr. a sort of concave moulding belonging to ornamental architecture.

GORGE, gorge, Fr. the entrance into any piece of a fortification which consists of the distance or space between the extremities of the two faces; as between the faces of a half moon, redoubt, or bastion.

Coupé-Gorge, Fr. literally means cut-throat. It is used in a military sense to signify any spot or position which affords an enemy so many advantages, that the troops who occupy it, must either surrender, or be cut to pieces.

Demi-Gorge, Fr. Half the distance between the two extreme points of the faces of a piece of fortification inwards.

Gorge d'un bastion, Fr. the space or distance between the extreme points of two flanks.

Prendre un ouvrage par la Gorge, Fr. to get round a work and take it in reverse, without having made any direct approaches in front.

GORGERIN, Fr. in ancient times, that part of the armour which covered the neck of a man. Hence our word gorget.

GORGONS, in military antiquity, a warlike female nation of Libya, in Africa, who had frequent quarrels with another nation of the same sex, called Amazons.

GOTHIC, (Gothique, Fr.) any thing built after the manner of the Goths. Various works and buildings that appear to have been constructed without any particular regard to the rules of art, are so called. All the old cathedrals are in the Gothic taste.

Monsieur de Fenelon has said, that Gothic architecture can support an immense vault upon the slightest pillars. The elevation of it is so wonderful, that although it seems ready to tumble, is perforated and full of windows in every part, and stands as it were suspended in air; it nevertheless lasts out centuries, and almost always proves more durable than the most regular buildings.

Fronton GOTHIQUE, Fr. a gothic pediment. In modern architecture, all circular or triangular gable ends are so called, when they are sculptured or three-leaved.
GOUドロン ou GOUドラン, Fr. pitch and tar.

GOUドRONs, Fr. small fascines or faggots which are well steeped in wax, pitch, and glue, and then are lighted for the purpose of setting fire to beams, planks, traverses, galleries, pontoons, &c. They are likewise used in various shapes and ways, to convey light into the ditches or upon the ramparts.

GOVERNOR of a fortification, is, or should be, a person of great military knowledge; and is a very considerable officer representing the king, whose authority extends not only over the inhabitants and garrison, but over all troops that may be there in winter quarters, cantonments, or quarters of refreshment.

Duty of a Governor in time of peace. He is to order the guards, the rounds, and the patroles; to give the parole and countersign every night after the gates are shut; to visit the posts, to see that both officers and soldiers do their duty, and that every thing goes on regularly, and in good order.

Duty of a Governor in time of war. He should consider the place in such a manner, as if the enemy were on the very eve of besieging him, not omitting the least thing that may contribute to a long and obstinate defence: he should therefore take particular care to keep the fortifications in good condition; clearing the country round of all hedges, ditches, trees, hollow roads, caverns, and rising grounds, within the reach of cannon shot; not suffering any houses to be built within that distance, nor in general any thing to be done that may favour the approach of an enemy.

He should consider well with himself every minute circumstance that may be of advantage to him during the siege; he should thoroughly examine the several works, and canvas all the different stratagems that may be used, either to defend them, or to give way when overpowered, with an intent to return and dislodge the enemy, after he has got possession of them; in short, how to defend the place entrusted to his care, inch by inch, with the best advantage. He should consider how, and in what manner the works defend each other; whether their communications are safe, or liable to be interrupted by the besiegers; how to incommode the enemy when he is at a distance, or to dislodge him when near; whether the ground be proper for mines, and when they should be made; whether any part of the country may not be laid under water, by means of dikes or sluices; if there are any already made, how to keep them in constant repair, or to make new ones if they are wanted; taking care to construct them so that the enemy may not have it in his power to destroy them either with his cannon or mortars.

If the governor be not sufficiently skilled in the systems of attack and defence, he should frequently converse with the officers of engineers and artillery who understand them; examine the works together, see what may be done to render the defence of the place as long as the circumstances and nature of the works will admit of; and to make it familiar to himself, he should set down a project of defence on paper, and have it examined by the most skilful officers of artillery and engineers about him. This must be done in private, that spies or deserters may not discover the weak parts to the enemy. In short, nothing should be neglected on the part of the governor.

He should see that the place be well supplied with ammunition, and wholesome provisions; that the hospitals are in good order, and provided with able physicians and surgeons, as likewise with every thing wholesome and necessary, that the sick and wounded may be well taken care of.

The powder magazines, above all things, require his most special care: for though they are built bomb-proof, yet when a great number of shells fall upon them, they seldom resist their shock; for which reason they should be covered 8 or 10 feet thick with earth, and a layer of fascines, dung, and strong planks laid over them.

GOUJAT, Fr. A soldier's boy. It likewise signifies an ignorant good-for-nothing fellow.

GOUJERES, according to Hamner, the French disease. From Gouje, Fr. a camp trull.

GOUINE, Fr. a woman of infamous character.

GOURDIN, Fr. a flat stick, two fingers in breadth, which was used by the French to punish galley slaves.
GOURGANDINE, Fr. a strumpet of the lowest species; a soldier’s trull.

GOUVERNAIL, Fr. a rudder.

GOUVERNEMENT, Fr. anciently meant a certain specific allotment of provinces, towns, &c. under the superintendence and government of one person who received his powers from the king, and had subordinate officers under him. There were twelve governments in France, at the first institution of monarchy, called grands gouvernements général, which were specifically noticed in all the general settings of the kingdom. They were first formed by Hugues Capet, in 987. Previous to the revolution in 1789, they were subdivided into 39 general provincial governments with inferior officers, subject to their jurisdiction; such as governors of towns, and commandants of fortified places. Each governor general was entitled to a guard of cavalry, a certain number of halberdiers and armed men on foot.

GOUVERNEUR d’une place de guerre, the governor of a fortified town or place. See gouvernir of a fortification.

GOWA, Indian term for a witness.

GRABS. Vessels peculiar to the Malabar coast. They have rarely more than two masts, although some have three; these of three are about 300 tons burthen; but the others are not more than 150 tons; they are built to draw very little water, being very broad in proportion to their length, narrowing from the middle to the end, where instead of bows they have a prow, projecting like that of a Mediterranean galley, and covered with a strong deck level with the main deck of the vessel, from which, however, it is separated by a bulk-head, that terminates the forecastle. As this construction subjects the grab to pitch violently when sailing against a head sea, the deck of the prow is not enclosed with sides as the rest of the vessel is, but remains bare, that the water which dashes upon it may pass off without interruption. On the main deck, under the forecastle, are mounted two pieces of cannon of nine or twelve pounders, which point forwards through the port holes, cut in the bulk head, and fire over the prow; the cannon of the broadside are from six to nine pounders.

GRACE, Fr. pardon, forgiveness. Faire GRACE, Fr. to pardon, to forgive.

Demander GRACE, Fr. to ask forgiveness.

GRACE-honoraire, Fr. any mark of distinction which is conferred upon military men by their sovereign.

GRACE-pécuniaire, Fr. pecuniary recompenses given to a military man for long service or good conduct.

GRADE, Fr. This word is applicable to the different ranks among officers, beginning from an ensign to the commander in chief of an army.

GRADES Militaires, Fr. the different degrees by which military men rise in their profession.

GRADINS, the various small ascents, such as bunettes, &c. by which troops march from the bottom to the top of a fortified place, in order to line the parapet.

GRAFF. See Ditch, or Moat.

GRAIN, Fr. a word used in the repairing of damaged cannon.

Mettre un Grain à une pièce, Fr. to fill up the touch-hole of a piece of ordnance; the heating it in such a manner, that the metal which is poured in may assimilate and mix. When it becomes cold, a fresh aperture is made or bored.

GRAIS, Fr. large stones resembling our Scotch pebbles. They are used in France to pave the high roads, and the corners of streets.

GRAMEN, grass, in botany.

GRAMINE, couronne gramine, Fr. a grass, or graminous crown, which was made among the Romans. See Obsidional.

GRANADE. See Grenade.

GRANADIER. See Grenadier.

GRAND. This word is frequently used both in French and English as a word of title or distinction. Les grands, the great.

GRAND division. The battalion being told off by 2 companies to each division, is said to be told off in grand divisions; hence grand division firing is, when the battalion fires by 2 companies at the same time, and is commanded by one officer only.

GRAND maître d’artillerie, Fr. grand master of the ordnance, &c. &c. &c.

GRAND soleil brillant, Fr. a sun exhibited in artificial fireworks, See Gloire.
GRAND VIZIR. See VIZIR.

GRANITE, (granit, Fr.) a sort of hard marble, which is variegated by spots and streaks, and is rather encrust-ed. It is very common in Egypt. There is a species of granite, that is of a white and violet colour; and another which is green mixed with white. The most or-dinary kind has grey and green spots scattered over a greyish white.

Columns 40 feet high have been seen in Egypt, which consisted wholly of one piece of granite. The Egyptian pyra-mids are made out of that marble; such indeed is the quantity said to exist about the country, that some authors imagine the whole extent of its foundation to be a solid rock of granite. The French distinguish this sort of marble by calling it marbre granite and marbre granitelle. In natural history it is gener ally called granita, being a dis-tinct genus of stones composed of se-parate and very large concretions rudely compacted together, of great hardness, and capable of receiving a very fine and beautiful polish.

GRANOIR, Fr. a term used in the French artillery, to signify a sort of sieve, in which there are small round holes for moist powder to be passed through, in order to make the grains perfectly round.

GRAPE shot. See Shot.

GRAPE de raisin, Fr. a piece of wood in which are placed musket balls; each bullet being enclosed in a small case, and the whole together forming a machine resembling a grape. This species of shot is discharged from ord-nance.

GRAPHOMETER, (graphometre, Fr.) among surveyors, an instrument for taking angles, and generally called a semi-circle. In mathematics it serves to measure heights and elevations, to raise plans, &c.

GRAPPLING. The French call it grapin, herisson, rison, or harpeau; it is a sort of small anchor, with 4 or 5 flukes or arms, commonly used to ride a boat.

GRAPPLING-IRONS, in the art of war, are composed of 4, 5, or 6 branches, bent round and pointed, with a ring at the root, to which is fastened a rope to hold by, when the grapple is thrown at any thing, in order to bring it near, so as to lay hold of it.

Fire GRAPPLING, an instrument which nearly resembles the above, only that it is fitted with strong bars instead of flukes, and is fixed at the yard arms of a fire-ship, to grapple her ad-ver-sary, and set her on fire. The French call this instrument grapin de brulé.

GRAS-bois, Fr. in carpentry, a term to signify any piece of wood which is too large to fit the place it was intended to fill, and which necessarily must be diminished.

GRATER un fusee, Fr. to uncrap or clear a fuse or shell for the purpose of explosion.

GRATER un vaisseau, Fr. to clean, or careen a ship.

GRATER en maconnerie, Fr. to re-store the original appearance of a wall or building, by grating the superficies with a trowel, or any other iron instrument.

GRATICULER, Fr. to divide with a pencil on a sheet of paper, any design or drawing into small equal squares, in order to reduce the original sketch or picture, or to enlarge it by the same process. This word is derived from the Italian, graticola, a gridiron.

GRATIFICATION, Fr. In a gen-eral acceptance of the term this word meant, among the French, certain re-war ds which generals gave to the troops, after a severe engagement, in testimony of their valour and good conduct. These rewards were distributed according to rank, and were presented in the King's name. This custom was prevalent in the most ancient times. According to Vegetius, all monies distributed by the Romans, as military gratifications or rewards, were deposited in the ensign or standard-bearer's hands, to be occasion-ally given to the soldiers. Some-times the generals gave directions that a certain proportion should be sequest-ered or put apart. By degrees a fund was collected; and the temptations to desert lost their influence in the super-rior attachment which every soldier felt to his standard, whose bearer was the trustee of his little property, and to whom he was consequently bound by one of the most powerful ties of the human heart—self-interest.

By gratification was likewise meant the accumulation of a certain sum, which was deposited for the specific purpose
purpose of burying a deceased soldier. We have, indeed, several instances in our own service to prove the wisdom and expediency of a regimental subscription. In the Royal Artillery, gratifications, or voluntary subscriptions, for the relief and support of the wives of deceased officers, are conducted upon the most liberal plan; and in some other corps the sergeants and corporals provide against the accidents of human nature in the same manner.

Gratification signified among the French, in a more extended sense of the word, a public reward given to a body of soldiers, on the recommendation of a general, for some signal act of bravery in the day of battle. When this happened the soldiers had a certain sum of money distributed amongst them, and the officers received annual pensions.

Gratification likewise means a certain allowance in money, which is made to prisoners of war. The British officers in France have been allowed 6d. per day, and the non-commissioned soldiers 14d. the officers have also 1s. and 6d. in lieu of rations.

Gratification annuelle, Fr. a certain pecuniary allowance which was annually given during the French monarchy, to some deserving officer, in order to increase his pay, until an opening occurred by which he might be advanced.

GRATIFIER, Fr. to reward an officer or soldier for having behaved gallantly.

GRATUER, Fr. an iron instrument which is used to clear out a shell before it is charged.

GRAVEURS, Fr. persons employed and paid by the founders of cannon for repairing damaged pieces of artillery: some individual, however, was distinguished by the name of graveur de l'artillerie, engraver to the artillery, and was permitted, by the Grand Master of the Ordnance, to exhibit over his shop-door the arms of the Royal artillery.

GRAVIR, Fr. to get up a steep place; to scale a wall, &c.

GRAVOIS, Fr. rubbish.

Great fortification. One of the divisions of the first system of M. de Vauban.—It consists in a fortification whose exterior side is from 185 to 260 toises, or from 370 to 520 yards, and is seldom adopted but towards a river or a marsh.

Great radius. The whole oblique radius. See Fortification.

GRECIAN fire, (feu Grégeois, Fr.) a sort of artificial fire, which insinuates itself beyond the surface of the sea, and which burns with increased violence, when it unites with that element. Its directions are contrary to the course of natural fire; for the flames will spread themselves downwards, to the right or left, agreeably to the movement that is given. It is composed or made up of naptha, sulphur, bitumen, gum and pitch; and it can only be extinguished by vinegar mixed with urine and sand, or with undressed leather or green hides. Some writers assert, that it was invented by an engineer (belonging to Heliopolis, a town in Syria,) whose name was Gallicus, and who used it with so much skill and effect during a naval engagement, that he destroyed a whole fleet belonging to the enemy, upon which were embarked 30,000 men. This combustible matter has retained the name of Grecian fire, because the Greeks first practised the invention. It is asserted, indeed, that the secret of making Grecian fire, which should be unextinguishable, has been long since lost; we say unextinguishable, because the ancients did not know, as we do, how to repress or put out the flame. According to the author of Oeuvres Militaires, a powerful composition, which could only be extinguished by strong vinegar (a secret unknown to the ancients) might be made of the following combustible materials; viz. pitch, rosin, tallow, camphire, turpentine, salt of nitre, liquid varnish, oil of sulphur, linseed, rock oil, flax, charcoal finely pulverized; the whole of which being boiled together and before it grows cold, mixed with quick lime, a consistence is formed that will be susceptible of the most subtle and destructive fire.

GRENADES, in the art of war, GRANADES, or are hollow balls or GRENADES, shells, of iron or other metal, about 3½ inches diameter, which being filled with fine powder, are set on fire, by means of a small fuse; driven
driven into the fuse-hole, made of well seasoned beech wood, and formerly thrown by the grenadiers into places where men stood thick, and particularly into the trenches and other lodgments made by the enemy. As soon as the composition within the fuse gets to the powder in the grenade, it bursts into many pieces, greatly to the injury of all who happen to be in its way. Grenades were first made about the time shells were invented (which see) and first used in 1594. Grenades have unaccountably sunk into disuse; but we are persuaded there is nothing more proper than to have grenades to throw into the midst of the enemy, who have jumped into the ditch. During the siege of Cassel, under the Count de la Lippe, in the campaign of 1762, a young engineer undertook to carry one of the outworks, with a much smaller detachment than had before attempted it without success. He gained his object with ease, from the use of grenades; which is a proof, that they should not be neglected, either in the attack or defence of posts.

Grenade, grenade, Fr. There is a sort of grenade which is thrown out of a mortar.

It is sometimes used for the purpose of annoying the besieging enemy; in which case quantities are rolled down the ram- part into the fosse, or ditch, upon the workmen or miners.

A grenade resembles a bomb or shell, with this only difference, that the grenade has not any handles to it.

There are some grenades, called grenades à main, hand-grenades, whose calibre is equal to that of a four pounder. The charge is from five to six ounces of gunpowder, or thereabouts. They are extremely serviceable on many occasions; but particularly so to throw among the men that are working in the trenches; numbers of whom they must inevitably wound. The vent of a hand-grenade contains about six lines, or half of a French inch.

The following proportions belong to grenades, according to their several diameters.

Grenades whose calibre is equal to that of a 24 pounder, contain 5 French inches 5 lines diameter, 6 lines in thickness, and 12 pounds in weight.

Grenades whose calibre is equal to that of a 16 pounder, contain 4 French inches 9 lines diameter, 5 lines in thickness and 8 pounds in weight.

Those that weigh 6 pounds, have 3 French inches 5 lines diameter, and are five lines thick.

Those that weigh 5 pounds, have 3 French inches 2½ lines diameter, and are 5 lines thick.

Those that weigh 3 pounds, have 2 French inches 8 lines diameter, and are 4½ lines thick.

Those that weigh 2 pounds, have 2 French inches 4 lines diameter, and are 4 lines thick.

Those that weigh 1 pound have 1 French inch 10 lines diameter, and are 3 lines thick.

Those that weigh three quarters of a pound, have 1 French inch 8 lines diameter, and are 3 lines thick.

Those that weigh half a pound, have 1 French inch 8 lines diameter, and are 3 lines thick.

Those that weigh a quarter of a pound, have 1 French inch 6 lines diameter, and are 2½ lines thick.

These proportions were formerly attended to in the old French service, with occasional deviations from the strict measurement of the lines; as it was supposed to be of little consequence whether the grenades fitted the mortars exactly. It was, indeed, generally thought advisable to adapt their sizes, so that they might be thrown out without the least resistance or compression.

Grenades were directed to be thicker at the breech than elsewhere, in proportion to their several diameters.

Theodore D'Urtubie, in his Manuel de l'Artileur, gives the following succinct account of grenades. That writer observes, "that besides bombs or shells, and howitzers, hollow vessels made of iron in globular shapes, which are called grenades, are frequently used; gunpowder is poured in through the cavity or vent, called in French lamiere, into which a fuse loaded with a composition of combustible materials is introduced."

There are two sorts of grenades. Those
Those distinguished by the name of grenades de rumpart, are rolled from the top of the parapet into the ditch; they are equal in caliber to that of a 33 and a 16 pounder.

The other species is called grenades à main. These are thrown into the covert way, and the trenches, &c. Their caliber is that of a 4 pounder, and they weigh 2 pounds. The ordinary thickness of grenades is 4 lines throughout.

It will occur to our military readers, that by this account a considerable alteration has taken place in the casting of grenades, as the intermediate differences have been consolidated; hand-grenades, instead of being thicker at the breech, are uniformly of the same consistency. It cannot, however, be thought superfluous to preserve the original dimensions.

**GRENADE-ROULANTE, Fr. a species of hand-grenade from 15 to 20 pounds weight, which is thrown into fosses, &c.**

**GRENADES TURGUES, Fr. Turkish grenades.** A sort of grenade which is made by the Turks. Their grenades are extremely defective, and do little execution.

**GRENADEUR,」 a foot soldier, GRANADER, 」 armed with firelock, bayonet, and in some services with a hanger: grenadiers carry, besides their arms, a cartridge box that will hold 36 rounds. They are clothed differently from the rest of the battalion they belong to, by wearing a high cap, fronted with a plate of brass, on which the king's arms is generally represented, &c. and a piece of fringed or tufted cloth upon their shoulders, called a wing: in some armies they have more pay than a common soldier. They are always the tallest and stoutest men, consequently the first upon all attacks. Every battalion of foot has generally a company of grenadiers belonging to it, which takes the right of the battalion. Grenadiers were first instituted in France in 1607, by having 4 or 5 to each company; but in the year 1670, they were formed into companies, and in 1685, were first known in the British service.

**HORSE-GRENADEURS, called by the French, grenades volans, or flying grenadiers, are such as are mounted on horseback, but fight both on foot and horseback. They were first established in France by Lewis XIV. in 1676, and formed into squadrons. We had in Eng-**

land two troops of horse-grenadier guards, the first raised in the year 1693, the command of which was given to lieutenant-general Cholmondeley; the second in 1701, which was commanded by lord Forbes.

**GRENADEUR March, a beat on the drum which is practised with the grenadiers, or when the whole line advances to charge an enemy.**

**GRENAIERS auxiliaires, Fr. auxiliary grenadiers. During a siege, and when a place was closely invested, a certain number of grenadiers were chosen out of the battalions belonging to the trenches, for the purpose of making head against the besieged, whenever they might risk a sally, or insult the works. It was the peculiar duty of these men to stand forward on every occasion, to set fire to the gabions attached to the batteries, and to crush every attempt which might be made by the garrison to annoy the men that were posted in the trenches, &c.**

It was customary among the French to increase the number of those grenadiers, who went first into danger and did the duty of the trenches. These were called grenadiers postiches, or extra grenadiers.

**GRENAIERS-POSTICHES, Fr. a body of men composed of several battalions of militia, which, during the French monarchy, were trained and exercised for the purpose of augmenting the corps of royal grenadiers, a sort of supplementary corps.**

**GRENAIERS-ROYAUX, Fr. royal grenadiers. A body of troops under the old French government, which consisted of several battalions or regiments of militia, drawn out of the supplementary grenadiers, and all composed of grenadier companies.**

**GRENAIERS, au GIBERNES, the bags or baversacks which hold the grenades. They are worn like powder-flasks.**

**GRENIER, Fr. Mettre en grenie; to stow any thing loosely.**

**GRENOIR, Fr. a sort of sieve through which gun-powder was passed, and formed into grains of different sizes.**

**GREVE, Fr. any flat space of ground on the bank of a river, or near the sea. A place in Paris is so called, where, during the old government of France, all criminals were executed. Greve is also used to signify the gallows.**
GREVE, Fr. armour, or covers for the legs. They were anciently worn by the French; and generally consisted of a piece of steel or stiff leather, which protected the front part of the leg.

GRIFFE, Fr. means literally a claw, but in a military sense, as accepted by the French, it signifies an iron instrument which is made like a hook, and is used by miners to pick out the small stones that are incorporated with cement, &c.

GRIGNON, Fr. broken biscuit.

GRISON, a people formerly in alliance with Switzerland, but since annexed to the French republic. They inhabit the mountainous parts of the Alps in Italy, and support a well organized army, called the army of the Grisons, under General Macdonald.

GROS, Fr. a body of soldiers, a detachment. The French frequently say —Un gros de cavalerie, a body of cavalry; un gros d'infanterie, a body of infantry.

Le Gros d'une armée, Fr. the main body of an army; that part which remains after any detachments, &c. have been marched away.

Gros-Corps, Fr. a large body of armed men, consisting of horse, foot, and artillery, which are encamped, cantoned, or in garrison together.

Gros équipages d'une armée, Fr. the heavy baggage, consisting of the train of artillery, &c. which belongs to an army.

GROUND, the field or place of action.

GROUND-work, in military architecture. See FOUNDATION.

GROUND arms, a word of command on which the soldiers lay down their arms upon the ground.

This word of command has been exploded since the introduction of the new exercise. Soldiers are now ordered to pile arms.

To take GROUND. A battalion or company is said to take ground when it extends in any given direction. This term is likewise used in duelling, as—They took their ground at eight or ten paces from one another.

GRUE, Fr. a crane. It is frequently used in the embarkation and debarkation of cannon, &c.

GUARANTEE, any person or power who undertakes for the performance of any stipulations agreed on between two other powers or parties.

GUARD, in the military art, is a duty performed by a body of men to secure an army or place from being surprised by an enemy. In garrison the guards are relieved every day; hence it comes that every soldier mounts guard once every 3 or 4 days in time of peace, and much oftener in time of war. See HONOURS.

GUARDS, also imply the troops kept to guard the king's person, and consist of both horse and foot.

Horse-grenadier GUARDS, were divided into two troops, called the 1st and 2d troops of horse-grenadier guards. The first troop was raised in the year 1693, and the command given to lieutenant-general Cholmondeley; the second in 1702, and the command given to Lord Forbes. Each troop has a colonel, lieutenant-colonel, 1 guidon or major, 3 exempts and captains, 3 lieutenants, 1 adjutant, 3 cornets, and 60 private men.

Life GUARDS. In consequence of the reduction of the horse grenadier guards, two regiments have been raised for the specific purpose of guarding the metropolis, and of escorting his majesty. They are generally called the First and Second Life Guards. Each regiment consists of six troops of 53, and 1 kettle drum.

Although the Life Guards generally do duty about the metropolis, it must be recollected, that they were not raised for that specific purpose only. They are enlisted for general service, like the men of the line or Foot Guards, and no stipulation of any sort is made with them. During the late war, and in the present contest, both regiments are, by general orders, in constant readiness to march at a moment's notice; having their tents, camp-equipment, and every article fit for service.

With respect to rank, in addition to what has already been said on that subject, it is necessary to state, that the majors in the life guards rank as lieutenant-colonels, and by his Majesty's order, they can only exchange with lieutenant-colonels. The lieutenant-colonels rank as full colonels, and cannot exchange with any one under that rank.
For the like reason, that rank should not be obtained by an exchange; a major of the life-guards cannot exchange with a major in the line, nor a lieutenant-colonel with one of the same rank.

Royal Regiment of Horse Guards.
This regiment, which is commonly called the Oxford Blues, from having originally been raised by the Earl of Oxford, consists of nine troops. The quarter-masters belonging to this corps are an exception to the general regulations that affect the quarter-masters of all cavalry regiments. The latter hold their commissions by warrants, but the former have the sign manual to their appointments. His Majesty holds a troop in this respectable corps.

Women of the Guards, first raised by Henry VII. in the year 1485: they are a kind of foot-guards to the king's person, and are generally called by a nickname—the beef-eaters, a term derived from Buffet, Fr. a sideboard. They were anciently 250 men of the first rank, under gentry, and of a larger stature than ordinary, each being required to be 6 feet high. At present there are but 100 on constant duty, and 70 more not on duty; and when any one of the 100 dies, his place is supplied out of the 70. They go dressed after the manner of King Henry VIII.'s time. Their first commander or captain was the Earl of Oxford.

Foot Guards, are regiments of foot appointed for the guard of his majesty, and his palace, and for general service. There are 3 regiments of them, called the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd, regiment of foot-guards. They were raised in the year 1660, when the command of the first was given to Thomas, Lord Wentworth; that of the second to George, Duke of Albemarle; and the third to George, Earl of Linlithgow. The second is always called the Coldstream, from a place named Coldstream, a small market town in Berwickshire, where the men were first raised. This regiment, in point of standing, is older than the first, having been raised sooner, and commanded by General Monk, from whom it originally took its name, viz. Monk's regiment or corps; and in compliment to whom, it was made one of the three Royal regiments by Charles the second. The first regiment is at present commanded by 1 colonel (his Royal Highness William, Duke of Gloucester), 1 lieutenant-colonel, 3 majors, 27 captains, 1 captain-lieutenant, 62 lieutenants, 24 ensigns, and 3 adjutants, and consists of three battalions. The second regiment, or Coldstream, has 1 colonel (Field Marshal his Royal Highness the Duke of York), 1 lieutenant-colonel, 2 majors, 16 captains, 1 captain-lieutenant, 42 lieutenants, 14 ensigns, and 2 adjutants, and consists of 2 battalions. The third regiment is the same as the second, and is commanded by John, Duke of Argyll. The first regiment of French guards was raised in the reign of Charles IX. in the year 1563.

Trench Guard only mounts in the time of a siege, and consists sometimes of 3, 4, or 6 battalions, according to the importance of the siege. This guard must oppose the besieged when they sally out, protect the workmen, &c.

Provost Guard, is always an officer's guard that attends the provost in his rounds, to prevent desertion, marauding, rioting, &c. See Provost.

Magazine Guard. See Store-Keeper.

Advanced Guard, is a party of either horse or foot, or both, that marches before a more considerable body, to give notice of any approaching danger. These guards are either made stronger or weaker, according to the situation or danger that may be apprehended from the enemy, or the country through which an army is to be marched.

Van Guard. See Advanced Guard.

Artillery Guard, is a detachment from the army to secure the artillery when in the field. Their corps de garde is in the front of the park of artillery, and their centeries are dispersed round the same. This is generally a 48-hours guard; and upon a march this guard marches in the front and rear of the artillery, and must be sure to leave nothing behind. If a gun or wagon breaks down, the officer that commands the guard is to leave a sufficient number of men to assist the gunners and matrosses in raising it.

Artillery quarter-Guard, is frequently a non-commissioned officer's guard from the royal regiment of artillery, whose corps de garde is always in the front of their encampment.
Artillery rear-Guard consists of a corporal and 6 men, posted in the rear of the park.

Advanced or Quarter-Guard, &c. (commonly called by the French Corps de Garde, which also means a guard or detachment, from which sentries are posted in different directions,) are soldiers entrusted with the guard of a post, under the command of one or more officers. This word also signifies the place where the guard mounts.

Counter Guard. See Fortification.

Grand Guard. A guard composed of three or four squadrons of horse, commanded by a field officer, posted about a mile, or a mile and a half from the camp on the right and left wings, towards the enemy, for the better security of the camp.

Forage Guard, a detachment sent out to secure the foragers, who are posted at all places, where either the enemy's party may come to disturb the foragers, or where they may be spread too near the enemy, so as to be in danger of being taken. This guard consists both of horse and foot, who must remain on their posts till the foragers are all come off the ground.

Main Guard, is that from whence all other guards are detached. Those who are to mount guard assemble at their respective private parades, and march from thence to the general parade in good order, where, after the whole guard is drawn up, the small guards are detached to their respective posts: then the subalterns cast lots for their guards, who are all under the command of the captain of the main guard. This guard mounts in garrison at different hours, according to the pleasure of the governor.

Piquet Guard, a given number of horse and foot, always in readiness in case of an alarm: the horses are generally saddled all the time, and the riders booted.

The foot draw up at the head of the battalion, frequently at the beating of the tat-too; but afterwards return to their tents, where they hold themselves in readiness to march upon any sudden alarm. This guard is to make resistance, in case of an attack, until the army can get ready.

Baggage Guard, is always an officer's guard, who has the care of the baggage on a march. The wagons should be numbered by companies, and follow one another regularly: vigilance and attention in the passage of hollow-ways, woods, and thickets, must be strictly observed by this guard, and flankers should be thrown out.

Ordinary Guards, such as are fixed during the campaign, or in garrison towns, and which are relieved daily.

Extraordinary Guards, or detachments, such as are only commanded on particular occasions; either for the further security of the camp, to cover the foragers, or for convoys, escorts, or expeditions.

Soldiers are sometimes ordered to take extraordinary guards, as a punishment for slight misconduct.

Quarter Guard is a small guard commanded by a subaltern officer, posted in the front of each battalion, at 222 feet before the front of the regiment.

Rear Guard, that part of the army which brings up the rear on a march, generally composed of all the old grand-guards of the camp.

The rear guard of a party is frequently 8 or 10 horse, about 500 paces behind the party. Hence the advanced guard going out upon service, forms the rear guard in a retreat.

Rear Guard is also a corporal's guard placed in the rear of a regiment, to keep good order in that part of the camp.

Standard Guard, a small guard under a corporal, which is taken out of each regiment of horse, and mounts on foot in front of each regiment, at the distance of 20 feet from the streets, opposite to the main street.

To be upon Guard. See Mounting Guard.

To relieve Guard. See Relieve.

Turn out the Guard! A phrase used when it is necessary for the guard to form for the purpose of receiving a general or commanding officer; on the approach of an armed party; on the beat of drum or sound of trumpet, or any alarm.

Port Guard, a guard detached from the main guard. All officers on port or detached guards are to send a report, night and morning, to the captain of the main guard, and at all other times, when any thing extraordinary occurs. Those who command at the ports are to draw up the bridges, or shut the barriers,
barriers, on the approach of any body of armed men, of which they are to give notice to the officer of the main guard, and not to suffer any of them to come into the garrison without leave from the governor or commander. See General Regulations.

Out-Guards. Under this head may not improperly be considered outposts, advanced piquets, and detachments. In the last printed Regulations it is observed, that the duties of outposts are so various as usually to require detailed instructions according to circumstances. The following directions are therein stated to be generally applicable, and must be strictly attended to by the British army, especially if there should be any occasion for it to act upon home service. The duty of outposts, &c. is chiefly confined to light troops, who are occasionally assisted and relieved by the line. They are always, in that case, under the immediate direction of some general. But when circumstances render it necessary, that this duty should be done from the line, the outposts fall under the command of the general officers of the day, unless some particular officer be put in orders for that specific command.

All outguards march off without trumpets sounding, or drums beating; they pay no compliments of any kind; neither do their sentries take any compliments notice of officers passing near their posts. No guards are to presume to stop any persons coming to camp with provisions (unless they be particularly ordered so to do), and are on no account to exact or receive any thing for their free passage.

Any officer, trumpeter, or other person, who comes from the enemy's camp, is to be secured by the first guard he arrives at, till the commander in chief's, or the general's pleasure is known. When a deserter comes in from the enemy, the officer commanding the post, or guard, at which he arrives, is immediately to send him under a proper escort, (without permitting him to be delayed or examined, or any questions asked him) to the officer commanding the outposts, who after enquiring whether he brings any intelligence immediately relating to his own post, will forward him to head-quarters.

The sentries on the outposts are always to be double. No officers, soldiers, or followers of the camp, are on any account to be suffered to pass the outposts without they are on duty, or present a regular pass from head quarters.

The men on advanced piquets are to carry their provisions with them, ready cooked, when circumstances will permit. The cavalry to carry sufficient forage for the time they are to be out.

It is the duty of officers on all guards to inspect every relief of sentries, both when they go on, and come off their posts; to call the rolls frequently, and by every means in their power to keep the men under their command in the most perfect state of vigilance and preparation.

Officers commanding outposts are to send guides, or orderly men, to the major of brigade of the day, or to the brigade-major of their own brigades, as circumstances require, in order to conduct the new guards, and to carry such orders as may be necessary.

When the army is on a march, the officers must apprise the brigade-majors of the situation of their posts, as soon as they arrive at them. All detachments of brigades, which are ordered to march immediately, are to be taken from the piquets, and replaced directly from the line.

Whenever detachments consist of 200 men, or upwards, a surgeon or assistant-surgeon is to be sent from the corps of the officer who commands. On particular duties, the attendance of a surgeon or assistant-surgeon may be requisite with smaller detachments. Detachments of cavalry, of 50 or upwards, will be attended by a farrier.

As soon as an officer commanding an outpost, or advanced piquet, (whether of cavalry or infantry) arrives on his ground, he must endeavour to make himself master of his situation, by carefully examining, not only the space he actually occupies, but the heights within musket-shot; the roads and paths leading to or near his post, ascertaining their breadth and practicability for cavalry and cannon. He should examine the hollow ways that cover the approach of an enemy; and, in short, consider all the points from which he is most likely to be attacked, either by cavalry or infantry. He will, by these means, be enabled
enabled to take measures to prevent the possibility of being surprized; and should he be attacked during the night, from the previous knowledge he has obtained of the ground, he will at once form a just estimate of the nature of the attack, and make his arrangements for defence with promptitude and decision. In order to convey the same salacity to his men, and to prepare the most unexperienced for sudden and unexpected attacks, an officer upon an outpost will do well to put them upon the alert, by skilfully occasioning false alarms. But these must not be often repeated, nor when practised be made known to his men as having proceeded from himself; since supineness and inactivity might by degrees be the consequences of such a discovery.

An intelligent officer upon an outpost, even unprovided with entrenching tools, will materially strengthen his post, when the unobserver would remain inactive. A tree felled with judgment; brushwood cut to a certain distance; pointed stakes, about breast high, placed on the points most assailable by an enemy, may be attended with the greatest advantages, and can be effected with the common hatchets, which the men carry to cut fire-wood. In short, every impediment which an officer, acting on the defensive, can throw in an enemy’s way, ought to be scrupulously attended to. Independently, therefore, of the means which he adopts for the immediate protection of his posts, he must look beyond that point; and as nothing checks the armour of troops more than an unexpected obstacle, within an hundred yards, more or less, of the place attacked, he must, on his arrival at the outpost, throw up some temporary impediment at that distance. See General Regulations 34 to 37.

Mounting Guards. It is indispensably necessary, that every officer should know how to mount and come off guard. The following is the regulation to be observed on that head in the British service.

All guards are to parade with shoudered arms, and unfiled bayonets, without any intervals between them, the ranks open, and the Sergeant with pikes carried. The officers with their swords drawn, and non-commissioned officers commanding guards, to be formed about forty paces in front of the center, in two ranks, facing the line, where they are to receive the old parole and such orders as may be given them.

The major or commanding officer will give the word of command—

“Officers and non-commissioned officers, outward face!—Take post in front of your respective guards!—Quick, March!

As soon as they have taken post, fronting their respective guards, the word of command will be given—

“Officers and non-commissioned officers—to your guards—March!—Halt!—Front!”

“Officers and non-commissioned officers, inspect your guards!”

The several officers and non-commissioned officers will then inspect their guards, as quick as possible. When there is a captain’s guard, each officer is to take a rank, followed by a serjeant.

As soon as the inspection is over, the adjutant will go down the line, and receive the report of each guard; the officers return to their posts; and the major, or commanding officer, will then—

“Order arms!—Fix bayonets!—and Shoulder!”

When the colours are brought on the parade, the troop is beat; and the drummers call on the right.

The captain will face inwards, and the lieutenant and ensign will face to the right, and march, quick time, to the head of the grenadiers. The captain goes to the head of the right of his remaining men. The field officer then orders the grenadiers to close their ranks, and to march off in quick time, the lieutenant being three paces advanced in front of his men, and the ensign one. The colours will be received as usual; and the grenadiers, on their arrival on the left flank of the guards, will file at ordinary time, through the ranks; the lieutenant, and the colours, in front of the front rank. The guards are to march off at ordinary time, and by divisions, taking care, that when they open their ranks, the front rank of each keeps its exact distance from the front rank preceding it. When there are more officers than one belonging to the same guard, the second in rank is to take post and to march past the commanding officer on the
the parade, at the head of the last division, instead of being in the rear of it. When there is an officer, senior to the field officer of the day, on the parade, the guards are to march by and salute him: the field officer of the day, in that case, marching at their head.

Guard-rooms, (Corps de Guard, Fr.) places where guards are stationed for a given time. Although the following articles should properly come under the heads of furniture and utensils, we do not think them entirely out of place under a more ostensible point of observation.

Cavalry and infantry Guard-rooms are allowed a water-bucket, candlestick, tin can for beer, and drinking horns; they are also allowed fire-irons and coals tray, from the 1st of September to the 1st of May, when they are to be taken into store.

N. B. The rooms of the quarter-masters and sergeants of cavalry, and the sergeant-major and quarter-master sergeant of infantry, to be furnished with the necessary bedding and utensils in the same manner as is allowed to the soldiers' rooms. For a more specific account, see the General Regulations.

Guard, in fencing, implies a posture proper to defend the body from the sword of the antagonist.

The word guard is seldom applied among small swordsmen to any position but those of carte and tierce; the other motions of defence are stiled parades. See FENCING.

Guards of the broad sword. The positions of defence adopted with that weapon are generally termed guards, and may be comprised under the inside-guard, half-circle guard, hanging guard, half-hanging guard, medium guard, outside guard, St. George's guard, and Spaniard guard. See BROAD-SWORD.

Prepare to Guard, in the cavalry sword exercise, is performed by bringing the extremity of the sword-bilt up to the pit of the stomach, with the back of the hand outwards; the blade of the sword to be carried perpendicularly, with the flat towards the face. From this position the guard is taken by darting the sword hand smartly forwards towards the left ear of the antagonist.

Guard, in the cavalry sword exercise, is used to denote one particular position, which consists in holding the sabre near-

ly horizontal across the face, the point rather higher than the hilt, the sword-hand directed towards the left ear of the antagonist. Although this be peculiarly denominated guard, yet it is not to be considered as a position calculated to meet every sort of attack, or an eligible position to charge an enemy; but as the central point from which the requisite change for attack or defence may be effected. The other positions of defence in the cavalry exercise are stiled PROTECTS.

GUAULADOURS, Turkish pioneers. Arménians and Greeks are generally employed in the Turkish armies, to do the fatigue-work that is necessary for the formation of a camp, or for conducting a siege.

GUDDA, an Indian term for a small fort erected upon a hill or eminence.

GUDGE, an Indian measure 24 inches long.

GUÉRITÉ, Fr. this is also called Echauguette, centry box, small turret. In fortified towns there are several small turrets of this denomination, which are sometimes made of wood, and sometimes built with stone. They are generally fixed on the acutoe points of bastions, and centinels are posted within them, for the purpose of watching the ditch, and of preventing any surprise in that quarter.

Those used upon the Continent, particularly in France, contain from 3 to 4 French feet diameter within, and are 7 or 8 feet high. Their general shape or figure is round, pentagonal, hexagonal, &c.

There are apertures made on every side, through which the centinel can observe every thing that passes in the ditch. A path about 2 or 3 feet broad is cut through the parapet and the banquet, up to the entrance of the guérité. Wooden guérites are generally used where the rampart is lined with turf only.

The spots best adapted for guérites are, at the flanked angles of bastions, and at the angles of escaulments. Sometimes indeed, they are placed in the center of the curtains. They must jut out at the point of the angle, and the ground floor should be upon a line with the cordon, which is a sort of fillet or trace that marks the separation of the rampart from the parapet. They must likewise
hands of a conqueror, who might afterwards molest the contracting party, the latter should observe many precautions before he withdraws from the contest; the principal one is to demand the possession of some strong places upon the frontiers, to prevent the inhabitants of the country that is attacked from making a separate peace.

The general selected to command an auxiliary army must be endowed with wisdom and foresight. He must be wise and intelligent in order to preserve discipline and good order among his troops: and have foresight to provide for the wants of his army in a strange country, and to see that the men are not sent more into action than they ought, and that nothing is done in the prince's cabinet contrary to the interest of his employer.

GUERRE de montagne, Fr. a war which is chiefly carried on in a mountainous part of the country. This species of warfare is extremely hazardous, as it cannot be pursued without a thorough knowledge of the country, and by means of able stratagems. Marshal Saxe, in his Roveries, lays it down as a rule, that no army or detachment must venture into passes or narrow ways, without having first secured the eminences round them; and if the enemy should defend the gorges or outlets, false attacks must be resorted to, in order to divert his attention from a real one which is made against a weak quarter. It frequently happens that byeways are found out, which have escaped the enemy's observation, and through which detached bodies may penetrate for the purpose of turning his flanks. In a guerre de montagne, or mountain-contest, it is essentially necessary, that the advancing body should keep up a regular and safe communication with its rear, as well to secure a retreat if necessary, as to have a free intercourse with its convoys.

GUERRE de chieeure, Fr. See War, of chieue or stratagem.

GUERRE Sainte, Fr. a romantic expedition which was made by the Christians against the infidels in Palestine, for the purpose of re-conquering the Holy Land, from whence it was called holy war, or guerre sainte. See Crusade.
French expressions:

- **Fouledre de Guerre**, Fr. a figurative expression among the French, to mark the character of a man who has distinguished himself in battle, and is acknowledged to possess a superior degree of valour.

- **Flambeau de la Guerre**, Fr. the torch of war. Any person who causes war to be carried on with violence and animosity is so called.

- **Aller à la petite Guerre**, Fr. to go out in detached parties for the direct purpose of plundering an enemy's country.

- **Faire bonne Guerre**, Fr. to carry on hostilities with as much humanity as the laws of war will permit.

- **Faire bonne Guerre à quelqu'un**, Fr. to treat with a man decently, but vigorously, on matters that require explanation and final arrangement.

- **Guerre et pitié ne s'accordent pas ensemble**, Fr. a French proverb, signifying that war and comiseration seldom go hand in hand.

- **Guerre juste**, Fr. a just and necessary war, generally caused by the aggression of a rival nation. Hence the late contest with France has been uniformly called by the British ministers une guerre juste, a just and necessary war on the part of England, because they maintain, that the French revolutionists in 1792 were the First aggressors; the French, on the other hand, assert the reverse. With respect to the present contest, we can only say, that both countries may severely feel the effects of national animosity and competition, before the blessings of peace can be restored.

- **Guerre injuste**, Fr. an unjust war.

- **Longue Guerre**, Fr. a long war.

- **Guerre étrangère**, Fr. a foreign war.

- **Guerre d'outre mer**, Fr. a war beyond the seas.

- **Gens de Guerre**, Fr. See GENS.

- **Le métier de la Guerre**, Fr. The profession of arms. Hence it is figuratively said, lesFrancois sont au fait du métier de la guerre de terre, et les Anglais sont au fait du métier de la guerre de mer. Frenchmen are at the top of the profession of arms on land, and Englishmen are unrivalled at sea.

- **Les lois de la Guerre**, Fr. The laws of war.

- **Le droit de la Guerre**, Fr. the rights of war.

- **Ruse de Guerre**, Fr. a warlike stratagem.

- **En temps de Guerre**, Fr. in time of war.

- **Munitions de la Guerre et de bouche**, Fr. warlike stores, and provisions.

- **Préparatifs de Guerre**, Fr. warlike preparations.

- **Place de Guerre**, Fr. a fortified place.

- **Machine de Guerre**, Fr. a warlike instrument or machine.

- **Conseil de Guerre**, Fr. a council of war. It likewise means a court martial.

- **Vaisseau de Guerre**, Fr. A ship of war.

- **Vaisseau armé en Guerre**, Fr. an armed vessel.

- **C'est un grand homme de Guerre**, Fr. he is a warlike character.

- **Les malheurs de la Guerre**, Fr. the misfortunes of war.

- **Avoir Guerre**, Fr. to commence hostilities.

- **Avoir la Guerre**, Fr. to be in a state of warfare.

- **Les fruits de la Guerre**, Fr. the fruits or consequences of war.

- **Entreprendre la Guerre**, Fr. to enter into a war.

- **Déclarer la Guerre**, Fr. to declare war.

- **Soutenir la Guerre**, Fr. to maintain the war.

- **Entretenir la Guerre**, Fr. to support the war.

- **Ces deux princes sont en Guerre**, Fr. these two potentates are at war.

- **Etre en Guerre ouverte**, Fr. to be at open war.

- **Se faire la Guerre**, Fr. to make war with one another.

- **Aller à la Guerre**, Fr. to go to war.

- **Allumer la Guerre dans un état**, Fr. to light up a war, or excite troubles in any state or country.

- **Porter la Guerre dans le cœur d'un pays**, Fr. to carry war into the heart of a country.

- **Guerre entre les puissances égales**, Fr. war between two powers which are nearly equal in point of strength, and do not act with auxiliary troops.

- **Qui terre a Guerre a**, Fr. a French proverb, signifying, every man who has landed property is exposed to feuds and litigation.

- **GUERRES du Roi**, Fr. Wars entered
tered into by the old kings of France against their powerful vassals. Before the consolidation of the French monarchy, as it remained until the revolution in 1789, &c. a distinction was made between what the King's forces, and those belonging to the State; so that whenever a difference occurred between the sovereign and the powerful Seigneurs or Lords in the provinces, the contest was called guerre du Roi, or the King's war. On these occasions the latter could only force his immediate dependants to accompany him; so that frequently the forces of the insurgents were more numerous than those of the King. Louis, surnamed Le Gros, was more than three years in continual warfare, before he could subdue Bouc- chard de Montmorency, whom three other great lords had joined. The war with the barons, amongst us, was of this description.

GUERRIER, Fr. Warrior.
Un grand GUERRIER, Fr. a great warrior.

Les plus fameux GUERRIERS, the most celebrated warriors.

It is also used as a substantive in the feminine gender, when speaking of an amazon, as, la vaillante guerrièrë.

GUERRIER, Fr. as an adjective is variously used, viz. warlike, any thing appertaining to war.

Actions GUERRIÈRES, Fr. warlike actions.
Travaux GUERRIÈRES, Fr. works of a military or warlike nature.
Exploits GUERRIÈRES, Fr. warlike exploits.
Courage GUERRIER, Fr. a warlike disposition.
Humeur GUERRIERE, Fr. a warlike spirit or temper.
Nation GUERRIERE, Fr. a warlike nation.
Il a l'air GUERRIER, Fr. he has a warlike look or appearance.
Il a la mine GUERRIERE, Fr. he has a warlike aspect.

GUERRÔYER, Fr. to make war.
GUERROYEUR, Fr. a warrior.

GUET, Fr. This term was particularly attached to those persons belonging to the French body guards, that did duty over the king's person during the night.

GUET de la mer, Fr. the watch which

the inhabitants belonging to parishes, towns, or fortified places, situated on the sea coast, were bound to keep for their security. On occasions of this sort, the signal of alarm was made during the day by smoke, and during the night by lighted combustibles.

GUET, Fr. in a military sense, signifies rounds, or those duties of a soldier, or patrolling party, which are prescribed for the security of a town, &c. and to prevent surprises.

Faire le GUET au haut du beffroi, Fr. to be put upon duty, or stand watch at the top of a church belfry.

Assoir le GUET, Fr. to set the watch.
Poser le GUET, Fr. to post the watch.
Etre au GUET, Fr. to be upon the watch.

GUET à pied, Fr. foot patrol.

GUET à cheval, Fr. horse patrol.

Ce sont les bourgeois qui font le GUET, Fr. the inhabitants of the place go the rounds.

Cri au GUET, Fr. the hue and cry.
Le GUET vient de passer, the patrol has just passed.

Avoir l'œil au GUET, Fr. to be minutely watchful and observing. It also signifies to be listening for the direct purpose of acquiring information.

Maison de GUET, Fr. round-house.
Mots de GUET, Fr. watch-word.

Donner le mot de GUET, Fr. to give the watch-word.

Se donner le mot de GUET, Fr. to understand one another. In familiar intercourse it means likewise to play booty together.

GUET-opens, Fr. Ambush; any premeditated design to injure another in a clandestine manner. The French frequently use this expression; as Ce n'est point un rencontre ni un duel, c'est un GUET-opens, Fr. it is neither an accidental meeting nor a duel, it is a downright plot to murder him.

Droit du GUET et garde, Fr. a right which was formerly enjoyed in France, by some lords of the manor, and by which they were authorized to call upon their vassals to watch and patrol for the security of their castles.

GUETRE, Fr. See GAIZTER.

Tirer les GUETRES, Fr. Go about your business; a familiar phrase which is used among the French when a person is discarded, or turned away in a summary
summary manner. It in some degree corresponds with our expression, to the right about.

Il y a laissé ses Guèttes, Fr. a figurative expression among French soldiers, signifying, that a person died in such a place.

GUETRER, Fr. to put on gaiters.

GUETTE, Fr. a name given by the French carpenters to a stake that is fixed sideways, and which serves for various purposes.

GUETTER, Fr. a familiar phrase, signifying to watch the motions of any body, for the purpose of circumvention or surprise.

GUETTER likewise means to watch for a fit opportunity to get access to any person.

Il y a des sersens qui le Guettent, Fr. there are serjeants who watch him closely.

Le soldat Guettoit son colonel pour lui presenter un placet, Fr. the soldier watched his colonel, in order to lay his petition before him.

GUSEE, Fr. a rough piece of iron, which has been melted, and has not gone through any further process or purification.

GUICHET, Fr. a small door or outlet, which is made in the gates of fortified towns. It is generally four feet high, and two broad; so that a man must stoop to get through. In 1669, the high town of the city of Albusquerque, in Spain, escaped being surprized by means of one of these outlets. In garrison towns, the guichet is left open for the space of one quarter of an hour after the retreat, in order to give the inhabitants time to enter.

GUICHET d’une porte d’écluse, Fr. an opening which is made in the gate of a sluice, and which closes by means of a flood-gate. It serves to let in water when wanted.

GUIDES, (guides, Fr.) are generally the country people in the neighbourhood where an army encamps; they are to give intelligence concerning the country, the roads by which to march, and the route by which the enemy may approach. Guides should be faithful, because in giving false intelligence, or guiding the troops wrong, they may greatly endanger the army. Several guides are requisite, as every corps that marches by night should have one at least. There is sometimes a captain or chief of the guides, who should be a man of intelligence, active, and attentive to the diligence and fidelity of his people. He should always have a sufficient number with him, and who are well acquainted with the country.

In time of war, particularly in the seat of it, the guides invariably accompany head quarters, and a certain number is allotted not only to general officers, but to all detachments made from the main body, either for the purpose of combating the advanced posts of an enemy, of protecting escorts, or securing convoys. Guides, in an army, may be justly called its principal outsets. They are to a body of men, what the eyes are to the human frame. They cannot however, be too jealously watched.

Corps des Guides, Fr. The corps of guides. This body was originally formed in France in the year 1756, and consisted of one captain, one 1st lieutenant, one 2d lieutenant, 2 serjeants, two corporals, one anspeasse, and twenty privates, called fusiliers-guides.—Twelve out of the twenty-five (which was the effective number) were mounted. These consisted of one serjeant, one corporal, and ten fusiliers. Their particular duty was to carry orders that required dispatch; and on this account they were always attached to head quarters. The twelve fusiliers were mounted on small active horses, about four French feet, five or six inches high. They were supplied with a saddle, blue saddle-cloth trimmed with white, holster-caps the same; and they were armed with a fusil and cut-and-thrust bayonet, a pistol, sabre, with a cartouch-box, containing 20 rounds. They wore half boots, or bottines. Each man carried, moreover, one field utensil out of the twelve belonging to the company. These utensils consisted of four hatchets, four shovels, and four pick-axes. The thirteen fusilier guides on foot were armed with a fusil six inches shorter than the regular musket, with a blade bayonet and a cartouch-box, holding twenty rounds of ball-cartridges. Their uniform was a blue coat, waistcoat and breeches, with flat white metal buttons. The hat was bordered with common white lace for the soldiers, and of a superior quality for the serjeants; which latter had three silver brudenbroughs.

Rr hanging
hanging from each shoulder. The corporals had three made of white worsted, and the anspeassead two ditto.—
The daily pay of the captain was 4 livres, or 6s. 8d. the 1st lieutenant 1 livre, 7 sols, and 6 deniers, equal to 2s. 4d. the 2d lieutenant 1 livre, or 10d. each serjeant 13 sols, or 6¼d. each corporal 10 sols, or 5d. each anspeassead 8 sols, 6 deniers, or 4½d. and each private 6 sols, 6 deniers, or 3½d. The establishment of the Corps de Guides, under the present dynasty, is much more splendid and expensive. They usually parade in Paris with the consular guard.

GUIDON, Fr. See Sight.

GUIDON, in ancient military history, the name of a sort of standard carried by the king's life-guards; it is broad at one extreme and almost pointed at the other, and slit or divided into two.

GUIDON also implies the officer who carries the standard.

GUIDONS, in the French service, were exclusively attached to the Gendarmerie; and among them the word meant as with us, not only the standard but likewise the officer who carried it.

GUIGNEAU, Fr. This word means the same thing as chevaître. It is a piece of wood which joins the joists of a floor, that are cut to make room for the hearth of a chimney-piece.

GUILLAUME, Fr. A tool somewhat like a plane, which is used by carpenters, and of which there are several sorts, according to the nature of the work.

GUINDAS, Fr. All machines which by means of a wheel and its axis serve to raise heavy loads are so called by the French.

GUINDER, Fr. To draw up any weight. Hence the term guindage, which is applied to the movement of loads that are raised and let down.

GUINEA, a coin well known in Europe, and particularly so in Great Britain and Ireland; once in plentiful circulation, but of late years a very scarce commodity.

Marching Guineas, a sum of money which is given to every soldier in the British Militia when he first marches out of the county. This money is paid to the captains of companies by the agent of the regiment, who receives the same, upon their signatures, from the receiver general of the county or riding.

Expiration Guineas, the sum of money which is paid to a militiaman when the period for which he was enlisted expires. This money ought more properly to be called the renouvel, as it is literally given for duties to be performed; or rather for a continuation, instead of expiration, of service. It is also paid by the captains of companies.

GUISARMIERS, Fr. A body of free archers, or bowmen, who took their name from an offensive weapon called guisarme or jusarme, somewhat similar to the voulge, a sort of javelin which was used in hunting the wild boar. Its length was equal to that of the habelt, and it had a broad piece of sharp iron fixed to one end.

GULLY. Any hollow which has been made by running water. Ambuscades are frequently laid in such places.

GUN, a fire-arm, or weapon of offence, which forcibly discharges a bullet through a cylindrical barrel by means of gunpowder. The term is chiefly applied to cannon.

Sommerus derives gun from mangon, a warlike machine which was used before the invention of guns. He establishes his derivation by taking away the first syllable.

Carricule GUNS are small pieces of ordnance, mounted upon carriages of two wheels, and drawn by two horses. The artillery-man is seated on a box, and the whole can be moved forward into action with astonishing rapidity.—The tumbrils belonging to carricule guns carry 60 rounds of ball cartridges.—Great improvements are daily making in this machine on account of its acknowledged utility.

Great Gun. See Cannon.

Evening Gun is generally a 6 or Morning Gun 12 pounder, which is fired every night about sun-set, and every morning at sun-rise, to give notice to the drums and trumpets of the army to beat and sound the retreat and the reveille.

Gun-fire. The time at which the morning or evening gun is fired.

Gun-boat, a boat which is generally made with a flat bottom, and used to form a kind of floating battery, to cover the landing of troops.

Gover's Gun-carriage, a machine lately
lately invented by a Mr. Gover of Rotherhithe, the merits of which consist in the following particulars:

**General advantages of the above gun-carriage over the common one.**

1st. It may be worked with one-third the number of men that are necessary to work the common gun-carriage, and with abundant more ease and safety to the men that work it.

2dly. Its motion of traversing is so easy, that it may be always thrown fore and aft and loaded within board (if approved of) clear of the port-hole; which will preserve the men from the enemy’s small arms; it is also, when loaded, readily run out again and pointed to the object with ease and certainty.

3dly. As the gun with its carriage, moves on an inclined plane, which may be raised or lowered, as the situation of the ship, or object to be fired at requires, by means of a jack, which enables the captain of the gun (as he is termed) to run the gun out himself by giving the plane a sufficient inclination; the same means which produce this effect do also retard the counteraction of the gun, which circumstance cases the breeching as well as the ship’s sides greatly when the gun recoils.

**Advantages in the above carriage over the common carriage, when the lee-guns are engaged.**

When the lee-gun is discharged upon the common carriage, and recoils to the extent of its breeching, if the men are not very attentive to the relieving tackles, which at all times they cannot be, the ship at the same time having a heel, the gun immediately returns to the port, so that the men upon the old plan, are obliged to house the gun in again before it can be loaded, which makes it as difficult in fighting the lee guns as the weather guns; but the difficulties are obviated in the above carriage by its having a pole, which, when the lee-guns are discharged, drops and prevents the gun returning to the port until loaded again; this also prevents the necessity of relieving tackles.

**Advantages or benefit arising from securing the guns fore and aft when at sea, or out of action.**

When guns are secured fore and aft they stow snug and close to the ship’s side, resting upon two or three beams, and afford more room within board to work and manage the ship, especially on the upper deck; it gives the advantage of keeping all the ports close shut and the guns dry on the lower deck; it also conceals them from the enemy until it is necessary to use them; they can be got ready for action much sooner than in the old way, when secured athwart ship, by the breeching and tackles being trapped together, and muzzledashed over the port. When a gun is secured athwart-ship, the muzzle of the gun rests entirely against the short timbers over the port, being the weakest part of the ship’s side; and it is the opinion of many experienced mariners, that several ships have foundered, that many have proved very leaky and got damaged from the working of the guns against the sides, when boused in that manner, and often break loose by the strain and working of the ship beyond what the breechings and tackles will allow.

**Advantages of the above carriage over the common one in pointing the gun.**

The captain of the gun (as he is termed) will be capable of running the gun to the port without any assistance, whether to windward or to leeward, by means of the jack, as before-mentioned; he will also be able to traverse it fore and aft, elevate or depress the gun himself, with much more ease and certainty of doing execution than in the common carriage, for the following reasons: the captain of the gun standing at the train of the carriage with a lanier of the lock in one hand, and the handle of the screw in the other, he traverses, elevates, or depresses the gun without depending upon other men, and the moment it is pointed at the object, he discharges it, and consequently is the more sure of doing execution; so that at a proper distance for a ship to engage, he must be a very indifferent gunner to miss striking the object; whereas upon the common plan, in action, great part of the powder and shot is expended without doing any execution whatever.

The inventor of this carriage observes, that during the last war, in his majesty’s service, he has seen men in action take
take nearly five minutes to point the gun, and perhaps not near the object at last; for it must be observed, that before the train of a common carriage can be moved, you must entirely relieve the trucks from the deck: and the men who perform this service, not standing at the breech of the gun, but at the side of the carriage, cannot see the object they are directing the gun at: and this accounts for the great uncertainty of the shot doing execution.

If the ship has a pitching motion, it will be necessary to apply tackles to steady the gun; one man to each tackle-fall will be sufficient for this purpose. The captain of the gun will stand at the train of the gun, with the handle of the screw in his hand, directing these men to train the gun until it comes to the object he is aiming at, he then immediately discharges the gun without being under the necessity of giving these men any signal to drop the tackle-falls. The tackles, moreover, being hooked to the traversing carriage are not affected by the recoil of the gun, therefore the men would not be injured if they had the tackle falls in their hands when the gun is discharged; neither are they in the least danger of being injured by the projection of the trucks or ropes that are applied to the common gun-carriage, as this new carriage acts without those projections.

Directions how to manage the carriage, in order to point the gun with greater certainty.

In order to attain the true level of the gun, with the surface of the water, when the ship, or the object of its attack should happen to be surrounded with smoke, and the gunner consequently deprived of any certain mode of pointing the gun by his eye, it will be proper to observe the following rule: let the gunner, when the ship is in smooth water, and the carriage is consequently upon a level with its surface, place the inclined plane in a horizontal position, and the gun point blank, then let him wind up the jack till the plane has inclined enough to give the gun motion towards the port, and observing the number of turns the jack requires for that purpose, which will not exceed three, he will turn the same back again, which brings the gun point blank, and consequently certain of doing execution.

The common carriages, possessing no such mechanical principles to ascertain the level of the gun with the surface of the water, when the object is obscured from the sight, can be under no certainty (but quite the reverse) of the effect of the shot; whereas, within a moderate distance for ships to engage, this principle insures nearly the certain effect of striking the object, and therefore the proportion of this effect is reasonable, and moderately calculated at three to one in favour of this gun-carriage; and thus a considerable expence in the saving of powder and shot is produced.

Disadvantages that attend pointing a gun, mounted on the common gun-carriage.

In training the common carriage you are obliged to apply iron crows and handspikes, which are very dangerous in action; and, although you are obliged to apply those instruments on account of the great power required to move them, it must be considered a very uncertain way of pointing a gun. Suppose the captain of the gun directs these men with crows and handspikes to train the gun fore or aft, as occasion may require, it is probable they may train the gun too far, then it must be trained back again; and after the captain of the gun has laid it, as he supposes, to do execution, it is his duty to see the breeching tackle-falls and men clear before he discharges the gun, as many accidents happen for want of strict attention to the clearing the tackles, ropes, &c. that are applied to the common carriage, and too often, while the captain of a gun is taking these precautions, the position of a ship may be so altered as to make the shot go wide of the object.

Another material advantage which the new gun carriage possesses, is the preservation of the ship's decks, which by the use of iron crows and handspikes to the common carriage, are very much damaged and torn, particularly in ships that go to sea short-handed, as it is impossible to traverse the guns, or house them to the port (if a weather gun), without the assistance of these prejudicial instruments; therefore a considerable
able expense will be saved in the preservation of ships decks by the principles of this invention.

The new-invented carriage would be a considerable saving by the reduction of men, or an advantage in short complements, as the proportion of 250 men, on the old plan, would not require 100 on the new; and a ship would go to sea much better prepared for fighting than they do with the common carriage with 250 men.

Comparative statement of the advantages of the patent gun-carriage over the common one in point of expense.

The common gun-carriage.

This carriage used on board a ship of war, or Indiaman (upon supposition), carrying 40 guns and 160 men, will require of that number, to be properly managed, 140 men to work her full broadside of 20 twelve-pounders, at the rate of 7, the usual complement of men, to each gun; in which case there are 20 only left to manage the ship.

The patent carriage.

With the use of this carriage on board a ship, carrying the same number of guns, and 100 men only, the full complement of men to each gun being 3, it will require only 60 men to work her broadside, consequently 40 are left to work the ship; but if necessity should require both sides of the ship to be engaged at the same time, then the complement of 3 may with propriety be reduced to 2, who will with greater ease and expedition, and considerable more certainty of effect, work the gun than the full complement to the common carriage. In this case the whole 40 guns may be worked with 80 men, and 20 are then left to work the ship. Thus it appears, that a ship carrying 100 men, with the use of this new carriage, will have considerable advantages over one with 160 men upon the common plan.

Allowing, therefore, the superior advantage of the ship with 100 men over the 160 (and so in proportion) the complement of men is reduced to 60; and calculating the expense of that number for 18 months at 5l. per month, it will be found to amount to 5100l. from which deducting the first additional expense of fitting out a ship of 40 guns with carriages of this construction, amounting to 400l. there will remain 5000l. saving to every ship fitted out upon this scale.

Advantages the patent gun-carriage possesses over the common one in throwing the guns overboard.

The last, though not the least, important advantage that the patent carriage possesses over the common one, is the ease with which the gun may be dismounted and thrown overboard in stress of weather, or to avoid an enemy of superior force, which is sometimes the only expedient left to save the lives of the people, as well as the ship. This service is effected in the following manner, viz.

The carriage, which is supposed to be secured, must be cast loose, and trained athwart-ship, square with the ship's sides, and in the center of the port fore and aft; the jack must then be shipped, and the gun run out (and in case the motion of the ship should be so violent as to cause the gun to run backwards and forwards on the inclined plane, it will be necessary to stop the gun out) the bed and coin must then be taken out, and the cross bar, which supports the inclined plane when the gun is secured, must be laid across the graduations of the upper carriage, resting on the two sides of the same, so as to depress the muzzle of the gun as much as possible; the bed should then be placed upright; with the thick end bearing on the sill of the port, and the thin end to receive the underside of the gun near the center as possible; the capsquares must then be turned back to let the gun rise; the plane, which is now wound down as low as the train of the carriage will admit, must be wound up as high at the train, as the length of the rack of the jack will allow, which raises the body of the gun considerably above the carriage; and the gun, which now rests with its breech on the cross bar, and the center of the metal on the bed, may, by two men pinching at the breech with a handspike, be thrown overboard, without the assistance of tackles or any thing else but what belongs to the gun.

If a roller were laid on the port-sill within the bed, that would facilitate the rolling of the gun out of the port when the bed falls; this service is performed with four men only, being the number quartered to the gun in action, and in the short space of five minutes.
A comparative statement of the two plans, with their full complement of men to each gun.

**Old plan.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guns</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-pounder</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 do.</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 do.</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 do.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 do.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 do.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 do.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total:** 70

**New plan.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Guns</th>
<th>Men</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>32-pounder</td>
<td>6 or 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34 do.</td>
<td>5 or 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 do.</td>
<td>4 or 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 do.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 do.</td>
<td>5 men to 2 guns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 do.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 do.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total:** 27

Comparative statement of arming a frigate's main deck with 28 twenty-four-pounders, weight 48 cwt. mounted on common carriages; and one with 28 twenty-four-pounders (medium guns), weight 31 cwt. mounted on patent carriages, together with the number of men necessary to each plan, when either the broadside or the whole of the guns are engaged; to which is added, the charges of powder to each gun, and the expense incurred by each mode of arming.

**Heavy guns and common gun-carriages.**

| Number of guns to main-deck | 28 |
| Nature of gun | 24-pounder |
| Weight of gun | 48 cwt. |
| Number of men to each gun | 12 |
| Number of men to broadside of 14 guns | 168 |
| Number of men to both sides, 28 guns | 336 |
| Charge of powder, weight | 8 lbs. |
| Expence of each gun and carriage | 58s. |
| **Total expence** | 1624s. |

It is necessary to observe, that the 24-pounder sea-service gun, weighing 48 cwt. is the lightest 24-pounder at present in his majesty's service.

Medium guns and patent carriages.

| Number of guns to main-deck | 28 |
| Nature of gun | 24-pounder |
| Weight of gun | 31 cwt. |
| Number of men to each gun | 4 |
| Number of men to broadside of 14 guns | 56 |
| Number of men to both sides, 28 guns | 112 |
| Number of men saved, when both sides are engaged | 224 |
| Charge of powder, weight | 4 lbs. |
| Expence of each gun and carriage | 60s. |
| **Total expence** | 1680s. |
| **Extra expence** | 56s. |

It appears by the above statement, that a frigate carrying 28 twenty-four-pounders (heavy guns and common carriages) on her main-deck, will, if both sides are engaged, require 336 men, which exceeds the complement generally allowed to ships of that force; consequently, there is not a man left for other services; whereas, a ship carrying the same number of guns on her main deck, 24-pounders, of a medium nature (but equally as effectual), mounted on patent carriages, would require but 112 to fight both sides; there are then 224 men left for other purposes of war, two-thirds of which might be spared, if found necessary, for manning the prizes, or for other services; and the frigate thus reduced in men, would be able to make a better defence with her great guns than she could with her full complement on the common plan. The additional expence incurred by arming a ship with medium guns and patent carriages will be about 55l. but if the usual complement of men were reduced ten, that reduction could not be felt, and would lessen the annual expence of a frigate about 700l. There will also be a considerable saving in the expence of gunpowder, the medium gun requiring but one-sixth of the shot’s weight; whereas the heavy gun requires one-third, being double the quantity.

Thus it appears, that a ship armed with medium guns and patent carriages will have considerable advantages over one with the common plan; and from the facility and accuracy with which they are worked, would have a double effect; and by the proposed reduction of
of men it will be found, that a considerable saving would be obtained by this mode of arming ships.

**Advantages of the patent carriage when applied to garrison service.**

This carriage is made after the same principle as that intended for sea-service, with this difference only:

As the breeching must be made fast to iron rings in the sides of the lower carriage, it will be necessary to make it about one-third longer than the sea-service carriage, for the purpose of easing the breeching and bolt by which it is fixed to the platform, by giving the gun a longer recoil. Its motion of traversing is the same, and the gun will run over the breastwork or embrasure by means of the jack and inclined plane with one man only instead of six, which are now necessary for the same service, and in one-sixth part of the time. This carriage would be found admirably constructed for a battery en barbette, the rollers being set in such a direction as to permit it being traversed to any angle that may be required. The breeching of the gun being dependant on the carriage only, will not impede the recoil of the gun in any direction. Its motion of traversing is so easy and quick, that one artilleryman might angle it to 90° in less than half a minute, so that no vessel could possibly pass a battery thus constructed without being damaged; the jack also serves to elevate and depress the gun with the greatest facility as well as accuracy, and is much the best method of elevating or depressing the gun. This carriage may also be transported without the least difficulty from one part of a battery to another, by means of an Hanoverian truck being applied to the train of the carriage, which relieves the rollers at the train, and the carriage is then perfectly adapted to that service. If the battery is erected with stone, the carriage may traverse with a chain in the same manner as at sea; the chain hanging to a hook fastened in the breastwork.

But if the breastwork is formed of earth, and incapable of holding a hook, it will then be necessary to drive a piece of timber of square dimensions, similar to a pile, perpendicularly into the earth, to receive an iron bolt, about 2½ inches diameter, which passes perpendicularly through the breast or truck transom of the lower carriage, and then into this pile or timber head, and placed at such a distance from the breast-work as to admit of the carriage being traversed to 90°. This is similar to the present method of fixing carrouselades at sea, which, with the length of the recoil given, together with the resistance the re-action of the gun meets with by recoiling up the ascent of the inclined plane, would be perfectly secure for any length of action, or for guns of any caliber.

As this gun can never move from its given center, and consequently at all times forming one radius, in cases where the battery is en barbette, an entrenchment should be formed exactly to the radius of the carriage, and at such a distance from the train as to enable the men who are quartered at the handspikes to walk completely round the platform with ease, and deep enough to keep the men who train the gun under cover of the breast-work; so that one man only is exposed to the fire of the enemy. The use of locks are also recommended to guns thus mounted, as it not only enables the man who points it, to fire the instant it bears on the object, but also keeps the other men from being exposed to danger; which necessarily must be the case when the match or port-fire is applied to discharge the gun. Three men will be sufficient to work a 24-pounder of 40 cwt. and from the facility with which they are worked, 1 gun would be equal to 3 on the present principle; and from the accuracy with which it is traversed, elevated, and depressed, the greatest advantages must result from the certainty there is of the effect of the shot.

**GUNNEL, or © the lower part of GUNKALE, any port where ordnance is planted. It likewise means that beam in a pontoon which supports the main waste.**

**GUNNER, in the artillery, is the second rank of private men in the royal regiment of artillery.**

**Master Gunner, one who teaches the men on ship-board to load and fire the guns; he is also a patent officer of the ordnance in garrisons. The master gunner of the Tower has the principal care of the armoury.**

**Gunners.**
GUNNERS. All gunners under the ordinance are within the meaning of the mutiny act. See Section 72.

GUNNERY, the art of determining the motions of bodies shot from cannon, mortars, howitzers, &c. See the article PROJECTILE.

The late ingenious Mr. Robins, having concluded from experiments, that the force of fired gunpowder, at the instant of its explosion, is the same with that of an elastic fluid of a thousand times the density of common air, and that the elasticity of this fluid, like that of the air, is proportional to its density, proposes the following problem:

The dimensions of any piece of artillery, the weight of its ball, and the quantity of its charge being given; to determine the velocity which the shot will acquire from the explosion, supposing the elasticity or force of the powder at the first instant of its firing to be given.

In the solution of this important problem, he assumes the two following principles: 1. That the action of the powder on the shot ceases as soon as it is got out of the piece. 2. That all the powder of the charge is fired, and converted into an elastic fluid, before the shot is sensibly moved from its place.

These assumptions, and the conclusions above-mentioned, make the action of fired gunpowder to be entirely similar to that of air condensed a thousand times; and from thence it will not be difficult to determine the velocity of the shot arising from the explosion: for the force of the fired powder diminishing in proportion to its expansion, and ceasing when it is got out of the piece; the total action of the powder may be represented by the area of a curve, the base of which represents the space through which the ball is accelerated, while the ordinates represent the force of the powder at every point of that space; and these ordinates being in reciprocal proportion to their distance from the breech of the gun, because when the spaces occupied by the fired powder are as 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. the ordinates representing it will be as 1, 1-half, 1-3d, 1-4th, &c. it appears that the curve will be a common parabola, and that the area intercepted between is an asymptote; and that the two ordinates representing the force of the powder at the first explosion, and at the muzzle of the piece, will represent the total action of the powder on the shot: but if the shot were urged through the same space by an uniform force equal to its gravity, the total action of this force would be represented by a rectangle, the base of which would be the base of the curve or intercepted portion of the asymptote above-mentioned, and the height of which would represent the uniform force of gravity. Hence the square of the velocity of the shot resulting from gravity is given, being the velocity it would acquire from a height equal to the space through which the powder accelerates it; and the proportion between the hyperbola and the rectangle is given from the analogy between the hyperbolic places and logarithms; therefore the velocity of the ball arising from the action of the fired gunpowder will be given.

Mr. Robins has also given us an ingenious way of determining, by experiments, the velocity with which any shot moves at any distance of the piece it is discharged from.

This may be effected by means of a pendulum made of iron, having a broad part at bottom, covered with a thick piece of wood, which is fastened to the iron by screws; then having a machine like a common artillery-gun, on two of its poles, towards their tops, are screwed sockets, on which the pendulum is hung by means of a cross piece, which becomes its axis of suspension, and on which it should vibrate with great freedom. Somewhat lower than the bottom of the pendulum there should be a brace, joining to which the pendulum is suspended; and to this brace there is fastened a contrivance made with two edges of steel, something in the manner of a drawing-pen; the strength with which these edges press on each other, being diminished or increased at pleasure by means of a screw. To the bottom of the pendulum should be fastened a narrow ribbon, which, passing between the steel edges, may hang loosely down by means of an opening cut in the lower piece of steel.

The instrument being thus fitted, if the weight of the pendulum, the respective distances of its center of gravity,
vity, and of its center of oscillation from the axis of suspension, be ascertained; it may from thence be found what motion will be communicated to this pendulum by the percussion of a body of a known weight, moving with a known degree of velocity, and striking it into a given point; that is, if the pendulum be supposed to rest before the percussion, it will be known what vibration it should make in consequence of such a blow; and if the pendulum, being at rest, is struck by a body of a known weight, and the vibration which the pendulum makes after the stroke is known, the velocity of the striking body may from thence be determined.

Now the extent of the vibration made by the pendulum may be increased by the ribbon: for if the pressure of the steel edges on the ribbon be regulated by the screw, so as to be free and easy, though with some minute resistance to hinder it from slipping itself; then setting the pendulum at rest, let the part of the ribbon between the pendulum and the steel edges be down straight, but not strained, and fixing a pin in the part of the ribbon contiguous to the edges, the pendulum, swinging back by means of the impulse of the ball, will draw out the ribbon to the just extent of its vibration, which will be determined by the interval on the ribbon between the edges and the space of the pin.

The computation by which the velocity of the shot is determined from the vibration of the pendulum, after the stroke, is founded on this principle of mechanics; that if a body in motion strikes another at rest, and they are not separated after the stroke, but move on with one common motion, then that common motion is equal to the motion with which the first body moved before the stroke; whence, if that common motion and the masses of the two bodies are known, the motion of the first body before the stroke is thence determined. On this principle it follows, that the velocity of a shot may be diminished in any given ratio, by its being made to impinge on a body of weight properly proportioned to it.

It is to be observed, that the length to which the ribbon is drawn, is always near the chord of the arc described by the ascent; it being so placed, as to dif-

fer insensibly from those chords which must frequently occur; and these chords are known to be in the proportion of the velocities of the pendulum acquired from the stroke. Hence it follows, that the proportion between the lengths of the ribbon, drawn out at different times, will be the same with that of the velocities of the impinging shots.

Now from the computations delivered by Mr. Robins, it appears, that if the velocity of the bullet was 1641 feet in one second of time, when the chord of the arc described by the ascent of the pendulum, in consequence of the blow, was 17\(\frac{1}{4}\) inches, the proportion of the velocity with which the bullets impinge, to the known velocity of 1641 feet in one second, will be determined.

Mr. Robins is (till of late) the only author who has attempted to ascertain the velocity of a military projectile by experiment; yet his conclusions seem to be unsatisfactory. Perhaps he was too much attached to the forming of a system, and warped his experiments a little in favour of it. The resisting power he assigns to the air is probably too great; and his notion of the tripling of this power when the velocity of the projectile exceeds that of sound, seems to be rather an ingenious conceit than a well-grounded fact. However, experiment alone must decide these points.

The great importance of the art of gunnery is the reason that we distinguish it from the doctrine of projectiles in general; for in truth it is no more than an application of those laws which all bodies observe when cast into the air, to such as are put in motion by the explosion of guns, or other engines of that sort: and it matters not whether we talk of projectiles in general, or of such only as belong to gunnery; for, from the moment the force is impressed, all distinction, with regard to the power which put the body first in motion is lost, and it can only be considered as a simple projectile.

Every body cast into the air moves under the influence of two distinct forces. By the one it is carried forward with an equal motion, and describes equal spaces in equal times, in the direction in which it was projected; and by the other, which we call gravity, is drawn downwards in lines perpendicular to
to the surface of the earth, with a motion continually accelerated, or whose velocity is always increasing. If either of these forces were destroyed, the body would move according to the direction of the other alone, so far as its motion was not hindered by the interposition of other bodies; but as both continue to act, the course of the projectile must be determined by a power compounded of those two forces.

Definitions of Gunneriy. 1. The impetus at any point of the curve is the perpendicular height to which a projectile could ascend, by the force it has at that point; or the perpendicular height from which a body must fall to acquire the velocity it has at that point.

2. The diameter to any point of the curve is a line drawn through that point perpendicularly to the horizon.

3. The points where the diameters cut the curve are called vertexes to these diameters.

4. The axis is that diameter which cuts the curve in its highest or principal vertex, and is perpendicular to the tangent at that point or vertex.

5. The ordinates to any diameter are lines drawn parallel to the tangent at the point where that diameter cuts the curve, and intercepted between the diameter and curve.

6. The abscession is that part of the diameter which is intercepted between the ordinates and the curve.

7. The altitude of the curve is the perpendicular height of the principal vertex above the horizon.

8. The amplitude, random, or range, is the distance between the point of projection and the object aimed at.

9. The elevation of the piece is the angle its axis (produced) makes with the horizon, and the axis itself is called the direction.

10. The horizontal distance to which a mortar, elevated to a given angle, and loaded with a given quantity of powder, throws a shell of a given weight, is called the range of that mortar, with that charge and elevation.

11. The inclination of a plane is the angle it makes with the horizon either above or below.

12. The directrix is the line of motion, along which the describing line or surface is carried in the genesis of any plane or solid figure.

Laws of Motion in Gunneriy.

1. Spaces equally run through with equal velocities, are to one another as the times in which they are run through, and conversely.

2. Spaces equally run through in the same or equal times, are to one another as the velocities with which they are run through, and conversely.

3. Spaces run through are in the same proportion to one another, as their times multiplied into their velocities, and conversely.

4. A body urged by two distinct forces in two different directions, will in any given time be found at the point where two lines meet that are drawn parallel to these directions, and through the points to which the body could have moved in the same time, had these forces acted separately.

5. The velocities of bodies, which by the action of gravity began to fall from the rest, are in the same proportion as the times from the beginning of their falling.

6. The spaces run through by the descent of a body which began to fall from rest, are as the squares of the times, from the beginning of the fall.

7. The motion of a military projectile is in a curve.

Gun-powder, a composition of saltpetre, sulphur, and charcoal, well mixed together, and granulated, which easily takes fire, and expands with amazing force, being one of the strongest propellents known.

Invention of Gun-powder, is usually ascribed to one Bartholdus Schwartz, a German monk, who discovered it about the year 1320; it is said to have been first used in war by the Venetians against the Genoese in the year 1380. Threlfall says its inventor was one Constantine Anelzen, a monk of Friburg. Peter Moxia says it was first used by Alphonsus XI. king of Castile, in the year 1342. Ducange adds, that there is mention made of this powder in the registers of the chambers of accounts of France, so early as the year 1338; and our countryman, friar Bacon, expressly mentions the composition in his treatise De Nullitate Magiae, published at Oxford in the year 1216. Some indeed are of opinion, that the Arabians or the latter Greeks were the first.
first inventors of gun-powder about the middle ages of our era; because its Arabic name is said to be expressive of its explosive quality. Considerable improvements have lately been made in the composition of gun-powder by the Chinese.

Method of making Gun-powder. Take saltpetre, sulphur, and charcoal; reduce these to a fine powder, and continue to beat them for some time in a stone mortar with a wooden pestle, wetting the mixture occasionally with water, so as to form the whole into an uniform paste, which is afterwards reduced to grains, by passing it through a sieve; and in this form, being carefully dried, it becomes the common gun-powder. For greater quantities mills are used, by means of which more work may be performed in one day than a man can do in a hundred. See Mill.

This destructive powder is composed of 75 parts nitre, 9 sulphur, and 16 of charcoal in the 100.

How to refine saltpetre. Put into a copper, or any other vessel, 100 weight of rough nitre, with about 14 gallons of clean water, and let it boil gently for half an hour, and as it boils take off the scum; then stir it about in the copper, and before it settles, put it into your filtering bags, which must be hung on a rack, with glazed earthen pans under them, in which sticks must be laid across for the crystals to adhere to: it must stand in the pan for 2 or 3 days to soak; then take out the crystals and let them dry. The water that remains in the pans, boil again for an hour, and strain it into the pans as before, and the saltpetre will be quite clear and transparent; if not, it wants more refining; to effect which proceed as usual, till it is well cleansed of all its earthy parts.

How to pulverize saltpetre. Take a copper kettle whose bottom must be spherical, and put into it 14 lb. of refined saltpetre, with 2 quarts or 5 pints of clean water; then put the kettle on a slow fire; and when the saltpetre is dissolved, if any impurities arise, skim them off; and keep constantly stirring it with 2 large spatters till all the water exhalates; and when done enough it will appear like white sand, and as fine as flour; but if it should boil too fast, take the kettle off the fire, and set it on some wet sand, by which means the nitre will be prevented from sticking to the kettle. When you have pulverised a quantity of saltpetre, be careful to keep it in a dry place.

Different kinds of Gun-powder. It being proper that everyone who makes use of gun-powder should know of what it is composed, we shall give a brief account of its origin and use. Gun-powder, for some time after the invention of artillery, was of a composition much weaker than what we now use, or than that ancient one mentioned by Marcus Græcus: but this, it is presumed, was owing to the weakness of their first pieces, rather than to their ignorance of a better mixture; for the first pieces of artillery were of a very clumsy, inconvenient make, being usually framed of several pieces of iron bars, fitted together lengthways, and then hooped together with iron rings; and as they were first employed in throwing stone shot of a prodigious weight, in imitation of the ancient machines, to which they succeeded, they were of an enormous bore. When Mahomet II. besieged Constantinople in the year 1453, he battered the walls with stone bullets, and his pieces were some of them of the caliber of 1200 lb., but they could not be fired more than 4 times in the 24 hours, and sometimes they burst by the first discharge. Powder at first was not grained, but in the form of fine meal, such as it was reduced to by grinding the materials together; and it is doubtful, whether the first graining of it was intended to increase its strength, or only to render it more convenient for the filling it into small charges, and the loading of small arms, to which alone it was applied for many years, whilst meal powder was still made use of in cannon. But at last the additional strength, which the grained powder was found to acquire from the free passage of the fire between the grains, occasioned the meal-powder to be entirely laid aside. The coal for making gun-powder is either that of willow or hazel; but the lightest kind of willow is found to be the best, well charred in the usual manner, and reduced to powder. Corned powder was in use in Germany as early as the year 1568; but it was first generally used in England in the reign of Charles I.
Government-powder, Powder, which having undergone the customary proof established by the board of ordnance, is so called, and received into the king's magazine.

It has been recommended by a French writer to preserve gun-powder at sea by means of boxes which should be lined with sheets of lead. M. De Gentien, a naval officer, tried the experiment by lodging a quantity of gun-powder, and parchment cartridges, in a quarter of the ship which was sheathed in this manner. After they had been stowed for a considerable time, the gun-powder and cartridges were found to have suffered little from the moisture; whilst the same quantity, when lodged in wooden cases, became nearly half rotted.

Proof of Gun-powder, as practised by the board of ordnance. They first take out of the several barrels of gun-powder a measure-full, of about the size of a thimble, which is spread upon a sheet of fine writing paper, and then fired; if the inflammation be very rapid, the smoke rise perpendicular, and if the paper be neither burnt nor spotted, it is then judged to be good powder.

Then 2 drams of the same powder are exactly weighed, and put into an éprouvette; which, if it raises a weight of 24 pounds to the height of 3½ inches, it is received into the king's magazine as proof.

Gun-powder proper. See Éprouvette.

Gun-room, (Soinée Barbe, Fr.) the place where arms, &c. are deposited on board a ship.

Gun-shot, (Portée de Fusil, Fr.) the reach or range of a gun. The space through which a shot can be thrown.

Gun-shot-wound, any wound received from the discharge of cannon or fire-arms.

Gunsmith, (armurier, Fr.) a man who makes fire-arms.

Gunstick, (bouquet, Fr.) the rammer or stick with which the charge is driven into the gun.

Gunstock, (monture, Fr.) the wood to which the barrel of the gun is fixed.

Gunstone, such materials, chiefly stone, as were formerly discharged from artillery.

Gur, a house or dwelling in India.

Gurraty, cantonments seven coss (or English miles) and a half from Calcutta.

Gurries, mud forts made in India are called. These forts are sometimes surrounded with ditches.

Gurry, an Indian term to express a certain division of time, comprehending 24 minutes; but the word among the Europeans is generally understood to mean an hour.

Gwaller, a fort in India, south of Jumma, 28 coss or English miles from Agra.

Gymnasium, a place in ancient Rome where athletic exercises were performed.

Gymnastic, (gymnastique, Fr.) pertaining to athletic exercises, such as leaping, wrestling, drawing the cross bow, fencing, &c. The Greeks, among whom the art originated, were accustomed to strip whenever they performed any part of it.

Gymnastique Militaire, Fr. the art or method of exercising the body so as to render it supple and capable of much fatigue.

Gynécocracy, (Gynécocratie, Fr.) a species of government over which females may preside; of this description is the British government. Under the old French monarchy, women were totally excluded by the Salique Law. But meretricious influence made ample amends to the sex, during several reigns, and ultimately overturned the government.
HABERGEON, a small coat of mail, or only sleeves and gorget of mail, formed of little iron rings or meshes linked together.

HABILIMENTS of war, in our ancient statutes, signify armour, harness, utensils, or other provisions, without which it is supposed there can be no ability to maintain a war.

HABILIMENT des troupes, Fr. properly means the regimental clothing or the uniform of soldiers. The clothing of the French army was not reduced to any regular system before the reign of Louis the 14th. The following observations relative to this important object are too appropriate, and suit all countries too well, to be left unnoticed.

The dress of a soldier should be plain, and made up so as to facilitate every movement of his person, to guard him against the inclemency of the weather, and to be remarkable for its collective uniformity of appearance. Next to these general requisites, the ease of each individual should be consulted; particularly with regard to the breeches, trousers, or pantaloons. Regimental surgeons will certainly agree with us, when we say, that in some instances men have suffered as much from an inattention to this part of their dress, as from the most harassing service in the face of an enemy. The loins should invariably be covered, the stride be made easy, and the bend of the knee be left unhampered. Under the old French government, the whole infantry was clothed in white, with facings of various colours; but both the officers and the men were extremely plain in every part of their dress. Since the revolution, the national colour, which was white, has been changed to blue. Not only the soldiers, but the wagon-drivers, &c. had a particular dress to distinguish them from other people. We shall speak more specifically on this head under the article uniform.

Un HABIT d’ordonnance, Fr. regimental coat, or clothing.

HACHE, Fr. a hatchet.

HACHE d’armes, Fr. a hatchet or battle-axe.

In ancient times this weapon was frequently resorted to by whole armies when they engaged. At present it is only used on particular occasions, in sorties, &c.

HACHER, Fr. a term which was formerly used among the French to express a certain punishment that military delinquents were obliged to undergo. It consisted in being loaded with a pack or saddle, which the guilty person was under the necessity of carrying a specified distance, and which entailed disgrace upon the bearer.

HACHER, Fr. to cut to pieces. This word is very frequently used among the French in a military sense, viz.

Un bataillon, ou un escadron s’est fait HACHER en pieces, a battalion, or a squadron has suffered itself to be cut to pieces.

They likewise make use of the expression in familiar discourse, as speaking of truth, viz.

On se sert d’HACHER en pieces pour la verité; one would be cut to pieces for the support of truth.

HACHEREAU, Fr. a small hatchet.

HACHOIR, Fr. a chopping board, a knife, &c.

HACHOIR de Cavalier, Fr. a chopping board or block; a knife. In the French service every troop of horse is furnished with this machine, in order to prepare or cut the straw for food. These chopping-blocks or boards, &c. are always carried in separate carts, and follow the baggage.

HACKERY, an Indian carriage or cart, drawn by oxen.

HAC-
HALQUETON. See Hatchet.
HALQUET-WAGEN, a four-wheeled wagon, which is used in the Prussian service to convey pontoons. The under-frame of this carriage is built like that of a chariot, by which means it can turn without difficulty.
HAIDAMACS. See COSACKS.
HAIE, Fr. the disposition or distribution of troops in a straight line, either in one or more ranks.
HAIE morte, Fr. a hedge, or boundary, made of dead branches of trees, &c.
HAIE visé, Fr. quickset. Any hedge which consists of trees or branches, that interweave with each other as they grow, and thereby form a very strong defence. This sort of hedge is preferable to palisades.
HAIL-SHOT. See Grape-shot.
HAIR-CLOTH, a stuff made of hair. It is laid on the floor of powder-magazines and laboratories to prevent accidents of fire from the shoes of the men treading or rubbing upon nails, sand, or gravel.
HAKEM, or HAKIM. A term used in India to signify the governor of a city, a judge, or a king. It sometimes means the government.
HAKIN, an Indian word signifying power.
HALBERD, a weapon formerly carried by the sergeants of foot and artillery. It is a sort of spear, the shaft of which is about 5 feet long, generally made of ash. Its head is armed with a steel point, edged on both sides. Besides this point, which is in a line with the shaft, there is a cross piece of iron, flat and turned down at one end, but not very sharp, so that it serves equally to cut down or thrust with. This weapon has of late been exchanged for the half-pike. The halberd was first used by the Danes, afterwards by the Scotch, English, and Swiss, and, last of all, by the French.
HALÉBARDE, (au arme Danoise, Fr.) halberd. This weapon, as well as the pike, was first adopted by the French, in imitation of a similar one which was carried by the Swiss troops. It was not known in that country before the reign of Louis XI. and when it fell into disuse among the rank and file, it was confined to the sergeants of infantry. The length of a French halberd was six of their feet from one extremity to the other. The handle or shaft was a long stick, with a strong, sharp, iron ferrule at the end, and the upper part had a sharp flat blade, with a cross bar attached to it.
HALF, is frequently used in military terms. Thus,
HALF-BRIGADE, (demie-brigade, Fr.) which signifies half the number of men of which a whole brigade is composed.
A brigade of cavalry in the French army, consists of three regiments, each of one thousand men, making together three thousand men. Fifteen hundred, of course, constitutes a demie-brigade, or half-brigade. In the British service, a brigade of cavalry is various, according to the number of regiments that may be encamped, or lie contiguous to each other. Sometimes two, three, or four regiments form a brigade; so that half the recited number of men which composes a brigade, whether of cavalry or infantry, makes a half-brigade.
HALF-COMPANIES. The same as subdivisions, and equal to two sections.
HALF-DISTANCE, signifies half the regular interval or space between troops drawn up in ranks, or standing in column.
HALF-FACED. Men are frequently half-faced to the right or left, in order to give an oblique direction to the line. In forming echelon, the serjeant who steps out is half-faced.
HALF-FILES, half the given number of any body of men drawn up two deep.
Half-files are so called in cavalry, when the men rank off singly.
HALF-FILE LEADER, (Chef de demie-file, Fr.) the foremost man of a rank entire.
HALF-BATTA. An extra allowance which has been granted to the whole of the officers belonging to the Indian army, except in Bengal, when out of the company's district in the province of Oude. In the upper provinces double batta is allowed. All above full is paid by the Vizir, as the troops stationed in that quarter are considered as auxiliaries. The full batta is an allowance granted to both officers and men whenever they are under canvas.
HALF-CIRCLE guard, one of the guards used with the broad-sword to parry an inside cut below the wrist, formed.
formed by dropping the point of the sword outward in a semicircular direction, with the edge turned to the left, and raising the hand to the height of the face.

**HALF-CIRCLE parade**, a parade of the small sword used against the thrust in low carte.

**HALF-HANGER, or HALF-HANGING-GUARD**, a position of defence in the art of broad-sword; differing from the hanging-guard, in the sword-hand not being raised so high, but held low enough to see your opponent over the hilt. See **BROADSWORD**.

**HALF-MOON, or demi-lune, Fr. See FORTIFICATION.**

**HALF-PAY**, a certain allowance which is made to officers who have been reduced, in consequence of some general order that affects whole corps, supernumerary companies or individuals.

It may likewise be considered as a compensation to individuals, who have been permitted to retire from the active functions of a military life.

**HALF-PAY officers**, are, to all intents and purposes, out of the reach of military cognizance. They cannot be tried by martial law; nor are they liable to be called upon either as members of a court martial, or for the purposes of actual service. Surgeons and assistant-surgeons, however, who have received their appointments subsequent to 1793, are exceptions to this rule.

**HALF-PIKE, (demi-pique, Fr.) a small pike, which was formerly carried by officers.**

**HALF-SWORD**, close fight, within half the length of a sword.

**HALLEBARDIERS, Fr. men that carried halberts.** In former times they were attached to the several regiments. Hence Compagnies d’haltebardières.

**HALLECRET, Fr. a breast-plate made of flat pieces of iron, which was worn by the French infantry under Francis the First, and as late as the year 1641. This breast-plate was originally made of leather. It was also called corcelet, and afterwards cuirasse.**

**HALT [French halte]**, is a discontinuance of the march of any body of men, armed or unarmed, under military directions. It is frequently practised for the purpose of easing troops during their progress through a country, or to render them fresh and active previous to any warlike undertaking.

Frequent halts are made during the passage of obstacles, and in an intersected country, in order to obviate the inconvenience and danger which must attend a column, whose head is advanced too far to preserve the regular succession of all its component parts. Nothing, indeed, can be more pregnant with mischief than such a chasm; for, if the enemy be in the neighbourhood, both front and rear are exposed. The best way in the passage of defiles, &c. is to proceed to a distance beyond it, which shall be sufficiently extensive to admit of the whole number; there to halt, and not to march forward until the rear has completely cleared the obstacle.

**HALT**, is likewise a word of command in familiar use when a regiment is on its march from one quarter to another. The men are permitted to refresh themselves half-way. It should be generally observed, that to prevent soldiers from straggling about, or getting among persons who might entice them to be disorderly, a strict order ought to be given by the commanding officer of every battalion not to allow any division or detachment to halt in or near a town or village. A convenient midway spot should be chosen for the purpose, and when the men have piled their arms (which may be done in line, or in column) a few steady soldiers should be detached to guard the ground, and to prevent others from straggling beyond certain limits. Among the French it was usual for the commanding officer of a battalion, division, or detachment, in hot weather, to send a sergeant and a few steady grenadiers forward, in order to secure good water for the troops. This practice, in our opinion, ought to be avoided as much as possible; for men are more exposed to suffer from drinking when overheated, than they would be by patiently enduring the thirst until they reached the spot where the day’s march is to terminate.

To **HALT in open column** for the purpose of wheeling up into line. When the several companies of one or more battalions have entered the alignment, and marched with their pivot flanks along it, covering each other at their
DUE distances (for which company officers are answerable), the open column is then in a state to be wheeled into line.

As soon, therefore, as the head or rear division, according to circumstances, arrives at the given point where it is to rest in line, the commander of the battalion gives the word halt. No one moves after the delivery of this word, not even a half pace; but the foot which is then off the ground, finishes its proper step, and the other is brought up to it. If that were not done, and one company should stop while another was permitted to make one or two paces, those behind would be obliged to shift anew, and much confusion would arise from officers being deficient in one great principle of their business, the preservation of proper distances. The instant the halt is ordered, the commanding officer from the head division of each battalion (he taking care that he is himself placed in the true line) makes any small correction on a near point in that line that the pivots may require, although no such correction ought to be necessary.

To halt after having wheeled from open column. The officers commanding companies, &c. having during the wheel turned round to face their men, and inclined towards the pivot of the preceding company, as they perceive their wheeling men make the step which brings them up to their several pivots, they give the word halt, dress. The men, on receiving this word of command, halt, with their eyes still turned to the wheeling flank, and each officer being then placed before the preceding pivot, to which his men are then looking, corrects the interior of his company upon that pivot, his own pivot, and the general line of the other pivots. This being quickly and instantaneously done, the officer immediately takes his post on the right of his company, which has been preserved for him by his serjeant. This the whole line, when halted, is imperceptibly dressed. See Gen. Reg. page 153.

In cavalry movements, when the open column halted on the ground on which it is to form, wheels up into line, the following specific instructions must be attended to:

Distances being just, and pivot leaders being truly covered, the caution is given, wheel into line! when the then pivot-flank leaders place themselves each on the reverse flank of such divisions as by its wheel up brings them to their true place in the squadron. The leading division of each squadron sends out a person to line himself with the pivot files. At the word march! the whole wheel up into line, which is marked by the pivot men, also bounded by the horses' heads of the faced markers of it. Halt! dress! is then given (as well as the other words by each squadron leader) the instant before the completion of the wheel; the eyes are then turned to the standing flank (to which the correction of the squadron is made), and remain so till otherwise ordered; so that a line formed by wheels to the left, will remain with eyes to the left; and one formed by wheels to the right, will remain with eyes to the right.

During the wheel up, the standard moves to its place in squadron, and at the halt every individual has gained his proper post. See Cavalry Regulations, page 98.

HALTE, Fr. See Halt.

HALTER-CAST, in farriery, an excoriation or hurt in the pastern, which is occasioned by the horse endeavouring to scrub the itching part of his body near the head and neck, and thus entangling one of his hinder feet in the halter. The consequence of which is, that he naturally struggles to get free, and sometimes receives very dangerous hurts in the hollow of his pastern.

HALTING, in farriery, a limping, or going lame; an irregularity in the motion of a horse, arising from a lameness in the shoulder leg, or foot, which obliges him to tread tenderly.

HALTING-days. When troops are upon the march, and there is not any particular necessity for exertion or dispatch, two days in the week have been usually allotted for repose. These are Thursday and Sunday. Well regulated corps undergo an inspection of necessaries, &c. on the former of these days, and are sometimes put through four or five of the prescribed manoeuvres. During the present war, troops have seldom been allowed any halting days.
HAMLET, a small village.

Tower-Hamlets, a particular district in the county of Middlesex, which is, under the command of the constable of the Tower, or lieutenant of the Tower-hamlets, for the service and preservation of that royal fort.

In the 13th and 14th years of Charles the Second an act of parliament passed, by which the constable of the Tower, or his lieutenant, had authority from time to time, to appoint his deputy lieutenants, and to give commissions to a proper number of officers to train and discipline the militia to be raised within and for the said division or hamlets, and to form the same into two regiments of eight companies each; and in the 26th of his present Majesty, the above act, intituled an act for ordering the forces in the several counties of this kingdom, was revived; and the said constable or lieutenant, in order to defray the necessary charges of trophies, and other incidental expenses of the militia of the same division or hamlets, were further authorized to continue to raise, in every year, the proportion of a fourth part of one month’s assessment of trophy-money within the said division or hamlets, in such manner as he hath been used to do, by virtue and in pursuance of the said act of the 13th and 14th years of the reign of Charles the Second.

Whenever the lieutenant of the Tower-Hamlets shall happen to be out of the kingdom, deputy lieutenants may be appointed to act in his room; and no commissions are to be vacated by the death or removal of the lieutenant.

The constable has the power of appointing a treasurer of the trophy-money, who is to account for the same yearly; and no trophy-money for a succeeding year is to be levied till the account of the former year has been allowed.

Royal Tower Hamlets. The militia raised in the district of the Tower is so called, and is divided into two battalions, viz. first and second, officered in the same manner that other corps are belonging to that establishment, and subject to the same rules and regulations.

Hammer, a well-known instrument with an iron head, for driving nails, &c. Each artillery-man carries one in his belt, in order to clear the vent from any stoppage.

Hammer, a piece of iron which stands in a perpendicular direction above the cover of the pan, being a part of the same, and serving to produce those sparks of fire that ultimately occasion the explosion of the gun-powder. The Germans call it tyuenen deckel, the cover of the pan; but this expression does not convey a distinct and clear idea of the use that is made of it. Nothing, however, can be less appropriate than the term as used amongst us. We call the part which is struck against to produce sparks of fire the hammer; and the part which strikes, the cock; whereas that part of the cock which holds the flint is, in fact, the hammer, and the other is without a proper name. The Germans call the cock hahn. It is not within our province to propose new terms; we are therefore satisfied in having pointed out the contradiction.

Hammer-Spring, the spring on which the hammer of a gun-lock works. It is also called feather-spring.

Hammock, (hamac, Fr.) a sort of bed made of cotton or canvas. Those used in America, consist of a broad piece of canvas, which is suspended between two branches of a tree, or between two stakes, and in which the savages are accustomed to sleep.

Among sailors the hammock is about six feet long and three feet broad, drawn together at the two ends, and hung horizontally under the deck for the sailors to repose in. In time of battle, the hammocks are strongly fastened and laid above the rails on the quarter-deck and forecastle, to barricade, and to prevent the execution of small shot.

Hampe, and not Hanter, Fr. a shaft; a long stick to which any thing else is attached; as a sharp blade to form a halbert or pike.

Hances, the ends of elliptical arches.

Hand, a member of the body; part of the arm, &c.

Hand. Among the Mysoreans the print of a hand is reckoned a form equivalent to an oath. See History of the Carnatic, Book V. p. 348.

Hand, a measure of four inches, by which the height of a horse is computed. Thus horses are said to be so many hands high.

According
According to the regulations for the mounting and remounting of cavalry, the sizes of military horses must run from 15 hands and 1 inch to 15 hands 3 inches, and the age 4 or 5 off, if possible.

Hand is also used for the division of a horse into the fore and hind parts. The parts of the fore-hand are the head, neck, and fore-quarters; and those of the hind-hand include all the other parts of his body.

Hand is likewise used for the horseman’s hand. Thus spear-hand, or sword-hand, is the horseman’s right hand, and bridle-hand is his left hand.

Hand-Barrow, a machine made of light-wood, of great use in fortification for carrying earth from one place to another; or in a siege, for carrying shells or shot along the trenches.

Hand-Breadth, a measure of three inches, or a space equal to the breadth of the hand, the palm.

Hand-Gallop, a slow and easy gallop, in which the hand and the bridle hand to hinder increase of speed.

Hand-Grenades, small iron shells, from 2 to 3 inches diameter, filled with powder, which being lighted by means of a fuse, are thrown by the grenadiers amongst the enemy; now out of use. See Grenades.

Hand-Gun, a gun held in the hand.

Hand-Mallet, a wooden hammer with a handle, to drive fuses, or pickets, &c. in making fascines or gabions batteries.

Hand-Screw, is composed of a toothed iron bar, which has a claw at the lower end and a fork at the upper: the bar is fixed in a stock of wood, about 2.5 feet high, and 6 inches thick, moved by a rack-work, so that this claw or fork being placed under a weight raises it as far as the bar can go.

Hand-Speck, a sort of wooden le-
Hand-Spike, for moving heavy things.

Hand-Spike, in gunnery, a wooden lever 5 or 6 feet long, flattened at the lower end, and tapering towards the other, useful in moving guns to their places after being fired and loaded again, or for moving other heavy weights.

Hand-to-Hand, close fight; the situation of two persons closely opposed to each other.

Handful, used figuratively, in a military sense, to denote a small quantity or number, as a handful of men.

To HANDLE, to manage, to wield.

Handle arms; a word of command (when the men are at ordered arms) by which the soldier is directed to bring his right hand briskly up to the muzzle of his firelock, with his fingers bent inwards. This word of command is frequently used at the private inspection of companies, and always precedes—Ease arms.

This term was formerly used in the manual from the support to the carry. It is, however, totally exploded, and contrary to the Regulations, except in the instance just mentioned.

To HANG-FIRE. Fire-arms are said to hang-fire when the flame is not speedy in communicating from the pan to the charge. This defect may arise from the powder being damp or the touchhole foul.

To Hang upon. To hover, to impend.

To Hang upon the rear of a retreating enemy. To follow the movements of any body of men so closely as to be a perpetual annoyance to them.

It requires both judgment and activity in the commanding officer of a pursuing army, to execute this business without endangering his troops. For it might happen, that the retreating enemy, seeing an opportunity to make a retrograde flank movement from its front, would practise a feint in its rear, and suddenly appear upon the right or left of his pursuers, especially with cavalry. To prevent a surprise of this sort, constant vedettes and side-patrols must be detached, and the pursuer must never attempt to follow through any considerable length of defile, or cross rivers, without having secured the neighbouring eminences, and been well informed as to the nature of the stream, for some extent on his right and left. Without these precautions he might himself be taken in flank and rear.

To Hang upon the flanks of an enemy, to harass and perplex him in a more desultory manner than what is generally practised when you press upon his rear.

Hussars, light dragoons, mounted riflemen, and light infantry detachments are well calculated for this service. Light pieces of artillery are likewise extremely useful; but they should be cautiously resorted to, as ambuscades might be laid, and their removal would require too much time. A perfect knowledge of the
the country in which you fight, aided by intelligent guides and faithful scouts, will be one of the best safeguards in all operations of this kind.

HANGER, a short curved sword.

HANGRIAR, Fr. This word has been sometimes written Haniare, which is incorrect. It signifies a Turkish poniard, which is worn by the Janissaries in their cross belts or scarfs.

HANGING-GUARD, a defensive position in the art of broad-sword; it is formed by raising the sword-hand high enough to view your antagonist under your wrist, and directing your point towards his ribs. See BROADSWORD.

HANNIBAL, a celebrated general among the Carthaginians, who crossed the Alps, and threatened Rome. This able man lost all the fruits of his uncommon exertions and military talents by relaxing from that active conduct, by which he had thrown the Roman legions into confusion. He is a striking example of the propriety of Marshal Saxe's observations on the necessity of vigorous and unremitting operations against a retreating enemy. See GENERAL.

HANOVERIANS, troops belonging to the electorate of Hanover and once subject to the king of Great Britain. They formerly served upon the continent, in conjunction with British forces, but they did not rank with the English army, nor were they paid from the treasury of Great Britain. A body of refugees from Hanover are now in the service of Great Britain.

HANSE, or HANS, (Hans Teutonique, Fr.) a body or company of merchants united together for the promotion of trade.

HANS towns, (villes Hansiatiques, Fr.) Certain towns and places in Germany and the north of Europe, in which a commercial compact, or agreement, for the benefit of commerce was entered into by merchants of respectability. The four towns that first united for this purpose were Lubeck, Brunswick, Dantzig, and Cologne, and on that account they bore the distinguishing title of mother-towns. After the original establishment of this company had taken place, several towns became anxious to belong to so respectable and useful a company. They were accordingly adopted, and obtained the denomination of god-daughters. The number of these associated places amounted to 81, and they were generally called the Hanseatic or Anseatic towns.

In the year 1372, a treaty of alliance was entered into between Denmark and the Hans towns. Amsterdam and other Dutch cities were included, as may be seen in a copy of that treaty which has been preserved by Boxhorn.

HAQUE, a hand gun.

HAQUEBUT, a gun, called also a harquebuss.

HAQUELIN, a piece of armour.

HANTE, and not Hampe, Fr. A well finished pike which was formerly used, with a banner at the end.

HAQUET, Fr. a dray; a species of wagon used in the artillery for the conveyance of pontoons, &c. These wagons differ in their sizes and dimensions according to the nature of the service.

HARANES, Fr. a militia in Hungary, part of which served on foot, and the other on horseback.

Military HARANGUES, (harangues militaires, Fr.) It was usual among the ancients for generals, &c. to harangue their soldiers previous to an engagement. This custom, however, is too old to be traced to its origin. Short harangues, if any are adopted, will always prove the best; for that natural impulse by which the aggregate of mankind are driven into acts of peril and possible destruction, is of too subtle and too volatile a nature to bear suspense.

We find among the ancient historians various instances in which the generals of armies have judged fit to harangue their troops. It must, however, be acknowledged, that the greater part of these harangues have been studiously made out by ingenious writers, and put into the lips of the heroes they have thought proper to celebrate. Those which contain most common sense, and are conveyed in short pithy sentences, will always produce the best effects.

Eloquence is certainly a qualification which every general of an army should possess; but, it is not, in our days, the most essential requisite in his character. Caesar was naturally endowed with a most bewitching talent in the exercise of words; and he used it on many occasions to considerable advantage. The manner in which he was accustomed to address his men became so celebrated, that
that several persons, belonging to the army he commanded, carefully selected his military harangues; and, if we may believe the Chevalier Foland, the emperor Augustus was particularly pleased and entertained in having them read to him.

In Chevalier Foland’s opinion, those speeches which are enlivened by expressions of humour and by occasional rillery, will always have the most influence over the minds of common soldiers. War, although apparently dictated by the laws of nature (for war and bloodshed seem to have been the concomitants of man from his first creation) cannot be so far congenial to the feelings of civilized mortality, as to mingle with sober sense and rational reflection. Consequently, those discourses which lead the common mind to think, and which induce the common heart to feel, are ill adapted to acts of violence and mutual rancour. A witicism or humorous expression has sometimes the most happy effect. The answer which Hannibal the Carthaginian made to one of his generals, whose name was Giscion, produced a fortunate emotion among his soldiers. The latter observed, that the enemy’s numbers somewhat surprised him; Hannibal, as Plutarch relates the story, immediately said, with a sort of indignant look—but there is another circumstance, Giscion, which ought to surprise you much more, and to which you do not seem to pay great attention. Giscion requested to know what it might be. It is, replied Hannibal, that in so large a multitude there should not be one man whose name is Giscion. This sarcastic observation created a loud laugh among all who surrounded the general, and the humour of the saying was instantly conveyed through the ranks.

Antigonus, according to the same authority, never adopted any other mode of conveying his sentiments to the troops. The Lacedemonians were even more laconic; but every thing they uttered was full of sound sense and energy of thought. Thucydides, who was not only a good historian, but likewise an able general, makes his heroes speak in a very emphatic and eloquent manner. Tacitus does not appear to possess much excellence that way; and the speeches which we find in Polybius, are copied after what was spoken by the several generals, whom he celebrates. Titus Livius is too ornamental and too flowery. An active and intelligent general must be a perfect stranger to that species of oratory.

We read in Varillas, a French historian, who was born in 1634, and wrote a history of France, beginning with Louis XI. and ending with Henry III., &c. that Zisca (or Ziska) a gentleman and soldier of Bohemia (who was so called because he happened to lose an eye), made a remarkable speech to his followers. We refer our inquisitive readers to that writer’s works for one of the most energetic, most soldier-like, and persuasive pieces of military eloquence that perhaps is extant. Zisca succeeded Huss, who had armed the peasantry of Bohemia to resist the oppressions of the emperor and the Roman pontiff; and although he lost his other eye at the siege of Rabi, his influence and courage were so great, that he obliged the emperor Sigismund to send an embassy to him, and to offer him the government of Bohemia. Such was his power of persuasion, that he could not only animate his men to the most desperate feats of valour, but likewise check them in the full career of victory, to prevent plunder and unnecessary bloodshed. A remarkable instance of this sort may be found in Varillas, where he relates, that nothing but the influence which Zisca possessed over the minds of his followers could have saved the city of Prague from utter destruction.

Several specimens of military eloquence may be found in Procopius. They possess the happy quality of being very short, full of good sense and strength of expression. Since the time of Henry the IVth, of France, we find few instances in which the generals of armies have thought it expedient to harangue their troops, unless we except the battle of Nerva, previous to which Charles the XIth, king of Sweden, addressed his little army.

It frequently happens, however, that the commanding officers of corps, and of detached parties, feel it necessary to encourage their men by short and appropriate speeches after the manner of the Lacedemonians. At the famous battle of Tory, Henry the IVth, of France, rode down the front of the line, and
and pointing to the white feather which he wore in his hat, spoke in the following emphatic manner to his soldiers:—
Children, cried he, should any mistake or irregularity occur among the standard-bearers, and your colours by any accident be missed, recollect, that this feather will then show you where you are to rally; you will always find it on the road to honour and victory!

HARASS, (harceler, Fr.) in a military sense, signifies to annoy, to perplex, and incessantly turmoil any body of men; to hang upon the rear and flanks of a retiring army, or to interrupt its operations at a siege by repeated attacks. The troops best calculated for this duty are hussars, mounted riflemen, and light dragoons. The general most celebrated among the ancients for this kind of warfare was Sertorius. By means of the most subtle and ingenious manoeuvres, aided by a thorough knowledge of military tactics, he disconcerted all the plans, and finally defeated all the attempts which were made by Pompey and Metellus to subdue him. It has been shrewdly remarked by the commentator on Polybius, that had there been one Sertorius within the walls of Lissie, when that city was besieged in 1708, the whole combined force of the allies that was brought before it would have been rendered ineffectual. This wise and sagacious officer was constantly upon the watch; no movement of the enemy escaped his notice; and by being master of his designs, every measure which was attempted to be put into execution, was thwarted in its infancy.

When he received intelligence, that a convoy was on its way to the enemy, such was his activity, that no precautions could save it from his attack; and however seemingly advantageous a temporary position might appear, every possible peril or surprise crowded upon his mind, and the instant he judged it necessary to decamp, such was his sagacity and shrewdness, that no foresight or information of the enemy could circumvent him on his march. He was full of expedients, master of military feats, and indefatigably active. When pursued in his retreats, he had always the ingenuity to avoid his enemy by getting into inaccessible places, or by disposing of his troops in such a manner, as to render it extremely hazardous to those who might attempt to harrass or perplex him.

HARAUX, (donner le haraux, Fr.) the art of carrying off troop-horses when they are at grass, or out foraging.

HARBOUR, a port or haven for shipping. The making and enclosing harbours with piers, so as to resist the winds and waves, for the preservation of ships in stormy weather, is one of the most useful and necessary works that can be made in a trading nation; since the security of their wealth and power depends greatly upon it. Hence it should be the particular study of every young engineer, who is desirous of being useful to his country, or of distinguishing himself, to become master of this branch of business. The works principally recommended to his attention are L'Architecture Hydraulique, par M. Belidor; Essai sur la Résistance des Fluides, par M. d'Alembert, Mac Laurin, and Muller.

HARCARRAS. In India, messengers employed to carry letters, and otherwise entrusted with matters of consequence that require secrecy and punctuality. They are commonly Brahmis, well acquainted with the neighbouring countries; they are sent to gain intelligence, and are used as guides in the field.

HARCELÉ en flanc et en queue, Fr. harrassed in flank and rear.

HARDACIUM. See Hourdeys.

HARDI, Fr. In French architecture, an epithet which is frequently attached to those sorts of works that, notwithstanding their apparent delicacy of construction, their great extent and wonderful height, remain uninjured for a succession of years. Gothic churches are of this description.

HARE, an old Saxon term for an army.

HARGNEUX, Fr. This word literally means morose, peevish, &c. In a late French military dictionary we find the following observation upon it.

The old Greek proverb is brought to our recollection by this term; and, however trifling or familiar it may appear, we shall not hesitate to place it under the eyes, and to recommend it to the attention, of young officers; perhaps some of longer standing might not be injured by a view of the proverb also. Tout chien hargneux a les oreilles tirées.
tirées. Every snarling cur has bis ears pulled.

HARNESS, armour, or defensive furniture of war. Also the traces for horses of draught.

HARNOIS, Fr. harness. This word was formerly used among the French to signify the complete armour or equipment of a horseman, including the cuirass, helmet, &c. The term, however, is still adopted in a figurative sense: as, Cet ancien officier a blanchi sous le har- nois—This old officer has grown grey beneath his harness, or equipment; signifying, that he has grown old in the service.

HARNOIS du Cheval, Fr. military equipment for a horse. There are some curious remarks on this subject in the Récit de la Marche de Saxe.

HARO, Fr. hue and cry.

HAROL, an Indian term, signifying the officer who commands the van of an army. It sometimes means the vanguard itself.

HARPE, Fr. a species of drawbridge, which was used among the ancients, and which obtained the name of harp from its resemblance to that instrument. This bridge, which consisted of a wooden frame, and hung in a perpendicular direction against the turrets that were used in those times to carry on the siege of a place, had, like the harp, a variety of ropes attached to it, and was let down upon the wall of a town by means of pulleys. The instant it fell, the soldiers left the turret, and rushed across the temporary platform upon the rampart.

HARQUEBUSS, a kind of fire-arm, of the length of a musket. It carried a ball of about 3 ounces. Not used at present.

HARQUEBUSSIER, a soldier carrying a harquebus.

HARROW, to lay waste, to ravage, or destroy.

HASARD de la guerre, Fr. the chance of war. It also means the danger to which every military man is exposed in the exercise of his profession. Thus the French say, Il a essayé les grands hasards—he has undergone great risks or dangers. Il a été nourri parmi les hasards—he was brought up from his cradle amidst dangers.

HASP, a flat staple to catch the bolt of a lock.

HASSEIN and JUSSEIN, two brothers, and Mahomedan saints, whose feast is celebrated with great pomp and much enthusiasm in Ludostan. This festival is kept on the 14th of November, in commemoration of the murder of those two brothers. The Mahomedans of Ludostan observe it with a kind of religious madness, some acting and others bewailing the catastrophe of their saints with so much energy, that several die of the excesses they commit. They are likewise persuaded, that whoever falls in battle against unbelievers, during any of the days of this ceremony, shall be instantly translated into the higher paradise, without stopping at any of the intermediate purgatories. On these occasions (continues the ingenious author of the History of the Carnatic), to the enthusiasm of superstition is added the more certain efficacy of inebriation; for the troops eat plentifully of bang. See page 194, Hist. of Carnatic, Book III.

HASTAIRES, Fr. soldiers armed with spears. See HASTATI.

HASTATI, from the Latin word hasta, a spear; so that they may literally be called spearmen. A body of Roman soldiers who were more advanced in age, and had acquired a greater reputation in arms than the Félites possessed, were distinguished by this appellation. They wore a complete set of armour, and always carried a buckler, made convex, measuring two feet and a half in breadth and four in length. The longest contained about four feet nine inches, or a Roman palm. The buckler was made of two boards glued together. These were covered, in the first instance, with a broad piece of linen, which was again covered over with sheep's skin. The edges, both at top and bottom, were fenced with iron, to enable them to meet the broad sword and sabre, and to prevent them from rotting when planted on the ground. The convex part was further covered over with iron plates to resist the impression of hard blows, and to withstand the violent concussion of stones, &c.

The hastati likewise wore a sword, which they carried girted to their right thigh, and which was called the Spanish sword. This weapon was calculated both to cut and thrust, the blade being very broad, thick, and pointed. They had each, moreover, two pikes, a brass helmet,
HAT

Helmet, and half boots. One of the pikes was thick, and the other of a middling size, and they were in general either round or square. The round ones were four fingers diameter, and the square ones contained the breadth of a side. The small pikes were not unlike to the darts which the hastati, or spearmen, were still obliged to carry.

The pole or staff of these pikes, whether large or small, was nearly five cubits long. The iron, which was made somewhat in the shape of a fish-hook, and was fixed to the pole, contained the same length. It reached beyond the middle, and was so well milled that nothing could loosen it, without at the same time breaking the pole. This iron was one finger and a half thick, both at the bottom, and at the part where it was joined to the wood.

The hastati or spearmen wore upon their heads a red or black plume, consisting of three straight feathers, each measuring one cubit in height. These, added to their other accoutrements, made them appear uncommonly tall, and gave them a bold and formidable look. The lowest class of hastati, or spearmen, had their chests protected by a piece of brass, containing twelve fingers breadth every way. This plate was called a breast plate. All that were worth 10,000 drachmae wore a coat of mail, instead of a breast-plate.

Kennet, in his R. Ant. p. 190, gives a similar account of the hastati; and adds, that the spears were afterwards laid aside as incommodeous.

Armes d'HASTE, Fr. long-hafted weapons.

HASTE, Fr. The piece of wood or long pole to which the standard is fixed in the royal gallery, was formerly so called in France.

HAT, a covering for the head. For a specific description of military hats worn by British officers, according to the last regulations, see the Regimental Companion. Hats are no longer used by the non-commissioned officers or privates, except in some particular regiments of cavalry; but it is directed by the King, that every infantry regiment shall wear caps in conformity to the following shape, &c.

Regimental or battalion caps to be seven inches deep, with a leather peak two inches broad, a scarlet and white worsted plume or feather to be fixed, with a black leather cockade and regimental button over the trophy.

Grenadiers to wear the same, with this difference, that the plume shall be uniformly white, with a grenade in the center of the cockade.

The light infantry ditto, with this difference, that the plume shall be green worsted, with a bugle-horn in the center of the cockade.

Those regiments which are entitled to a badge, may have it engraved in the center of the trophy in lieu of G. R.

Light infantry officers are ordered to wear caps of the same dimensions as the men, with a gilt trophy and bugle, and a green feather, instead of the worsted plume.

HATCHET, used in the army, a small light sort of an axe, with a basil edge on the left side, and a short handle, used by the men for cutting wood to make fascines, gabions, pickets, &c.

To take up the HATCHET, among the Indians, to declare war, to commence hostilities, &c.

HAUBERGEON; Fr. See HABERGEON.

HAUBERGIER, Fr. an individual who held a tenure by knight's service, and was subject to the feudal system, which formerly existed in France, and by which he was obliged to accompany the lord of the manor in that capacity whenever the latter went to war. He was called siefe de hautbet, and had the privilege of carrying a halbert. All vassals in ancient times served their lords paramount as squires, haubergiers, lancers, bow-men, &c.

HAUBERT. See HAUBERT.

HAURITZ, Fr. the same as obus, howitzer.

HAVERSACK, a kind of bag made of strong coarse linen, to carry bread and provisions on a march. It is only used in the field and in cantonments; each soldier having one.

HAVILDAR, or a non-commiss-HAVILDAR, sioned officer or sergeant among the sepoys. He ranks next to the Jemidar.

HAVOCK, carnage, slaughter.

HAYRE, Fr. a harbour which is enclosed by means of jettys, and can be barred by a chain.
HAVRE de barre, Fr. a harbour which is dry at times, and has a bar. Of this description are Calais and Dover harbours.

HAVRESAC, Fr. See HAVERSACK.

HAUSSE-col, Fr. an ornamental plate similar to our gorget. It is worn by infantry officers only.

Un HAUSSE-col, Fr. a neck-piece.

HAUTBERT, Fr. a coat of mail, which covered the neck and arms, formerly worn by the seigneurs d’haubert, or lords paramount, in France, in lieu of the hauss-col, brassards, and cuissarts.

HAUTBOY, (hautboy, Fr.), a wind-instrument, now almost universally adopted by the European armies, and which invariably forms a part of the regimental bands belonging to the corps in the British service.

HAUTES-payes, Fr. were soldiers selected by the captains of companies to attend them personally, for which service they received something more than the common pay. Under the reign of Louis XIV. this custom was abolished. It was, however, suffered to exist in the royal regiment of artillery and in the companies of miners and artificers, provided the officers received a specific order for that purpose. Haute-paye became afterwards a term to signify the subsistence which any body of men, superior to, or distinguished from the private soldier were allowed to receive.

HAUTEUR, Fr. in geometry, signifies elevation.

HAUTEUR, Fr. in architecture, the extreme height of any building. Thus, un bâtiment est arrivé à hauteur, signifies that the last stones or bricks are laid ready for the roof to be covered in.

HAUTEUR d’appui, Fr. breast-height.

HAUTEUR de marche, Fr. The usual height which a man takes in stepping, being about 6 or 7 inches above ground.

HAUTEUR d’un escadron, ou d’un bataillon, Fr. the depth of a squadron of horse, or battalion of foot. The British infantry is usually drawn up two deep. The word hauteur in the French service is equivalent to depth in the English: as—an army consisting of many squadrons of horse, and battalions of foot, one in front of the other and forming several columns, is said to stand that number of columns deep.

This term is applicable to an army, collectively or separately considered, from several columns to a mere rank and file.

HAUTEURS, Fr. Heights or commanding eminences round a fortified place.

HAUT-LE-PIED, Fr. a term used to distinguish such persons as were formerly employed in the French armies without having any permanent appointment. Commissaires hauts-le-pied were known in the artillery during the monarchy of France. They were usually under the quarter-master general.

This word has also another meaning, which see under HAUET.

Le Haut Rhin, Fr. the Upper Rhine.

La Haute Saxe, Fr. Upper Saxony.

Haute-marie, Fr. High-water.

HAUTE-officiers, Fr. superior officers. With respect to an army composed of several regiments, the following fall under the description of haute-officiers according to the old French system: generals, lieutenant-generals, colonels, and lieutenant-colonels. The haute-officiers, or superior officers in distinct corps, were majors, sub-majors, captains, lieutenants, sub-lieutenants, and ensigns.

HAWKIM, an Indian term, signifying a chief.

HAYE, Fr. a military disposition in which soldiers stand aside one another on a straight line. Se mettre en haie, is to stand rank entire. Faire un double haie, to stand two deep. Border la haye, is a disposition to which infantry has recourse when attacked by cavalry. See BORDER LA HAYE.

HAZAREE, an Indian term, signifying the commander of gun-men. Hazar in its literal interpretation signifies a thousand.

HEAD, in gunnery, the fore part of the cheeks of a gun or howitzer carriage.

HEAD of a work, in fortification, is the front next to the enemy, and furthest from the place; as the front of a horn-work is the distance between the flanked angles of the demi-bastions: the head of a double tenaille is the salient angle in the center, and the two other sides which form the re-entering angles. See FORT.

HEAD of an army or body of men, is the front, whether drawn up in lines or on a march, in column, &c.
HEAD OF A DOUBLE TENAILLE, the salient angle in the center, and the two other sides which form the re-entering angle.

HEAD-PICE, armour for the head; an helmet, such as the light dragoons wear.

HEAD OF A CAMP, the ground before which the army is drawn up.

HEAD-QUARTERS, the place where the officer commanding any army or independent body of troops takes up his residence.

HEADBOROUGH, a civil officer, whose functions are the same with respect to the militia, as those prescribed to constables and subordinate constables.

HEADSTALL, that part of the bridle which goes over the horse's head.

HEAUME, Fr. A word derived from the German, which formerly signified casque, or helmet. The heaume has been sometimes called among the French salade, armet, and celeste from the Latin word which means engraved, on account of the different figures which were represented upon it. The heaume covered the whole of the face, except the eyes, which were protected by small iron bars laid crossways.

The heaume was not only worn by the chevaliers or knights when they went to war, but also at tilts and tournaments. It serves as an ornament or helmet in coats of arms and armorial bearings. Various appellations have been given to this piece of armour, such as habillement de tête, covering for the head, casque, helmet; and under Francis I. it was distinguished by the name of armet. It does not resemble the morion, the salade or head-piece, the pot, or bourguignon, burgonet, which were worn only in the infantry. The heaume, as we have observed above, covered the face. There was an opening opposite to the eyes which was guarded by small iron bars, or lattice-work, and was a kind of visor. The heaume, or helmet, is still preserved in heraldry, and is a distinguishing mark of nobility. In tournaments the helmet was presented as a prize of honour to the most active champion, because it was the principal piece of defensive armour; but a sword was given to the assailants, as that was an offensive weapon.

Au Heaume! Fr. a term formerly used among the French, in the same manner that they now use the expression aus armes! to arms!

HEAUMIER, Fr. an armurer, or helmet-maker.

HEBDOMADIER, Fr. The person whose week it is to be on duty.

HÉGOMENE, Fr. a chief, a leader.

HEIDUQUE, Fr. an Hungarian foot soldier. See HEYDEK.

HELEN, (Hélène, Fr.) A woman celebrated in history for the fatal influence of her charms over Paris, the son of Priam, King of Troy; and the consequent cause of its destruction. A French writer very justly remarks, that many a young officer is exposed in his outset in military life, to the fascinations of the sex, and is liable to fall into the snares of women, whose sole object is to create passions and rivalry, among gallant men, without feeling one spark of honest affection themselves. Hence the many feuds and quarrels that so often deprive the country of brave and meritorious men. An officer ought to recollect, that the first object of his mind, is his country's good; that all private affection is subordinate to public duty, and that his life should never be exposed, except in the defence of liberty, and for the maintenance of good order and discipline.

HELEPOLIS, (Héliopolis, Fr.) in the ancient art of war, a machine for battering down the walls of a place besieged. The invention of it is ascribed to Demetrius the Poliorcete. Diodorus Siculus says, that each side of the helepolis was 500 cubits broad, and 90 in height; that it had 9 stages or floors, and was carried on 4 strong solid wheels, 8 cubits in diameter; that it was armed with huge battering rams, and had 2 roofs capable of supporting them; that in the lower stages there were different sorts of engines for casting stones; and in the middle, they had large catapults for lancing arrows.

HELICOMETRY, an art which teaches how to draw or measure spiral lines upon a plane, and shew their respective properties.

HELIIOD PARABOLA is a curve arising from the supposition of the axis of the Apollonian parabola, being bent into the periphery of a circle, and is then a line passing through the extremities of the ordinates, which converge towards the center of the circle.

HELIOSCOPE, a prospect glass to view...
view the sun. The glass is coloured in
order to weaken the radiance of light.

HELIX, a spiral line.

Helix, also a machine invented by
Archimedes, by means of which a load-
ed vessel could be easily put to sea.

HELLANODICES, according to Piso-
ticus, judges who presided at the Gre-
cian games; they were also called Agon-
othêa.

HELM, or | an ancient defensive ar-

HELMET, | a small shield and a crest were

HELMET-CAP, | a cap, or hat, the

HELMET-HAT, | crown of which

HELVE, or | the wooden handle of

HAFT, | a hatchet, hammer, or

pick-axe.

To HEM in, to surround.

HEMAGUM, an emperor of India.
The word means august.

HEMERESCOPI, in ancient history,
men detached and posted upon different
heights, &c. to watch the movements
of an enemy. According to Herodotus,
they were first formed among the Per-
sians. They, in some degree, corre-
spond with our vedettes.

HEMERODROMES, Fr. a French
term taken from the Greek, signifying
sentinels or guards, which were employ-
ed among the ancients to protect and
watch over fortified towns and places.

HEMISPHERE, (Hémisphère, Fr.)
the half of the globe, when it is sup-
posed to be cut through its centre in
the plane of one of its greatest circles.

HENDACAGON, a figure that has
11 sides and as many angles, each capa-
bile of a regular bastion.

HENDOO, the name by which the
natives of India distinguish themselves
from the inhabitants of other countries.

HEPTAGON, a figure consisting of
7 sides and as many angles. If the
sides be all equal, it is called a regular
heptagon.

HEPTAGONAL numbers, are a sort
of polygonal numbers, wherein the dif-
ference of the terms of the corresponding
arithmetical progression is = 5. One
of the properties of these numbers is,
that if they be multiplied by 40, and 9
be added to the product, the sum is a
square number.

HEPTARCHY, a government which
consisted of seven kings or sovereign
princes. Such was the government un-
der which England was ruled by the
Saxon kings.

HERALD, an officer at arms, whose
duty is to declare war, to proclaim
peace, or to be employed by the king in
martial messages. The heralds in Eng-
land are judges and examiners of gen-
tlemen’s coats of arms. They mar-
shal all solemnities at the coronation of
kings, funerals of princes, &c. The
origin of heralds is extremely ancient.

It is reported that the Greek herald,
Stentor, possessed such a powerful voice
that it exceeded the united clamour of
fifty men.

There are three kings at arms in
England, each bearing a name peculiar
to himself, and six heralds. The first
king at arms is that of Garter, created
by Henry V.; next that of Clarenceux,
created by Edward IV. and that of
Norroy, so called from the exercise of
his function North of the river Trent.

The heralds extraordinary are those
of Windsor and Chester, created by
Edward III. those of Somerset by Henry
VIII. and those of York and Lan-
caster, created by the children of Ed-
ward III.

Thomas Tonge was the first Rich-
mond herald, in the time of Henry VI.

HERALDS College, a corporation in
England which consists of kings at arms,
heralds and pursuivants.

HERAUT, Fr. herald. During the
old monarchy of France there were
thirty heralds, each distinguished by the
name of some particular province. The
first of these, who was king at arms, bore
the title of Montjoy St. Denis; he had
the privilege of wearing a royal coronet
over the fleur de luce. On solemn oc-
casions, the king and the heralds at
arms appeared in their coats of arms
made
made of violet coloured crimson velvet, with three golden fleurs de luces before and behind, and as many on each sleeve where the name of the province stood, to which the herald belonged. They wore a black velvet cap ornamented with golden strings, and half boots, when they appeared on penceable occasions, and with whole boots on warlike or martial occasions. In solemn funerals they had a long robe of black velvet. The only difference between the king at arms and the heralds, with respect to dress, consisted in the richness of the embroidery; that of the former being very expensive. The coats of arms which were peculiar to the heralds were called Plaques, those of the kings at arms were distinguished by the name of Tunics. They carried a stick called Caduceus (such as Mercury is represented to have borne in ancient history.) But this stick was not ornamented by a crown with fleurs de luces, it was only covered with crimson velvet, having a few fleurs de luces interspersed.

There was likewise a herald, whose particular functions were to carry the king's orders. He was entitled to a coat of arms upon violet coloured velvet interspersed with fleurs de luces and gold embroidered flammes, or pendants, together with the arms and collars both before and behind. He likewise wore the cross belonging to the order, which was attached to a black silk cord wore cross-ways.

The author of the Dictionnaire Militaire derives the French term Héraut from the German Herald, which signifies a man at arms, un Gendarme. Verstegan derives it from the Saxon. Other French writers derive it from an old Gallic word harou, or hara, which was used as a challenge, a notification of fresh hostilities, a ban or general assembling of the people, a loud and public proclamation of battles fought, and victories obtained; on which account heralds, according to Ducange, were formerly called Clarigareus as well as Heraldes.

HERCOTECTONIQUE, Fr. a term in fortification signifying that branch of Military architecture which specifically points out the best means of defence and the surest method of providing stores. This word is derived from the Greek.

HEREFARE, an old term from the Saxon, signifying the same as warfare.

HEREGELD, a term derived from the Saxon, signifying a tax which was formerly levied for maintaining an army.

HERESLITA, a term derived from HERESILIA, the Saxon, signifying a soldier who abandons his colours, or quits the army without leave.

HERETEG, a term derived from HERETOG, the Saxon, signifying the leader of an army, a Duke, the same as dux in the Latin.

HERETUM, a court in which the guards or military retinue that usually attended the old British nobility and bishops were accustomed to parade or draw up.

HEREGATE, a term derived from the Saxon, signifying a tribute which was paid in ancient times to the lord of the soil, to enable him to carry on a war.

HERISSON, Fr. a turnpike which is made of one stout beam that is fenced by a quantity of iron spikes, and which is fixed upon a pivot, in the manner that our turnstiles are, so that it can turn in every direction.

Herisson foudroyant, Fr. a sort of artificial firework which has several sharp points attached to it on the outside, and is filled with inflammable composition within. It is frequently used in breaches and retracements.

HERM-HARPOCRATES, a demi-god, in the heathen mythology, that is represented, like Mercury, with wings at his feet, and with his finger on his mouth. This allegorical figure indicates to young officers, that they must in all things, and on all occasions execute the orders of their superiors in command with dispatch and zeal, and without betraying the least symptom of disgust or backwardness, be the orders ever so arduous or unpleasant.

HERO, (Héros, Fr.) This name was given by the ancients to those men who became illustrious in war, and who were stiled demi-gods, from a general notion that their actions entitled them to a place in heaven immediately after their decease. The heroes of antiquity were divided into two classes, the one of mortal genealogy, the other of heavenly descent, being the offspring of some god or goddess, who had had connexion with the human species.

Modern authors make a distinction between
between a hero and a great man; the former appellation being given to one who distinguishes himself by feats of hardihood in military enterprise, and the latter to a person eminent for his virtues and extraordinary talents in civil life.

HEROINE, a term generally applied to women who have given exemplary proofs of courage and virtue.

HERRISON. See HERRISON.

HERSE, in fortification, a grated door, formed by strong pieces of wood, jointed cross-ways like a lattice or harrow, and studded full of iron spikes. It is usually hung by a rope and fastened to a moulinet, which is cut in case of a surprise, or when the first gate is suddenly forced with a petard, to the end that it may fall and stop the passage of a gate or other entrance of a fortress.

These herses are also often laid in the roads, with the points upwards, instead of the chevaux-frise, to incommode the march of both horse and foot. Common harrows are sometimes made use of in cases of emergency, with their points upwards.

HERSILLON, a strong beam, whose sides are stuck full of spikes, which is thrown across the breach made by an enemy, to render it impassable.

HESSIANS, troops belonging to the Prince of Hesse-Cassel in Germany. They have been frequently hired by Great Britain, and are never known to serve except as auxiliaries to other powers, who pay a stipulated price for each man to the Landgrave of that part of Germany.

HÉTERIENNES, Fr. See MEGHÉTERIAQUE.

HETMAN, Fr. sometimes called ATTEMAN, a word derived from the German, which signifies the chief of a troop. The chief general or grand general in Poland is called Hetman Wielki, and the second general Hetman Polny.

The chief or general of the Cossacks is likewise invested with this title by the sovereigns of Russia.

HEURTEQUINS, Fr. two pieces of iron resembling a knocker, which are placed upon the axis of the frame of a cannon.

HEURTOIR de Soutien, Fr. See HUSTER.

HEXAEDRON, (Hexaedre, Fr.) a solid geometrical figure, consisting of six equal sides.

HEXAGON, a figure of 6 sides and as many angles, capable of being fortified with 6 bastions. If the sides and angles be equal, it is called a regular hexagon. The side of a regular hexagon inscribed in a circle is equal to the radius of that circle; hence a regular hexagon is inscribed in a circle, by setting the radius of 6 times upon the periphery: as 1 to 1.672, so is the square of the side of any regular hexagon to the area thereof, nearly.

HEYDUC. Originally a Hungarian soldier, who was armed with a long sabre and small hatchet. The French kings were accustomed to have men, who dressed in their livery, placed at the gates of their palaces. These were called heydus. At Vienna and Berlin, as well as at the subordinate courts in Germany, the princes and noblemen have persons of this description, who are richly clothed, and constantly attend their carriages.

HIDES (tanned), are always carried along with an army, especially in the laboratory's stores, to protect powder or shells from rain; they are also used in batteries and in laboratories.

HIE, Fr. a paving beetle, called also DEMOISELLE, MOUTON.

HIERARCHY, church government.

HIERNHUTT, three missionaries are so called at the Cape of Good Hope. They have considerable influence over a large body of the Hottentots, whom they have in some degree civilized, and over whose minds they possess great power. The hiernhutt missionaries are considered by the English as well-meaning men, rendering the situation of some hundreds of that degraded race much more tolerable than it can possibly be to the aggregate of their oppressed countrymen, who are under the lash and tyranny of the Dutch boors. Should a military corps be established in the colony to consist chiefly of Hottentots, the hiernhutt missionaries may be made the means of attaching those people to the British government.

HIEROGLYPHICKS, (hieroglyphes, Fr.) certain mysterious characters of creatures or letters used among the Egyptians, by which they explained to one another the principles of their religion.
gion and their maxims of philosophy, without divulging them to strangers.

HIERONICÆ, a name given among the Romans to those who conquered in holy contests.

HIEROGRAMMATES. See Hieroglyphics.

HIGHLANDER, according to Johnson, any person from a mountainous country.

HIGHLANDERS, a robust, warlike body of men from the north of Scotland.

They wear a dress peculiar to themselves, which is too generally known to require a minute description here. It may not, however, be superfluous to give the following regulation respecting their clothing when they serve abroad. Each serjeant, corporal, drummer and private man is in that case, to have annually, a scarlet coat, a waistcoat of white serge, a bonnet, and four pair of hose; six yards of plaid once in two years, and a purse every seven years.

HILT, the handle of a sword.

HINGES, are two iron bands, with a joint, nailed to the doors or lockers of gun carriages to fasten them and move backwards and forwards.

HINGUET, Fr. See Ginguet.

HIPPODROME, Fr. a French term derived from the Greek, signifying a spot where horses used to run, properly speaking a race-ground. The Hippodrome or course at Constantinople was much celebrated in ancient days. The spot still exists under that name.

HIPPORCHA, an officer of high rank among the Athenians, who had the command of all their cavalry.

HIRCARRAH, or HIRCARRA, an Indian term for a messenger, guide, footman or spy.

HISTORY, a narration or description of the several transactions, or events of a state, king, or private person, in the order in which they happened.

Military History, a narrative of military transactions, campaigns, battles, sieges, marches, &c. of an army: likewise a relation of the heroic actions of great generals, &c.

HIVER (quartier d'), Fr. winter quarters.

HIVERNER, Fr. a sea phrase among the French signifying to winter.

HOBITS. See Howitz.

HOCEBOS, and not HOCEBOS, Fr. pikemen, formerly so called. It al-

so signifies the pike itself, particularly among the inhabitants of Picardy in France. The Flemish people call it godenhoi.

HOGSHEAD, a vessel capable of containing 63 gallons. Hogsheads filled with earth, sand, &c. are sometimes used in lieu of gabions, to cover men.

HOLD. See Fastnesses.

To HOLD out, to maintain any place, ground, &c. resolutely against an enemy.

HOLLOW square, the form in which a body of foot is drawn up, with an empty space in the middle for the colours, drums, baggage, &c. See SQUARE.

HOLLOW tower, a rounding made of the remainder of two brisures, to join the curtain to the orillon, where the small shot are played, that they may not be so much exposed to the view of the enemy.

HOLLOW way, any pass or road, both sides of which are commanded by heights.

HOLSTERS, cases for a horseman's pistols, affixed to the pommel of the saddle.

Order of the HOLY- GHOST, the principal military order in France, instituted by Henry III. in 1569. It consisted of 100 knights, who were to make proof of their nobility for three descents. The king was the grandmaster, or sovereign, and as such, took an oath, on his coronation-day, to maintain the dignity of the order. The knights wear a golden cross hung about their necks by a blue silk riband, or collar: but before they received this order of the Holy Ghost, that of St. Michael was conferred, as a necessary degree; and for this reason their arms are surrounded with a double collar.

HOME-SERVICE consists in military operations and arrangements for the immediate defence of our native country, should it be threatened by invasion, or by domestic broils, or insurrections.

As there is a great affinity between the following general regulations for home service, and those that are generally prescribed for foreign, we have thought it right to class the whole, including carriages, baggage, &c. under one head.

The carriages allowed, if circumstances will permit, to be with each regiment of infantry, of 10 companies at 80 each, are
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOM</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 Bread wagons; each to carry 4 days bread for 400 men, or 2400 lb.</td>
<td>The bit horses of each battalion of infantry of 10 companies, at 80 each, will therefore be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Ammunition ditto.</td>
<td>For the tents and poles of the regiment - 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Battalion guns.</td>
<td>For the company officers - 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Wagon.</td>
<td>Field officers and staff - 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Cart with entrenching tools.</td>
<td>Surgeon's chest - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Sutler's carts.</td>
<td>Regiments on a lower establishment, allowed bit horses in proportion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Wagon for sick, or more as may be permitted.</td>
<td>The bit horses of each regiment of cavalry, of 8 troops, of 75 each, will therefore be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The carriages allowed to be with each regiment of cavalry, of 8 troops, of 75 each, are:</strong></td>
<td>For the tents and poles of the regiment - 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Bread wagons, each to carry 4 days bread for 400 men, or 2400 lb.</td>
<td>For the troop officers - 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Ammunition cart.</td>
<td>Field officers and staff - 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Sutler's carts.</td>
<td>Entrenching tools - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Forge carts.</td>
<td>Surgeon's chest - 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Carriage for sick.</td>
<td>and in proportion for regiments on a lower establishment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regiments on lower establishments to be allowed carriages in proportion to their effective strength.</strong></td>
<td>The infantry will carry tents at the rate of 16 men per tent, and the cavalry 12 men per tent. The necessary outlying guards and detachments, and the readiness of hutting and other cover that a woody country affords, will make this a sufficient number. The troop and company bit horses can therefore easily carry the tents, poles, and pins. The blankets of the cavalry will be divided and carried under the men's saddles. The blankets of the infantry must be divided and carried by the men, unless some other provision is in future made.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The carriages of head quarters will be exceedingly limited by the commander in chief.</td>
<td>The picket ropes of the cavalry will be carried on the bit horses. Half the usual number of pickets must be considered as sufficient, and be carried by the men. The camp kettles will be carried by the men, if horses are not provided for that purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other private carriages whatever will be considered as belonging to the heavy baggage of the army, will be ordered to a great distance in the rear, and if at any time found near the army, will be ordered to be destroyed by the baggage-master general.</td>
<td>A reduction and critical inspection of what every soldier should carry as his baggage should be made in time, and every thing superfluous destined to be lodged with the heavy baggage, which will remain in the present quarters of the regiment, till otherwise ordered to be disposed of. Two shirts, a pair of shoes and stockings, combs, brushes, (and a horseman what is necessary for the care of his horse) is all a soldier ought to carry.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other baggage therefore, whether tents, blankets, or necessities for the officers, is to be carried on bit horses.</td>
<td>The heavy baggage of the army, including everything not mentioned above, under a proper escort, will be ordered to some place of security. Each regiment of infantry will be allowed to send</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
a serjeant and 6 men, and each regiment of cavalry 1 corporal and 4 dismounted men as a guard: such men must be the least fit for marching duties, but should be fully adequate to the service, and by no means convalescents recovering from long indisposition. Proper officers will be ordered to command the whole, and no part of this baggage will be allowed to join the army but by public orders. If at any time carriages not allowed in this regulation should be found in the army, they will be conducted to head-quarters, and there destroyed, or confiscated to the advantage of those who make the discovery.

Two battalion guns with one wagon will be attached to each regiment of infantry. Should it be necessary, one bat horse will be allowed for the artillery detachment.

Such artillery as remains in the park will be limited as to number of guns, carriages, and according to the specification given to the commanding officer of the artillery.

The bat men allowed are two for each company and troop, also two for the surgeon and staff of each regiment.

Each battalion will give a non-commissioned officer and 8 men; each regiment of cavalry will give a non-commissioned officer and 6 men, as a guard to their bat horses.

The following number of men on the several after-mentioned duties of the regiment, will never exceed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Infantry</th>
<th>Cavalry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Camp colour-men</td>
<td>2 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bat horse guard</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bread carriage guard</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heavy baggage</td>
<td>1 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regimental carriages</td>
<td>1 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allowed bat men</td>
<td>0 22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6 52 6 48

Each regiment of infantry will receive 20 pick-axes, 20 spades, 20 shovels, 40 bill-hooks, 10 axes, amounting in weight to about 400 lb. These tools will be carried in the cart allotted for that purpose, and that cart will at all times, and in all situations, march at the head of the regiment.

Each regiment of cavalry will receive 8 pick-axes, 8 spades, 8 shovels, 16 bill-hooks, and 8 axes. These tools will be carried on horseback, and on a horse with hampers allotted for that purpose, and will at all times march at the head of the regiment.

These tools are meant to be ready at all times for making the openings so necessary in this embarrassed country, consequently should be kept in the front of each regiment or column.

Spare appointments and arms of every kind must of course remain with the heavy baggage.

The battalion guns will always march at the head of the regiment, which ever flank leads. The ammunition wagons and carts will immediately follow the troops of the column.

The place of march of the artillery of the park and carriages will be specified in the order of march.

It is to be wished, that at all times each soldier be provided with 4 days bread in his haversack, and 4 days more carried in the regimental carriages.—When this is delivered out, those carriages, under the guard of a serjeant and 4 men per battalion, and a corporal and 2 men per regiment of cavalry, will be sent to the bakery to be again loaded.

Each infantry soldier will always carry 60 rounds. Each horseman his cartouch box full.

The cavalry will always carry 2 days corn if it can be got, and hay according to circumstances.

Order of March.

When a corps moves in one column, the following will in general be the order of march, if not otherwise ordered, and exclusive of the more particular van or rear guards.

Advancing.

Advanced guard consisting of the picquets of the infantry and cavalry, and new grand guard, followed by the camp colour men.

Pioneers.
1 Reg. light dragoons.
Infantry.
Cavalry.
Regimental ammunition wagons and carts.
Bat horses in the order of their regiments, artillery of the park.
General officers’ carriages, bread carriages.
Cavalry forge cart and ammunition cart.

Sutlers
Sutlers carts.
Sick carriages.
Squadron of cavalry.
Old grand guard and small out-posts
and detachments which will be ordered
to join it, will form the rear guard.

Retreating.

Advanced guard consisting of the new
grand guard, guard for head quarters,
one infantry picquet, camp colour men.
Pioneers.
Sick carriages.
Sutlers’ carriages.
Cavalry forge carts and ammunition
part.

Bread carriages.
General officers’ carriages.
Artillery of the park.
Bât horses in the order of their regi-
ments.

Regimental ammunition wagons and
carts.

Cavalry.
Infantry.

1 Squadron light dragoons.

Rear guard, consisting of the infantry
and cavalry picquets, old grand guard,
out-posts of cavalry or infantry ordered
to join.

Two or more pieces of cannon will
always march with the advanced guard
when advancing, and with the rear guard
when retiring.

When the tents are ordered to be
struck, the advanced guard and camp
colourmen will always assemble at the
head of the regiment of infantry in ad-
vancing, or of the cavalry in retiring,
which leads the columns, or of such
regiments as will be specified when
marching in more columns than one.
The general officers will each send a
proper person with the camp colourmen,
to take possession of quarters when they
can be marked.

When the army marches in more than
one column, the column will generally
be composed of both cavalry and infan-
try; the particulars of rear and advanced
guards will be specified, the generals
who command them will be named,
and the particular corps in the manner
they follow in each column. It is al-
ways the business of general officers
leading columns to take care that every
part of that column falls properly into
its place of march.

When the army marches from its
left; and when the army marches from
its right, every regiment marches from
its right.

When the army retires, the carriages,
except such artillery ones as are speci-
fied, will in general be ordered under a
proper escort to precede the march of
the army.

When the army is to march, the par-
ticular detail and disposition of march
will not always be given out in public
orders. Should the only notice given
be, the army will march the —— ex-
actly at —— o’clock; an hour before
the time fixed for the march, the tents
must be struck; the regiments will then
form, and the baggage be loaded and
ready in the rear of each.

Guides will be sent to the head of
the regiments that lead columns and a
sealed disposition of march, there to be
opened by the general or oldest field-
officer present. In consequence of which
by which the advanced guard will be or-
dered to form; the regiments and car-
rriages to close in to the leading regi-
ments, according to the order of march,
and when the whole are ready, the col-
umn or columns will move off in the
manner then prescribed, and at the ap-
pointed hour.

In general a rendezvous will be ap-
pointed for the bât horses and carri-
rages, that they may the more readily be
directed into the line of march.—One
subaltern per brigade will attend the
bât horses; one subaltern per brigade
will attend the carriages.

The aids-de-camp and majors of bri-
gade will always regulate their watches
by head quarters at orderly time, that
regularity of movement in the troops
may be observed.

Commanding officers of battalions,
squadrons, and brigades of artillery,
will be responsible that they are formed,
tents struck and the baggage loaded in
half an hour, from the time that the
signal for the march was given them, and
for this purpose it is necessary that they
should exercise their men to it where
they have opportunities.

The battalions are to march by sub-
divisions, and the cavalry by subdivi-
sions, or ranks by three’s or two’s. If
the narrowness of the route obliges
them to diminish this front, they must
be ordered to form up again as soon as
the route permits.

Every
Every officer must remain with his division, and never quit it on any account. No soldier to be permitted to leave his rank. No horses or carriages suffered to interrupt the march of the column. The distance between divisions never to exceed the front of divisions. Commanding officers of brigades will take care, that the battalions and squadrons march at their proper ordered distance. When the formation in order of battle may be expected to the flank, the divisions will march at wheeling-up distances; when the formation may be expected to the front, the divisions will march at half or quarter distance. Officers on command will remain with their brigades, and punctually observe the order of march, and the execution of every article prescribed.

If a carriage breaks down, it must be drawn aside, the road cleared, and a proper escort left with it, that the march of the column be not interrupted. If it can be repaired in time, it will follow; if not, the loading must be divided among the nearest carriages, who are hereby ordered to give this reasonable assistance.

The troops at most may march three English miles in an hour and a quarter.

The guides serve only to shew the way for the column; pioneers ordered must make the necessary openings and repair the roads. But the generals must not trust to those precautions, they must gain the most exact knowledge of the route they are to march, and themselves reflect on the most proper means to avoid all difficulties that may embarrass the march.

It is always time well employed to halt the head of a column, and enlarge an opening or repair a bad step in the road, rather than to diminish the front and lengthen out the line of march.

No individual is ever to presume to march on a less front than what the leader of the column directs; and all doublings therefore must come from the head only, and the proper closeness of the march on all occasions, is a point of the highest consequence; and it is a most meritorious service in any officer to prevent all unnecessary doublings, or to correct them as soon as made, and on all occasions whatsoever, in an inclosed country, when in column, to march on the greatest front the roads or overtures will allow, although the regiments or divisions before them may be marching on a narrower front.

The carriages must be obliged to march two abreast when the roads will allow, and the bat horses to be as much connected, and to take up as little space as possible. In short, it should be the study and attention of every one to contract the line of march to its just length, for notwithstanding every possible exertion it will be much too extended.

Whenever the baggage is ordered to be sent away, all carriages whatever are comprehended, except such as are particularly specified.

The instant that a regiment comes to its ground, it must make openings of communication both to its front and flanks.

The line of carriages must at no time stop, whatever accident may happen to any individual one, but such carriage must instantly be drawn on one side, and repaired if possible, while the rest proceed. The officers commanding the several divisions of carriages will be answerable for the strict observance of this article; a failure of which might stop and endanger the whole army.

Whenever the regiments encamp, or take up any extended position in front, it will always be the business of commanding officers to find out, and to make the most convenient passages to the great routes by which the column is afterwards to march. And on many occasions, where there will not be time to open and occupy an extensive front, the army will encamp parallel to and along the great route, covered by an advanced corps on the flank next the enemy.

At all times when commanding officers see, that there are likely to be impediments from the nature of the ground to the movements or march of their regiments, they should always detach officers in advance, to reconnoitre and point out the means and passages by which such obstacles are to be avoided, and at no times are such helps so necessary as when regiments are acting in line in broken ground, and when their movements are combined with those of others.

Whenever the army moves, the majors of brigade are hereby made responsible, that all advanced and detach-
HOMME, Fr. a man.
HOMME de mer, Fr. a seaman.
HOMME d'armes, Fr. a military phrase among the French, signifying a gentleman or cavalier who belonged to one of the old companies, was armed cap-a-pie, and always fought on horseback. In ancient times, every man of this description was accompanied by two horsemen independent of his servants. One of the mounted attendants was armed with a cross-bow, and the other with a common bow or battle-axe; so that one hundred hommes d'armes composed a body of three hundred horse. It was a species of cavalry, which existed from the reign of Louis XI. until the reign of Henry II. Charles VII. had begun to form the French nobility into regular corps of cavalry, dividing them into different troops. Out of these he established a body of fifteen hundred hommes d'armes, or armed bowmen, and he gave the troops or companies, according to their sizes, to the princes and most experienced captains in his kingdom. For particulars we refer the curious to Le Gendre and Gain, Traité des armes, L. 14, and to Fauchet, L. 2. C. 1. de son Traité de la milice et des armes.

HOMMES de cheval, Fr. In all military descriptions which relate to cavalry, the French usually say, cinquante, cent, deux cents, deux mille, &c. hommes de cheval, fifty, one hundred, two hundred, two thousand horse, or cavalry.

Etre HOMME de cheval, Fr. a term in French equitation, signifying, that a man is completely master of his horse, or knows how to manage him thoroughly and according to prescribed rules and regulations. Thus, Il est suffisamment homme de cheval pour n'être point embarrassé de celui qu'il monte en commandant sa troupe.—He is sufficiently master of his horse, or he is horseman enough, not to be the least embarrassed by the one he rides in exercising his troop.

HOMME de corps, Fr. See SERV.
HOMME fidèle, Fr. an individual, who according to the old feudal system, was attached to some lord, to whom his goods and chattels devolved, in case he died without heirs in the line direct. Homme feudataire signifies the same.

HOMMES de pied, Fr. In all accounts of infantry the French say cinquante hommes de pied, &c. fifty foot or infantry.
HONDEAAN or HUNDYVEAAN, an Indian term signifying commission on bills of exchange.
HONEY-COMB, (rayon de miel, Fr.) in a general acceptance of the term, cells of wax, in which the bee stores her honey. Hence HONEY-COMB, (fente, Fr.) in gunnery, which is a cavity or flaw resembling one of those cells.
HONEY-COMBED, having a flaw.
HONEY-COMBS in cannon, flaws in the metal, a fault in casting, which renders it extremely dangerous in firing. The board of ordnance rejects all guns (on proof) having an honey-comb of 1/9th of an inch deep, as being unfit for service.
HONI soit qui mal y pense. Fr. Evil be to him who evil thinks. The motto of the most noble order of the Knights of the Garter. It is seen in all the royal arms of Great Britain.
HONNEUR, Fr. honour.
HONNEURS MILITAIRES, Fr. military honours. It was directed by a general instruction in the French service, that whenever an officer saluted or paid a military honour to a general officer, he should make his troop or company invariably face towards the enemy. The same practice prevails in our service.
HONNEURS funèbres, Fr. funeral honours. See BURIALS.
HONORIFICABILITUDINITY, a term from the Latin, signifying honourableness, or an assemblage of the several good qualities which constitute a man of honour.
HONOUR, in a military sense, is an expression to which custom has given different meanings. Honour consists in the constant practice of virtue. Aristotle calls it the recompense of virtue; the testimony of the excellence of a man who distinguishes himself by virtue.—An Italian writer calls it a state of inviolable dignity, above all calumny and all suspicion. Honour gives many advantages: it procures us the consideration of the public; it advances our fortunes. The best recompense of a brave action is, undoubtedly, the satisfaction of having done it; but nevertheless the honour resulting to us from it is a real good, which should be dear to us.
HONOUR, in a general acceptance may
may be properly called susceptibility. As a term it is variously used in military life, and frequently misunderstood by young and inexperienced officers in their first outset. As a quality of the mind, it cannot be too much encouraged, or too much cultivated among officers of all ranks and descriptions. The possession of it is a guarantee for good conduct, a bond of fidelity, and a certain barrier against military corruption. Most men are excited to deeds of valour and enterprise by a sense of honour, that would otherwise remain inactive, or only perform the mere drudgery of service. This species of Honour, is in fact, the root of that Esprit de Corps which makes a whole body of officers tenacious of reputation, and solicitous to preserve it unsullied from the Colonel down to the lowest Drum Boy.

This term may likewise be considered as esteem, reputation, the glory which is attached by mankind to talents and virtues.

Affair of Honour. We have already given a general outline of this term under Duelling. The propriety or impropriety, as well as the legality or illegality of which mode of terminating human differences is too well explained by the celebrated English lawyer John Selden to be omitted here. His words are under the head Duel; we shall quote them under that of affair of Honour.

"A duel may still be granted in some cases by the law of England, and only there. That the church allowed it anciently appears by this: In their public liturgies there were prayers appointed for the duellists to say, the judge used to bid them go to such a church and pray, &c. But whether this is lawful? If you make any war lawful, I make no doubt but to convince you of it. War is lawful, because God is the only judge between two that is supreme. Now if a difference happen between two subjects, and it cannot be decided by human testimony, why may not they put it to God to judge between them, by the permission of the prince? Nay, what if we should bring it down, for argument's sake, to the sword men; one gives me the lie: it is a great disgrace to take it; the law has made no provision to give remedy for the injury, (if you can suppose any thing an injury for which the law gives no remedy) why am not I, in this case supreme, and may therefore right myself?

"A Duke ought to fight with a gentleman; the reason is this, the gentleman will say to the duke, it is true, you hold a higher place in the state than I; there is a great difference between you and me, but your dignity does not privilege you to do me an injury; as soon as ever you do me an injury, you make yourself my equal; and as you are my equal, I challenge you; and, in sense, the duke is bound to answer him."

In addition to what our learned countryman has said upon duelling, we shall quote a passage from Dr. Robertson's History of the Reign of Charles the V. which will shew, that this mode of determining private disputes is extremely ancient.

"It is evident" observes that author, "from Velleius Paterculus, lib.ii. c.118, that all questions which were decided among the Romans by legal trial, were terminated among the Germans by arms. The same thing appears in the ancient laws and customs of the Swedes, quoted by Jo. O. Stierbök de jure Suevum et Gothorum vetusto, 4to. Holmia 1682, lib. i. c. 7. It is probable, that when the various tribes which invaded the empire were converted to Christianity, their ancient custom of allowing judicial combats appeared so glaringly repugnant to the precepts of religion, that for some time, it was abolished, and by degrees, several circumstances which I have mentioned led them to resume it.

"It seems likewise to be probable, from a law quoted by Stierbök in the treatise which I have mentioned, that the judicial combat was originally permitted in order to determine points respecting the personal character or reputation of individuals, and was afterwards extended not only to criminal cases but to questions concerning property. The words of the law are "If any man shall say to another these reproachful words, "You are not a man equal to other men," or "You have not the heart of a man," and the other shall reply, "I am a man as good as you," let them meet on the highway. If he who first gave offence appear, and the person offended absent himself, let the latter be deemed a worse man even than he was called: let him not
be admitted to give evidence in judgment either for man or woman, and let him not have the privilege of making a testament. If he who gave the offence be absent, and only the person offended appear, let him call upon the other thrice with a loud voice, and make a mark upon the earth, and then let him, who absented himself, be deemed infamous, because he uttered words which he durst not support. If both shall appear properly armed, and the person offended shall fall in the combat, let a half compensation be paid for his death. But if the person who gave the offence shall fall, let it be imputed to his own rashness. The petulance of his tongue hath been fatal to him. Let him lie in the field, without any compensation being demanded for his death. Lex Uplandica ap. Stiern. p. 76. Martial people were extremely delicate with respect to every thing that affected their reputation as soldiers. By the laws of the Salians, if any man called another a harpy, i.e. a runaway, or accused him of having left his shield in the field of battle, he was ordained to pay a large fine. *Leg. Sal. tit. xxxii.* § 4. 6. By the law of the Lombards, if any one called another arga, i.e. a good-for-nothing fellow, he might immediately challenge him to combat. *Leg. Longob. lib. i. tit. v.* § 1. By the law of the Salians, if one called another cenitus, a term of reproach equivalent to arga, he was bound to pay a very high fine. *tit. xxxii.* § 1. Paulus Diaconus relates the violent impression which this reproachful expression made upon one of his countrypeople, and the fatal effects with which it was attended. *De Gestiis Longobard.* lib. vi. c. 21.—Thus the ideas concerning the point of honour, which we are apt to consider as a modern refinement, as well as the practice of duelling, to which it gave rise, are derived from the notion of our ancestors, while in a state of society very little improved." See Robertson's history of Charles V. pages 271, 272.

We shall not take leave of our learned author, without giving two or three instances out of his proofs and illustrations relative to the termination of private feuds by judicial or private combat. This mode of trial was so acceptable, that ecclesiastics, notwithstanding the prohibitions of the church, were constrained not only to connive at the practice, but to authorize it. A remarkable instance of this is produced by Pasquier, *Recherches lib. iv. chap. i.* p. 350. The abbot Wittikindus considered the determination of a point of law by combat as the best and most honourable mode of decision.

In the year 978, a judicial combat was fought in the presence of the Emperor. The Archbishop Aldebert advised him to terminate a contest which had arisen between two Noblemen of his court, by this mode of decision. The vanquished combatant, though a person of high rank, was beheaded on the spot. *Chronic. Ditmari. Episc. Mersb. chez Bouquet Recueil des Hist. tom. x.* p. 121. Questions concerning the property of churches and Monasteries were decided by combat. In the year 961, a controversy concerning the church of St. Merdard, whether it belonged to the abbey of Beau lieu or not, was terminated by judicial combat. *Bouquet Recueil des Hist. tom. ix.* p. 729. *ibid.* p. 612, &c. The Emperor Henry I. declares that this law, authorizing the practice of judicial combats, was enacted with consent and applause of many faithful Bishops. *ibid.* p. 231. So remarkably did the martial ideas of those ages prevail over the genius and maxims of the canon law, which in other instances was in the highest credit and authority with ecclesiastics. A judicial combat was appointed in Spain by Charles V. A. D. 1522. The combatants fought in the presence of the Emperor, and the battle was conducted with all the rites prescribed by the ancient laws of Chivalry. The whole transaction is described at great length by Pontus Hecuterus *Rec. Austriac. lib. viii.* C. 17. p. 205.

The last instance which occurs in the history of France, of a judicial combat authorized by the magistrate, was the famous one between M. Jarnac and M. de la Chastaignerie, A. D. 1547. A trial by combat was appointed in England, A. D. 1571, under the inspection of the judges in the court of Common Pleas; and though it was not carried to the same extremity with the former, Queen Elizabeth having interposed her authority, and enjoined the parties tocompound the matter, yet in order to preserve their honour, the lists were marked out, and all the forms, previous to the combat,
combat, were observed with much ceremony. Spelm. Gloss. Voc. Campus, p. 103. In the year 1631, a judicial combat was appointed between Donald lord Reay, and David Ramsay, Esq. by the authority of the lord high constable and Earl Marshal of England; but that quarrel likewise terminated without bloodshed, being accommodated by Charles I. Another instance occurs seven years later. Rushworth in Observation on the Statutes, &c. p. 266.

It manifestly appears from these extracts, that in former times not only the property of individuals was considered, but their feelings, as men of honour, were consulted. Law, however, soon obtained the entire ascendancy, and judicial or private combats were not only laid aside, but were moreover strictly forbidden. The military character alone seems to have retained a sort of innate privilege to make appeals to the sword, in cases where the nice sensibility of the heart breaks through the trammels of legal disposition, and establishes points of honour which can only be determined by personal exposure. Thus we find that although premeditated Duels were severely punished in France, Rencontres or accidental quarrels were always overlooked, whatever their issue might be. Frederic the Great of Prussia seems to have set his face against duelling altogether. Yet it is singular, that notwithstanding his severe prohibition, a Prussian officer was under the necessity either of vindicating his wounded honour by an appeal to the sword or pistol, or was disgraced for having suffered a personal affront. With us the same hardship exists. Lord Kenyon once declined from the bench, that he would personally interfere as expounder of the British laws, should any minister recommend mercy to his Majesty on the conviction of an individual who had murdered his fellow creature in a duel; and we have lately had a most convincing proof, that the practice is not only countenanced by the King and Commander in Chief, but that every transgression must entail displeasure on the officer.

Word of Honour, (parole d'honneur, Fr.) a promise or engagement that is made or entered into by word of mouth, the breach of which entails disgrace upon the violator.

Point of Honour, (point d'honneur, Fr.) a delicacy of feeling, which is generally acquired by education, and strengthened by an intercourse with men of strict integrity and good conduct. It is likewise very frequently the offspring of peculiar habits, received notions, and established etiquettes. The French familiarly say, Ils se sont battus pour un point d'honneur, they fought for a point of honour; they likewise say, Il y a de son honneur, his honour is at stake. As young Norval emphatically exclains in Douglas, Honour! sole judge and umpire of itself!

To die upon the bed of Honour, (mourir au lit d'honneur, Fr.) is a term particularly applied to military men, who die in battle fighting in their country's cause.

A Court of Honour. Although a court of honour may be said, in some degree, to resemble a court of enquiry, nevertheless it cannot be strictly so; for a court of honour has not only the power of ascertaining the degree of guilt which may be attached to misconduct, but it can entail ignominy upon the guilty person; whereas a court of enquiry only investigates the matter and circumstance, and determines whether there be sufficient ground to try the accused before a general court martial; which is the last resort of military jurisdiction, and unites within itself all the qualities and powers of the other two courts.

A debt of Honour, an obligation which among honourable men, especially officers, is more binding than those engagements or contracts that are guaranteed by law. The reason is manifest.

Honours by Guards, as a compliment to general officers, &c. with the detail of officers and men they are entitled to in the English army:

The commander in chief, if a field-marshall or captain-general, has 1 captain, 1 lieutenant, 1 ensign, 2 serjeants, 2 drummers, 2 fifers, and 50 privates, with colours.

A general of horse and foot has 1 captain, 1 subaltern, 2 serjeants, 2 drummers, 2 fifers, and 50 privates.

A lieutenant-general of horse and foot has 1 lieutenant, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, and 30 privates.

A major-general of horse and foot has 1 ensign, 1 serjeant, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, and 20 privates.
A brigadier has 1 serjeant and 12 privates.
A quarter-master general has 1 serjeant and 12 privates.
Majors of brigade, encamped together, have 1 serjeant and 2 privates.
A judge advocate has 1 serjeant and 7 privates.
A provost-marshal has 1 serjeant and 18 privates.
A provost-marshal, when he has prisoners, has 1 lieutenant, 2 serjeants, 1 drummer, 1 fifer, and 40 privates.

Military Honours. All armies salute crowned heads in the most respectful manner, colours and standards dropping and officers saluting. Their guards pay no compliment except to princes of the blood, and that by courtesy in the absence of crowned heads.

A field-marshall is to be saluted with the colours and standards of all the forces, except the horse and foot-guards, and excepting when any of the royal family shall be present; but in case a field-marshall is colonel of any regiment, or troop of horse or foot guards, he is to be saluted by the colours or standards of the regiment or troop he commands.

Generals of cavalry and infantry, upon all occasions, are to have the march beat to them, and to be saluted by all officers; those bearing the colours excepted.

Lieutenant-generals of cavalry and infantry are, upon all occasions, to be saluted by all officers. They are to have three ruffles given them, with presented arms.

Major-generals are to have two ruffles with presented arms.

Brigadier-generals are to have one ruffle with presented arms.

To colonels their own quarter-guards in camp turn out, and present their arms, once a day, after which they only turn out with ordered arms.

To majors their own guards turn out with ordered arms once a day; at other times they stand by their arms.

When a lieutenant-colonel or major commands a regiment, their own quarter-guards pay them the same compliment as is ordered for the colonel.

The master-general of the ordnance is to have the same respect and honours paid to him as the generals of horse and foot.

Honours to be paid by the cavalry.—A general of cavalry or infantry is to be received with swords drawn, kettle-drums beating, trumpets sounding the march, and all the officers to salute, except the cornet bearing the standard.

A lieutenant-general is to be received with swords drawn, trumpets sounding twice the trumpet flourish, as in drawing swords, and all the officers to salute except the cornet bearing the standard; but the kettle-drums are not to beat.

A major-general is to be received with swords drawn, one trumpet of each squadron sounding once the trumpet flourish, as in drawing swords; no officer to salute, nor kettle-drum to beat.

A brigadier-general is to be received with swords drawn; no trumpet to sound, nor any officer to salute, nor kettle drum to beat.

All officers in the command of forts or garrisons, have a right to the complimentary honours from the troops under their command, which are due to the rank one degree higher than the one they actually possess.

Manner of paying honours.—The king's standard or colour in the guards, is never to be carried by any guard, except that which mounts on his Majesty's person.

The first standard, guidon, or colour of regiments, which is the union colour, is not carried by any guard, but that on the King, Queen, Prince of Wales, or Commander in Chief, being of the royal family; and, except in those cases, it shall always remain with the regiment.

When general officers, or persons entitled to a salute, pass in the rear of a guard, the officer is only to make his men stand shoulder'd, and not to face his guard to the right about, or beat his drum.

All sentries are to pay a due respect to every officer who passes by their posts, but are to keep their proper front until paying the compliment.

All governors, whose commissions in the army are under the degree of general officers, shall have, in their own garrisons, all the guards turn out with rested arms; the drummers to beat one ruffle; and though the main guard turns out with rested arms every time he passes, yet they give him the compliment of the drum.
drum but once a day; but all the other guards beat as often as he appears near them.

If they are general officers likewise, they are then to have the further compliments paid them, by the several beatings of the drum, as practised in the army.

Regulation of honours to be paid to admirals.—Admirals, with their flags on the maintop, are to have the same respect from the troops as generals of cavalry and infantry; that is, upon all occasions to have a march beat to them, and to be saluted by all the officers, those bearing the colours excepted.

Vice admirals are to have the same respect as lieutenant-generals of cavalry and infantry; that is, upon all occasions be saluted by all the officers in the garrison, the drummers beating 3 ruffles.

The rear-admirals are to have the same respect as major-generals, who have two ruffles, and not to be saluted by any officer.

Commodores with broad pendants have the same respect as brigadier-generals; which is, to have one ruffle.

Rank and precedence between sea and land officers.—The admiral or commander, in chief of his majesty's fleet is to rank with a field-marshall of the army.

The admirals with their flags on the main-top-mast-head, are to have rank with generals.

Vice-admirals are to have rank as lieutenant-generals.

Rear-admirals are to have rank as major-generals.

Commodores with broad pendants are to rank as brigadier-generals.

Captains commanding post ships after three years from the date of their first commission for a post ship, are to have rank as colonels.

All other captains commanding post ships, are to have rank as lieutenant-colonels.

Captains of his majesty's ships or vessels, not taking post, are to have rank as majors.

Lieutenants of his majesty's ships are to have rank as captains.

The rank and precedence of sea officers, in the classes above-mentioned, are to take place according to the seniority of their respective commissions.

Post captains commanding ships or vessels that do not give post, rank only as majors during their commanding such vessels.

No land officer is to command any of his majesty's squadrons or ships, nor any sea officer to command at land; nor shall either have a right to demand military honours due to their respective ranks, unless they are upon actual service.

All guards and sentinels are to pay the same compliments to the officers of the royal navy, as are directed to be paid to the officers of the army, according to their relative ranks.

The compliments above directed are to be paid by the troops, to officers in the service of any power in alliance with his majesty, according to their respective ranks.

Turning out of the line. The line turns out without arms, whenever any part of the royal family, or the general commanding in chief, comes along the front of the camp.

When the line turns out, the private men are to be drawn up in a line with the colours and standards; the corporals on the right and left of their respective companies, the piquet forms behind the colours, accoutred, but without arms.

The officers and non-commissioned officers are to be drawn up with their respective companies. The field officers in their proper posts in battalion, two ensigns taking hold of the colours.

When the commander in chief comes along the line, the camp colours on the flanks of the parade are to be struck, and planted opposite to the bells of arms, and the drums piled up behind the colours; the halberts are to be planted between, and on each side of the bells of arms, the hatchets turned from the colours.

Honours of war, in one sense are stipulated terms which are granted to a vanquished enemy, and by which he is permitted to march out of a town, from a camp or line of entrenchments, with all the insignia of military etiquette. In another sense they signify the compliments which are paid to great personages, military characters, &c. when they appear before any armed body of men; or such as are given to the remains of a deceased officer. The particular circumstances attending the latter
ter are well known, and depend greatly upon the usages of different countries; those which regard our own service may be seen under burials. With respect to the former we think it necessary to observe, that it is extremely difficult, and much beyond the limits of our undertaking, to describe them specifically; as much, indeed almost every thing, depends upon the disposition of the general who grants the capitulation. In some instances, the troops of a besieged garrison are permitted to march out with drums beating, colours flying, &c. others are only allowed to advance silently in front of their works, ground or pile their arms, face to the right and return within their line of entrenchments. Others again (as was the case with lord Cornwallis, at York Town, in Virginia) are permitted to march out, with drums beating, to a given spot, there pile their arms, face to the right about, and march back to their works. In the instance quoted, the officers retained their side arms and baggage, with such horses as they had lawfully obtained by purchase, &c. A sloop of war was allowed to proceed to New York with dispatches from the British general to Sir Henry Clinton, who was commander in chief of the forces acting against America; which vessel passed and repassed without being searched. This indulgence proved extremely fortunate to a small number of American Loyalists, who were peaceably transported into the British lines, instead of being sacrificed to the fury of their countrymen in arms.

When the town of Valenciennes surrendered to the present commander in chief, Field Marshal his Royal Highness the Duke of York, the garrison under the orders of General Ferrand was permitted to march out by the gate of Cambrai with the honours of war. It was, however, specifically stated, that the troops should lay down their arms at a named spot, viz. at a house called le Briquelet, where they were to leave their colours and field-pieces without damaging them in the least. They were likewise directed to leave their troop-horses, artillery, provisions, and other military effects. Those belonging to the officers were restored to them, with their swords. It was further agreed, that the garrison should march out on the 1st of August, in the manner mentioned; and as the troops were prisoners of war, their route to return into France was to be communicated to them 24 hours previous to their departure, in order to receive their parole of honour. The officers and soldiers engaged not to serve during the whole course of the present war against the armies of his majesty the emperor, and of his allies, without having been exchanged conformably to the cartels, under pain of military punishment.

General Ferrand had demanded, that the garrison should march out from the place on the 6th day after the signature of the capitulation, to repair to such part of the French republic as he should judge proper, with arms and baggage, horses, drums beating, matches lighted at both ends, colours flying, and with all the cannon they could carry away. These articles were refused by the Duke of York; and on the 28th of July, 1793, Valenciennes surrendered to the British arms, in trust for the emperor of Germany.

As soon as the capitulation was signed, hostages were sent into the town, namely, a colonel, a major, and a captain, who were exchanged against officers of an equal rank of the garrison; which hostages were restored immediately after the execution of the articles of capitulation.

When Muntua surrendered to Bonaparte, the veteran general Wurmser, in consideration of his brave defence of the place, was allowed to leave the place with all the honours of war.

Several emigrants, on this occasion, escaped in the covered wagons.

HONOURABLE, noble, high spirited, full of rectitude, and beyond the least approach of meanness or corruption. This term is frequently attached to sur-names from courtesy.

HONOURABLY acquitted, a term used in naval and military courts-martial. See observations respecting this usage, vol. i. Regimental Companion.

HOOF, ( sabot, Fr.) part of a horse's foot.

Hoor-bony, a round boney swelling growing on a horse's hoof.

Hoor-bound, (encastré, Fr.) a shrinking of the top of a horse's hoof.

Hoor-cast. When the coffin or horn falls clear away from the hoof.
Hoor-loosened, is a loosening of the coffin (or hollow part of a horse's hoof) from the flesh.

HOOK, (crochet, croc, Fr.) a bended iron to hang things upon. Also a small piece of bent wire, which is used in fastening a coat, to the eye; also a piece of wire.

HOOKS, pieces of bent iron fixed to the transom plates of a field-carriage are so called. They serve to fix the drag-ropes for drawing it occasionally backwards or forwards.

HOOKS and Eyes. It is directed in all well-disciplined corps, that every officer, non-commissioned officer, and soldier, when regimentally dressed, should have the uniform coat hooked across the chest. This regulation has, in some degree, been dispensed with during the winter months, as far as it regards the officers, who have been permitted to button their coats. In some corps the indulgence is rendered nugatory, as the facings are sewed to the coat. The dressing of a line is certainly rendered more perfect by the use of the hooks and eyes, as they prevent any intermediate obstacle along the line of sight. This nicety is indispensable in parade business; but we shall not pretend to say how far it may be necessary to enforce it strictly on service. The propriety of some general rule being established is manifest, since every soldier knows, that the slightest deviation from the laudable system of uniformity almost always leads to gross neglects.

HOOKUM, an Indian word, signifying order or command.

HOOKUMNAUMAH, in India, signifies instruction.

HOOP of iron, a circular iron band. Several sorts of hoops are used in the construction of artillery carriages, as nave and axle-tree hoops, &c.

HOPITAL, Fr. hospital. During the old French government, there existed 80 military hospitals under the immediate sanction of the king. These hospitals were subject to the war-minister, from whom they received instructions, and they were all originally built for the benefit of sick and disabled soldiers. The chief appointments in each hospital consisted of a comptroller of accounts, a physician, a surgeon-major, and a contractor, whose sole duty was to provide for the wants and necessities of his majesty's troops. These were permanent establishments. In time of war, every army had a certain number of hospitals attached to its component parts. There were likewise other hospitals, which were under the care of the intendant of each province. They chiefly consisted in those erected on the frontier and in garrison towns.

HOPITAL sur mer, Fr. hospital-ship. A particular vessel, which is always attached to a naval armament, and is provided with the necessary accommodations for the sick and wounded belonging to the ships of war. The same precautions (indeed greater if possible) are indispensably necessary to prevent the dreadful consequences of contagion, that are directed to be observed in the fumigation, &c. of transports. During the old government of France, hospital ships were of a particular construction. Independently of the equipage, tackle, &c. belonging to every other navigable ship, these vessels were directed to have their decks extremely high, to have large port-holes, and to have the space between the decks constantly clear, so that the cots and bedding of the sick might be conveniently placed, and a constant circulation of free air be preserved.

HOPLITAII, foot soldiers among the Greeks, who bore heavy armour, and engaged with broad shields and long spears. These took precedence of all other foot soldiers.—Potter's Greek Ant. vol. ii. c. 3.

HOQUETON, Fr. a sort of garment, which was worn during the old government of France by gentlemen belonging to the king's body guard, who were called gardes de la manche. It sometimes signifies a serjeant; but the term is obsolete.

HORD, (horde, Fr.) a crowd or assemblage of people, who have not any fixed or certain habitation. The term was originally applied to a body of Tartars, who followed a roving life, encamped in different countries, and chiefly lived with their flocks.

HORDEARIUM, the money which the Romans gave their cavalry for the sustenance of their horses.

HORDEUM, barley. In ancient Rome the horses were fed with barley; and the soldiers were sometimes punished
nished by being confined to that allowance.

HORION, Fr. a term which formerly signified a helmet, and which in the vulgar acceptation of it now, among the French, means a blow upon the head.

HORIZON, (horizon, Fr.) a circle which divides the invisible from the visible part of the globe.

HORIZONTAL, parallel to the horizon; on a level.

Horizontal superficies, the plain field lying upon a level, without any rising or falling.

Horizontal plane, that which is parallel to the horizon of the place.

In levelling, the chief object to be considered is, whether two points be in the horizontal plane; or whether they deviate; and in what degree.

Horizontal range, or level range of a piece of ordnance, is the line it describes, when directed parallel to the horizon.

The following useful theorems come from the pen of the ingenious Dr. Halley:

1. A shot being made on an inclined plane, having the horizontal distance of the object it strikes with the elevation of the piece, and the angle at the gun between the object and the perpendicular, to find the greatest horizontal range of that piece loaded with the same charge of powder, that is, half the latus rectum of all the parabolas made with the same impetus.—Take half the angle contained between the object and the nadir, and the difference of the given angle of elevation from that half; subtract the versed sine of that difference from the versed sine of the angle made by the object and zenith. The difference of those versed sines will be to the sine of the angle last mentioned, as the horizontal distance of the object struck to the greatest range at 45 degrees.

2. Having the horizontal range of a gun, the horizontal distance and angle of inclination of an object to the perpendicular, to find the two elevations necessary to strike that object.—Take half the angle contained between the object and nadir; this half is equal to half the sum of the two angles of elevation sought. Then say, as the horizontal range is to the horizontal distance of the object, so is the sine of the angle of inclination to a fourth proportional;

which fourth, being subtracted from the versed sine of the angle formed by the object and zenith, leaves the versed sine of half the difference of the angles of elevation, whose half sum was before obtained; therefore, by adding and subtracting half the difference of the angles of elevation to and from the said half sum, the elevations themselves will be found.

HORN. (Corne, Cor, Cornet, Fr.) See Bugle horn.

Horn-work. (Ouvrage à Corne, Fr.) See Fortification.

HORS de Combat, a French military phrase, signifying that an individual or body of men are so completely beat by superior skill, &c. as not to be able to maintain the field of battle.

Mettre Hors de Combat, to drive your opponent before you; to press him so closely, that he cannot make a stand against you—To put him out of the lists of contest.

Hors de portée, Fr. (in fencing) out of distance.

Hors de mesure, Fr. (in fencing) out of measure.

HORSE, in a military sense, a body of horse. See Cavalry.

Horse-Guards, a public building, situated in Parliament-street, Westminster, which is so called from a guard having been originally mounted there by the Horse-guards, whose duty is now performed by the Life-Guards.

The Commander in Chief’s office, that of the Secretary at War, Adjutant General, Muster Master General, &c. are at the Horse-Guards; to which place all official communications relating to the British army are transmitted. All applications, personal or otherwise to the Commander in Chief, are likewise made there.

Associated Horse—a body of Cavalry so called in the days of Cromwell. At the famous battle of Nasbie (fought on the 14th of June, 1645) which decided the fate of Charles the First, the associated horse were posted in the rear of the right wing of the Republican army, and formed a part of the reserve.—There were troops of the association stationed in the rear of the left. Oliver Cromwell commanded the cavalry on the right of the whole, and the associated horse were under his immediate orders.

Horse
Horse near-side protect, a guard used in the cavalry sword exercise. See Sword Exercise.

Horse off-side protect. See Sword Exercise.

Horses falsely mustered are by the 7th section of the Mutiny act to be forfeited, if belonging to the person who lent them for that purpose; if not, the person lending them to forfeit 20l. When officers belonging to cavalry regiments purchase horses for public service, they are to make the best bargain they can for Government, and to account for every saving which has been made, within a limited sum.

Horse, a wooden machine, which soldiers ride by way of punishment. See Cheval de Bois.

Horse. See Portcullis.

HORSEMAN. See Cavalry.

HORSESHOE. See Fortification.

HOSE, breeches or stockings. It is generally taken in the latter sense when mentioned as part of a soldier’s necessities.

Over-Hose, mens breeches and stockings together, or Leggings. Dragoons generally wear them when they appear in their watering dresses.

HOSPITAL, a place appointed for the sick and wounded men, provided with physicians, surgeons, nurses, servants, medicines, beds, &c.

HOSPITALS with military superintendents.—There are four general hospitals of this description, viz. at Plymouth, Deal, Gosport, and Portsmouth, and York Hospital at Chelsea.

The Surgeons at Portsmouth and Deal have not any rank attached to the situation, but they receive five shillings per day extra allowance in addition to their nett pay of ten shillings. At Plymouth a Physician has charge of the hospital; he receives twenty shillings per day, but has no extra allowance. York hospital at Chelsea is attended by an assistant surgeon, being under the immediate direction of the surgeon general.

The military superintendents have five shillings over and above their nett pay, according to the rank they hold in the army.

At Gosport the military superintendent has one guinea allowed per week for lodging money, together with coals, candles, &c.

A fifth military superintendent was appointed in 1800 to take charge of the temporary hospital at Colchester. See James’s Regimental Companion.

These are the principal permanent Hospitals in England, for a specific description of whose regulations, &c. as well as for instructions relative to military Hospitals in general, see the last directions which have been published by authority. We cannot, however, dismiss the subject entirely without observing, that the cause of humanity has lately been espoused by the belligerent powers abroad, in a manner which reflects credit on the enlightened age we live in. The following two articles which have been agreed upon between the Austrians and the French are illustrative of our observation.

Hospitals ought to be considered as inviolable.

Art. 1. The military hospitals shall be considered as so many inviolable asylums, where valour shall be respected, shall be assisted, and shall be free, whatever the army may be to which these hospitals belong, and upon whatever ground they may be established.

Art. 2. These hospitals shall be marked out by writings placed on the adjacent roads, in order that the troops may not approach, and that in passing they may observe silence, and cease beating the drums, or sounding the trumpets.

Camp Hospitals are either general or regimental. The general hospitals are of two kinds, viz.

Flying-Hospitals, Stationary-Hospitals.

The first Stationary-Hospitals, attends the camp at some convenient distance, and the latter is fixed at one place. In the choice of both Dr. Pringle thinks it better to have them in towns than villages, as the former will afford larger wards, besides more of other conveniences. These wards should be as airy as possible.

Regimental-Hospitals are frequently in barracks, stables, granaries, and other out-houses; but above all, churches make the best hospitals from the beginning of June to October: these hospitals are solely for the use of the regiments they belong to.

Every regiment on the British establishment has an hospital for the reception of the sick belonging to it.
This hospital is under the immediate care of the regimental surgeon, who is subordinate to the general medical Board.

Officers commanding brigades are enjoined frequently to visit the hospitals of the regiments composing their brigades, and minutely to investigate the economy and order therein established; to enquire into the state of the patients, their diet, and attendance of every kind, and to enforce the strictest observance of the hospital regulations.

These attentions are required still more in detail, from commanding officers of regiments, who from personal observation have opportunities of checking every abuse, and whose duty it is to extend to the hospitals the same system of order, regularity and discipline, which should prevail in their regiments.

The captain and subaltern of the day of each regiment are to visit the hospital at different and uncertain hours, to observe the cleanliness of the wards, the regularity of messing and the appearance of the men, who, while they are in the hospital, are by no means to be permitted to contract habits of slovenliness in their dress, but are expected to appear perfectly clean in every particular.

Every species of gaming is strictly forbidden. Any patient convicted of swearing, disorderly behaviour, insolent and provoking conduct towards the attendants, or of any deviation from the hospital regulations, will be severely punished.

The captain of the day is to report all irregularities, he may observe, to the commanding officer of the regiment.

The surgeon is to make a daily report of the sick to the commanding officer, who will make a weekly report to the officer commanding the brigade, who will make a general report of the sick of his brigade once a week to head quarters.

Regimental hospitals are under the immediate direction of their respective surgeons, subject to the general instructions and superintendence of the inspector of regimental hospitals, or other professional persons, having authority for that purpose, from the Commander in Chief. It is the duty of the inspector of regimental hospitals, and of such other officers of the medical staff as shall be ordered for that purpose, to visit regimental hospitals from time to time; to observe whether the hospital regulations are strictly adhered to, to enquire whether any causes of complaint exist among the patients, and to submit to the generals commanding in districts, such local observations as he conceives may tend to the benefit of the sick.

When a regiment is stationed in a barrack, where no detached building is appropriated for the hospital, or in camp and cantonments, it is the business of the surgeon, to procure an airy, and commodious hospital, taking particular care, that it is amply supplied with wholesome water.

In camp, a tent will be allowed, which must be pitched upon the best dry piece of ground, in the vicinity of the regimental hospital, to which it is granted as an aid, but must not, except in cases of absolute necessity, be itself considered as the hospital.

The responsibility for the order, regularity, and cleanliness of the regimental hospital, for the diet and care of the patients, and for the general conduct and economy of the whole establishment, rests entirely with the surgeon; but commanding officers are enjoined to furnish such military assistance, as may be necessary, for the attainment of these objects, and all non-commissioned officers and others placed in the hospital, in aid of the surgeon, are commanded to yield the most implicit obedience to the instructions they may receive from him, and to enforce, in every instance, the most minute observance of the hospital regulations, which are to be fairly written, and fixed on a board in the most conspicuous part of the entrance of the regimental hospital.

The surgeon should be consulted in the selection of the serjeant to be appointed to assist him in the hospital; and it will tend materially to the benefit of the sick, that this non-commissioned officer, and the orderly men acting in the hospital, should be considered as being in a permanent situation, and not liable to be removed except in case of misdemeanour.

A guard is to be constantly furnished to
to the hospital, and the surgeon will signify to the commanding officer of the regiment, the particular orders which he wishes to be given to the non-commissioned officer commanding it, and to the sentries.

When a soldier comes into the hospital, his arms and accoutrements are to be taken in charge by the non-commissioned officer attending the hospital, but his ammunition is to be left with his troop or company, and is in no instance to be taken with him to the hospital.

Regimental surgeons are enjoined to take under their care any non-commissioned officers or soldiers of other regiments, (upon the commanding officer's authority for so doing being obtained) who, from the absence of the corps to which they belong, from there being no general hospital in the neighbourhood, or from other unavoidable circumstances, are under the necessity of applying to them for relief and assistance.

It cannot be superfluous to remark in this place, that in the French service there was, and we believe there still is, a specific regulation, which directs, that all soldiers who have contracted a venereal disorder should be received into one of the Royal or Public hospitals, without exception or distinction. They are attended to in a particular quarter or ward, without expense to themselves or to their corps. Particular care is taken not to mix their linen or clothes with others, and they are always washed apart. No soldier, whose disorder has been pronounced incurable was or is received into any of the Public hospitals. The physician or surgeon only gives the incurables a certificate of their state and condition.

It is very desirable, that in every regimental hospital, there should be an apartment appropriated to convalescents, whose diet and mode of living must remain under the direction of the surgeon, and who must themselves be in every respect, subject to the hospital regulations. A trusty non-commissioned officer must be appointed to the superintendence of the messings, and conduct of this particular ward.

Convalescents, on coming out of the hospital, are not to be put on duty, till the surgeon certifies to the adjutant, that they are perfectly recovered; for which purpose the surgeon, or assistant surgeon, must make a particular inspection of these men, at morning parade, to prevent any remaining longer exempted from duty, than the state of their health renders absolutely necessary. On a march, when circumstances will permit, the packs of such convalescents, as have not yet received certificates of their being fit for duty, should be carried for them.

Convalescents, when discharged from the hospital, should not be put immediately on public duties, but should be employed for a certain time, on regimental guards only, where they are not liable to be so much exposed to the weather, or to fatigue.

It is most positively ordered, that the surgeon, or assistant surgeon, shall attend all parades and field days. No punishment is to be inflicted, but in the presence of the surgeon or assistant surgeon.

In cantonments and barracks, the quarters of the surgeon must be near the hospital; and the assistant surgeon's tent must be pitched in its vicinity when a regiment is in camp.

The instructions for the economy and management of regimental hospitals, framed by the army medical board, having received the approbation of the Commander in Chief, are to be considered as proceeding immediately from that quarter; and all generals commanding brigades and regiments, are enjoined to give them full effect, and by their authority to enforce the strictest observance of them, within their respective commands.

**Chelsea Hospital.** See Chelsea.

**Greenwich Hospital.** A magnificent building originally instituted by King Charles II., for decayed seamen and mariners. It stands upon the banks of the river Thames, has a delightful park annexed to it, with an astronomical observatory. It is situate 5 miles East of London, in the county of Kent.

**Hospital-mate,** in recruiting districts. According to the last printed regulations, it is directed that an hospital mate should be placed under the orders of each field officer, to examine the recruits when brought for inspection, and to give such medical assistance as may be in his power, to the several recruiting
cruting parties in the district he belongs to. The actual disbursements of the said mate for medicines, when not supplied from the public stores, will be reimbursed to him by the district paymaster, upon a certified account thereof, vouched by the approving signature of the inspector of regimental infirmaries; such of them, however, as may be incurred for unestablished corps, or for corps of fencibles and militia, are to be stated separately; being, when approved as above, to be defrayed by the regimental paymaster, out of the fixed allowance for medicines, made to corps of the above mentioned description.

Hospital-fever, a name given to the malignant catarrhal fever, as being the most frequent in hospitals.

Hospodar, a dignitary title, which is given to the Prince of Walachia, who is tributary to the Grand Signor, and from whom he receives the investiture.

Host, an army; any large body of men assembled together in arms.

Hostage, in the art of war, a person given up to an enemy, as a security for the performance of the articles of a treaty. When two enemies enter into a treaty or capitulation, it is common for them mutually to give hostages as a security for their reciprocally performing the engagement they have entered into. An hostage becomes either an accessory, or principal, according to the state of things. Thus, for example, he is accessory when a prince promises fidelity to another prince, and gives either his son, or some great lord, as a security for his performance, without any further capitulation; for then this hostage is only an additional engagement of the prince; and if he violates his word, the hostage is not in any manner responsible. An hostage becomes a principal, when it is stipulated that he shall be answerable for the event of things. For instance, if a city promise to surrender within a certain time, in case it is not succoured, and, for the security of this article, give hostages (which are in the same nature as bail given to a creditor to secure a debt); so that if the succours arrive in time, the promise becomes void, and the hostages are discharged; but if the succours do not arrive, and the city is guilty of a breach of faith, by refusing to surrender, then the hostages become principal, and may be punished for a breach of faith.

At the commencement of the present contest between France and Great Britain, the subjects of the latter power were unexpectedly detained by the former, and still remain as hostages in that country. England, on the contrary, gave free egress to every Frenchman who chose to quit the kingdom within a given period.

Hostile, inimical; suitable to an enemy.

Hostilités, Fr. See Hostilities.

Hostilities, in a military sense, may imply a rupture between the inhabitants of the same country, town, or place; and the first outrage that is committed by either party, as in general matters of warfare, is considered to be the first commencement of hostilities. Between nations, the first act of hostility presupposes a declaration of war. There are, however, certain established laws and regulations by which acts of hostility are governed; without the intervention of these restrictions, war would be conducted upon the most brutal and ferocious principles. Every wise and good general will exert his influence and authority to soften the fury of his victorious men, let the contest be ever so obstinate and bloody. Self-preservation, indeed, suggests this natural precaution; for if soldiers were permitted to ill-treat their prisoners, the sanguinary system of retaliation must prevail.

Hostility denotes a state of war or enmity between two nations. During a truce all acts of hostility are to cease on both sides.

Hosting. An obsolete term, formerly signifying the mustering of men in arms.

Hotel des Invalides, Fr. a spacious building which was erected by Louis XIV. in Paris, at the extremity of the Faubourgh St. Germain, upon the river Seine, as a public monument of his charity and magnificence. All disabled, infirm, and wounded officers and soldiers were received, lodged, and subsisted during the remainder of their lives within its walls. The established number upon the foundation was 4000, includ-
including officers and soldiers. All exceeding that number, and who were less incapable of bearing arms, were distributed among the different garrison towns upon the frontiers of the kingdom, in detached and separate companies.

During the old government of France, a particular staff was appointed to superintend the duty at the Invalides, and a guard was regularly mounted every morning. Officers and soldiers entitled to this charity, were first received in 1670. M. de Louvois, minister and secretary at war, was the first director and administrator general, and M. Dormoy was the first governor commandant.

The staff consisted of one director and administrator general, one governor commandant, one lieutenant du Roi, one major, two adjutants, one garçon major, one director and superintendent of the hospital, and one inspector and comptroller general, who did the duty of commissary at the different inspections.

No person could be admitted into the royal hospital of invalids unless he had served twenty years successively and without interruption, or had been dangerously wounded in the service of his country. The necessary certificates were signed by the commanding officers and majors of regiments, which were afterwards examined by the directors or inspectors.

No officer was received with the rank of officer, unless he had served two years in that capacity, and had been dangerously wounded, or was otherwise rendered incapable of doing duty.

The persons belonging to the Hotel des Invalides were divided into three classes:

The first class was composed of officers belonging to the king's troops, to the body-guards, gens d'armes, light horsemen, musqueteers, serjeants of companies in the horse grenadiers, after having served five years in that capacity; of serjeants of the French and Swiss guards, after ten years service in that capacity; of officers attached to the constable's jurisdiction, exempt officers and maréchaussés, after having been ten years with the rank of officers; and of gens d'armes and light horsemen belonging to established companies; of quarter-masters from cavalry and dragoon corps, and of infantry serjeants, who bore the brevet rank of lieutenant, after having served five years in the last capacity.

The second class was composed of gens d'armes, light horsemen belonging to established companies, quarter-masters belonging to cavalry and dragoon corps, and of serjeants from the infantry, after having served ten years in that capacity; of those likewise who, having left the cavalry to enter into the bodyguards, had again returned to the cavalry. Within this class were also comprehended the gardes magasins, the captains and conductors of artillery, after thirty years service, ten of which were to be in the last mentioned capacities. All belonging to this class wore an uniform distinguished from the dress of the soldier, and were permitted to wear a sword. They received at the commencement of every month 15 sols, or 7½d. English, for ordinary expences; they were lodged in a particular quarter of the building, which was allotted to their use; they had a separate room to mess in; and they were fed like the common soldier, with this only exception, that each of them was allowed every morning a demi-septice, or an English pint of wine. Those belonging to established garrisons in forts or citadels composed companies which were called compagnies de bus-officers, companies of non-commissioned officers.

The third class was composed of private soldiers, heavy horsemen and dragoons, archers attached to the constable's jurisdiction, and maréchaussées, or patroles belonging to the police, masters or common workmen and artillery drivers.

HOTTE, Fr. a sort of hand-basket, which is often made use of in the construction of batteries and other works, and serves to carry earth from one part to another.

HOTTENTOTS, the Aborigines, or native inhabitants of a settlement, which took place in 1800, at the Cape of Good Hope. They possessed the whole of the colony, containing a large tract of country to the eastward and northward of Cape Town, until they were subdued and reduced to a wretched state.
state of subjection by the Dutch boors.

As this settlement (if regained) must always prove a valuable acquisition to the empire of Great Britain, and will unquestionably become an object of increasing importance to the government, we should be wanting in our duty to the public, and unjust to the merits of a deserving and enterprising officer, were we to omit the insertion of some interesting particulars, with which we have been favoured by Lieut. Col. Fielder King, then of the 91st regiment.

When that officer commanded the light infantry, which was stationed at Stellenbosch in March, 1796, Sir James Craig, who was chief in command, placed a Hottentot under his immediate care, for the purpose of ascertaining (what he had much at heart) the possibility of collecting and keeping together a certain number of those people. In little more than a month 110 were assembled, and marched with the light infantry to the post of Wynberg, where they soon increased to 200, and upwards. Finding them extremely tractable and patient, Col. King represented them in such a favourable manner to Gen. Craig, that he ordered 170 to be armed, and accoutred for service.

When the Dutch fleet came into Saldanha Bay, they marched with the light infantry to that place, and, after the capture of the fleet, continued upon desultory service for the space of a month or more; during which time they discovered not only a keen disposition to be instructed, but evinced a great aptness to learn, and a most unaffected docility of character. So much so, that their commanding officer conceived an eager wish to rescue upwards of ten thousand of his fellow creatures from an abject state, which was worse than slavery, and in which they were kept by their original oppressors and inhuman masters, the Dutch boors. With this ultimate object in view, Col. King directed much of his attention to the organization of his little corps, and soon succeeded in making the men of it capable of being exercised according to the King's rules and regulations. They were formed under one lieutenant and two British serjeants. Some of the most intelligent and active amongst them became good drills, and were of considerable use in teaching the rest the manual and platoon exercise, &c. The boys were selected for the purpose of making them drummers and fifers; and they soon acquired a perfect knowledge of their duty. The Hottentots, like the Russians, possess a natural aptitude at learning languages. They are in general well-limbed, though rather undersized, and might be taught light infantry or rifle service with great ease. As a proof of our assertion respecting the facility which they find in acquiring different languages, we have the best authority to state, that one man, belonging to the corps already mentioned, having been detached on duty with a Highland regiment, obtained a competent knowledge of French and English in a very short period.

The Hottentots, who were formed into a separate body, always acted on general field-days with the light infantry; and when it was found necessary to detach some of the British troops against the insurgents from Cafraria, they not only discovered an eagerness to engage the enemy, but gave the most unequivocal proofs of attachment to the British government. If the general principles of humanity, civilization, and social order were to be overlooked, this insurrection of the Cafrrees alone (who are a bold athletic people, inhabiting an immense extent of country, numerous among themselves, and closely united) ought to awaken in the British cabinet a political motive for securing the seat of government at Cape Town by a military establishment in the remote part of the colony. A well-regulated corps of Hottentots under the immediate command and superintendence of British officers, occasionally relieved, and always overawed, by a mixture of British troops, would be sufficient to open a communication with and to preserve order in the most distant parts. They might be stationed at rivers where ferries would be established, where they could mend the roads, and improve the passes over the hills. As the gentleman, to whom we are obliged for this interesting article, very properly remarks, the expediency of keeping a regiment of British cavalry (which might be better employed in India), at a very heavy expense, would be done...
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done away. In his opinion, the corps of Hottentots, formed in the manner already described, should be stationed in two distant districts of the colony called Zellendam and Graaf Renette.—This establishment (supposing ourselves in possession of the Cape) would supersede the necessity of weakening the regular garrison by large detachments, which the existing circumstances of the times, the political cast of the country, and the possibility of fresh insurrections breaking out, might render unavoidable. In an economical view, the importance and wisdom of the plan are incontrovertible. In a military one, they appear equally well founded, since small detachments might be posted at these two stations, for the purpose of keeping up an easy chain of communication with the seat of government. But in a more enlarged and in a more noble view of the subject, namely that of bringing into social intercourse so large a body of our fellow creatures, common sense, sound policy, and civilized humanity, speak loudly for its adoption. It is well known, that however competent the person might have been whom Government, it was said, intend to send out for the agricultural improvement of the colony, such a system would not only have contributed to the security of the spot, which, under the direction of the Board of Agriculture, might be fixed upon for his residence, to have a military post in its neighbourhood, but the impression that would gradually gain upon the minds of the Hottentots, by having the greatest part of that detachment formed from among themselves, would influence in favour of the British settlers. This important object would be rendered the more easy, as it is well known, that there are some hundreds of them under the immediate guidance of three Henniutt missionaries, who are well meaning men, and who have made some progress in the cultivation of their minds and manners. In the spot where they at present assemble, these people can be of little public service; but they might be rendered so were the British to communicate with these teachers, and to encourage them to lead their proselytes, who have a blind faith in every thing they suggest, towards the spot fixed upon by the Board of Agriculture, where they would become useful labourers, and by degrees be taught to feel an interest in society, from which they have hitherto been excluded. On these three grounds (the grand basis of which is humanity linked to social order), the British empire would lay the foundations, in the most important intermediate colony we could possess, of a religious, an agricultural, and a military establishment. Independent of a general spirit of civilization, which would then be introduced among the Hottentots, and eventually among the Cauffees, the minds of the refractory boors would be regenerated, by feeling themselves rescued from the caprice of an uncontrouled rapacious Landdroost; sentiments of concord would succeed to principles of vexation towards the Hottentots, and old England would possess the enviable character of having again added to civilization, whilst she extended her territorial property.

We cannot conclude our account of the Hottentots without endeavouring to preserve, in testimony of Col. King’s zeal and activity, the following sketch, which he gave in to government on his arrival from the Cape in 1799:

**MIXED CORPS FOR THE SERVICE OF THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.**

Of British soldiers.

One troop of light dragoons, formed and composed according to the present war establishment. One company of infantry of about 80 rank and file, and 2 serjeants to each company of Hottentots.

**Hottentots.**

Five companies of 100 each.

State of the officers, who were all to have been of British or Irish extraction.

1 Lieutenant-Colonel, Commander
2 Majors
7 Captains
7 Lieutenants
7 Second Lieutenants, or Ensigns
1 Adjutant
1 Quarter-master
1 Paymaster
1 Surgeon
2 Assistant surgeons.

**HOUCKIEN, or Hackien, Fr.** the name given to a faction which rose in the Low Countries, and was opposed to that of Kabeljauw. The latter term signifies a fish which devours others, and Houckien means a hook, whence the faction
faction in question used to say, that they could catch their enemies with the same ease that fish are caught.

Houguines, Fr. flat pieces of iron with which the ancient warriors covered their thighs, legs, and arms.

Houlliér, Fr. an obsolete French term, which meant what is now expressed by Picoreur des armées, or a free-booter.

Houn, a gold coin of the Mysore country, value about four rupees.

Houppe, Fr. a small tuft or bunch of worsted, worn in the corners of three-cocked regimental hats. The officers in the British service have them made of gold and crimson silk.

Hourdeys, Fr. an old French term which signified, first, hurdles with which the tops of the walls belonging to a fortified town were covered, in order to shield them against the concussion of warlike machines; and secondly, a machine formerly used, which was called in Latin horcadium.

Housarde, Fr. to fight with Husars, or after their method.

Household troops. The Life-Guards, Royal Regiment of Horse Guards, and the three regiments of Foot-Guards are so styled. It is a peculiar privilege of these regiments, that no officer of the line, fencibles, or militia, can sit upon a court-martial which may be assembled for the trial of any person belonging to them.

Housing, or saddle-housing, cloth, skin, or other ornaments added to saddles, by way of distinction; frequently embroidered with gold or silver, or edged with gold or silver lace.

House. See Housing.

Howitz, a kind of mortar mounted upon a field-carriage like a gun: the difference between a mortar and a howitz is, that the trunnions of the first are at the end, and of the other in the middle. The invention of howitzers is of much later date than mortars, as from them they had their origin.

The contructions of howitzers are as various and uncertain as those of mortars, excepting the chambers, which are all cylindrical. They are distinguished by the diameter of the bore: for instance, a 10-inch howitz is that, the diameter of which is 10 inches; and so of the larger or smaller ones.

Under this class or description of ordnance, may also be mentioned the carronade, a very short piece of iron ordnance, originally made at Carron, a river in Scotland, from whence the Carron company, or foundery, derives its name.

It is different from ordnance in general, having no trunnions, and being elevated upon a joint and bolt. The length of the calibre seldom exceeds three feet; on which account a thin projection of metal is cast upon the muzzle, to carry the explosion of the charge more clear of the sides and rigging of ships. All carronades have chambers, and much less windage than guns, by which means they make a considerable range, and a recoil that is almost ungovernable.

Howitz battery is made the same as a gun-battery, only the embrasures are at least a foot wider on account of the shortness of the howitz. See Battery.

Field Howitz. The modern French use 6-inch howitzers in the field, which can throw a grenade at 6 degrees elevation, to a distance of 600 toises. The 6-inch howitzer can likewise throw to a smaller distance, a cartridge with 61 balls of seventeen lines diameter. In both instances the effects are extremely fatal. The cavalry, in particular, can be annoyed by the former, in so galling a manner, as to be rendered almost useless.

Hue and Cry, an official Gazette so called, which is published at the expiration of every third week in the year, and serves to advertise deserters from His Majesty's service. That part which immediately relates to desertions, is divided into several columns, viz. names, corps, age, size, coat, waistcoat, breeches, hair, complexion, eyes, marks and remarks, trade, &c. parish born, county born, time, from whence, agent's names, agent's abodes.

Hughly Wacca. Ind. a newspaper or chronicle which is kept by the officers of the Moor's government.

Huisier d'armes, Fr. tipstaff; an officer formerly so called in France, who was attached to the royal household. They were at first distinguished by the name of sergens d'armes, or sergeants at arms. Some were directed to bear the mace before the king during the day, and obtained on that account the appellation of Huisiers d'armes; in later times while the monarchy subsisted, they
they were called the *Huissiers de la Chambre*, or tipstaffs of the king’s chamber. Others kept watch in the king’s bed-chamber during the night, and were sworn to expose their lives for the safety of his person, whence they obtained the name of *Archers de Garde*, which term was changed into *Gardes du Corps*, or Body Guards.

Death HUNTERS, followers of an army, who, after the engagement look for dead bodies, in order to strip them. They generally consist of soldiers wives, &c. who, in general, have less feeling than their husbands.

HUNGARIAN Battalion, a body of men belonging to the Austrian army, whose dress consists in a white jacket, the buttons straight down to the waist, with blue coloured collar, cuffs and skirts, before and behind, like the rest of the Austrian infantry; with this difference, that the latter have white breeches and long black gaiters, and the former wear light blue pantaloons and half-boots.

HUNS, GOTHs, and VANDALS, barbarous tribes that inhabited the various provinces of Germany which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over those vast countries in the North of Europe, and North-West of Asia, which are now occupied by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars.

HURDLES, in fortification, are made of twigs of willows or osiers, interwoven close together, sustained by long stakes. They are made in the figure of a long square; the length being 5 or 6 feet, and breadth 3 or 4. The closer they are wattled together, the better. They serve to render batteries firm, or to consolidate the passage over muddy ditches; or to cover traverses and lodgements for the defence of the workmen against the fire-works, or the stones, that may be cast at them.

HURDLE BATTERIES. These are the invention of Lieut. (now Colonel) Congreve of the Royal Artillery, and are admirably adapted for temporary fortifications. They consist of hurdles fixed in the ground in a triangular form, the intermediate space being filled with sand or earth, &c. are constructed in a few minutes, and in any figure.

HURTER, a flatted iron fixed against the body of an axle-tree, with straps to take off the friction of the naves of the wheels against the body.

HURTOIR, a piece of timber, about 6 inches square, placed before the wheels of a carriage, against the parapet of a battery, to prevent the wheels from doing damage to the parapets.

HURTFLE. See SKIRMISH.

HUSB ul hookum, or HASSAB ul hookum, Ind. a patent or order, under the seal of the Vizier, with these initial words, which signify, always to command.

HUSSARDS, Fr. hussars. They were first introduced into the French service in 1692, and owed their origin to the Hungarian cavalry which was subsidized by France before the reign of Louis XIII.

Hussars are the national cavalry of Hungary and Croatia. Their regimental consists in a rough furred cap, adorned with a cock’s feather (the officers either an eagle’s or a heron’s) a doublet, with a pair of breeches, to which the stockings are fastened, and yellow or red boots; besides, they occasionally wear a short upper waistcoat edged with furs, and 5 rows of round metal buttons, and in bad weather a cloak. Their arms are a sabre, carbine, and pistols. They are irregular troops: hence, before the beginning of an attack, they lay themselves so flat on the necks of their horses, that it is hardly possible to discover their force; but being come within pistol shot of the enemy, they raise themselves with such surprising quickness, and begin the fight with such vivacity on every side, that unless the enemy is accustomed to their method of engaging, it is very difficult for troops to preserve their order. When a retreat is necessary, their horses have so much fire, and are so indefatigable, their equipage so light, and themselves such excellent horsemen, that no other cavalry can come up with them; they leap over ditches, and swim over rivers with surprising facility. They never encamp, consequently are not burdened with any kind of camp equipage, saving a kettle and a hatchet to every 6 men. They always lie in the woods, out-houses, or villages, in the front of the army. The Emperor, Queen of Hungary and the King.
of Prussia exceed every country, in this
description of troops.

Death's-head Hussars, a regiment of
Hussars in the Prussian service, so
called from the emblems of death be-
ing exhibited on their caps. They are
dressed in black, and ride small active
horses. In the seven years war they
obtained considerable reputation under
the command of the brave and intrepid
General Ziethen.

HUT. The ancient mode of encamp-
ing was in little huts. In the Ameri-
can war, huddled camps were not uncom-
mon. Huts may be made of earth, or
branches of trees, straw, &c.

For particulars respecting the hutting
of troops, see a pamphlet published
at the military library, entitled—
The French considered as a military na-
tion, &c.

HUTTE, Fr. Hut.
HUZZOOR NOVETZ, Ind. a se-
cretary who resides at an Indian court,
and keeps copies of all firmanus, re-
cords, or letters.

HYDER, the Arabic term for lion.
This title is often given to men of rank
in India.

HYDER ALLI, the Usurper of the
kingdom of Mysore: he is known un-
der the name of Hyder Naik; his son
Tippoo succeeded him, and was killed
at the storming of Seringapatam by the
British forces, under the command of
Lieutenant General Harris.

HYDER COOLY, a term of subjection
used in India, meaning literally the
slave.

HYDERABAD, HYDRABAD, a
city in Asia, which arose from the de-
sertion of Golconda. This term is of-
ten used at Indostan when Hyderabad
is meant. Hyderabad became the prin-
cipal spot of rendezvous to the Mahrat-
tas, whose country lies between Bom-
bay and Golconda. Its limits, (to
quote the words of the author of the
History of the Carnatic) are not known
with any degree of certainty to Euro-
peans, and we are equally ignorant of
the origin and history of the people.—
See MAHRATTA.

HYDRAULIC, (Hydraulique, Fr.)
the name of a particular science which
points out the method of conducting
and raising bodies of water.

Colonnes HYDRAULIQUES, Fr. co-
lumns ornamented by sheets of water
or water spouts.

HYDROGRAPHY, (Hydrographie,
Fr.) an art teaching how to make sea-
charts, giving an account of its tides,
bays, gulphs, creeks, rocks, sands,
shoals, promontories, harbours, &c.

HYDROMETER, (Hydromètre, Fr.)
the name of an instrument which serves
to ascertain the dryness or moisture of
the atmosphere.

HYDROSTATIC, (Hydrostatique,
Fr.) the name of a science, whose prin-
cipal object is to ascertain the weight
of fluids, particularly of water, and of all
bodies that are either borne upon the
surface or immersed beneath it.

HYPERBOLA, the section of a cone
made by a plane, so that the axis of
the section shall incline to the opposite
leg of the cone.

HYPOTHENUSE, that line which
subtends the right angle of a right
angled triangle.
close jacket, which was formerly worn by the francs-archers, or free archers, and reached down to the knee. These jackets were stuffed under the linen or cloth in which they were made. They sometimes consisted of leather, lined with 20 or 30 pieces of old cloth, rather loosely put together. The uncouth horsemen wore these jackets under their coats of mail, and they were called gabiou.

JACQUERIE, Fr. the name of a faction, which formerly existed in France, while king John was a prisoner in England.

JADE, Fr. a very hard stone of an olive colour, with which the handles of swords and sabres are made in Poland and Turkey. This stone is said to possess wonderful virtues for the removal of the gravel or nephritic cholic; in these cases it is simply applied to the loins.

JAFFNAPATAM. The town of Ceylon is so called by the Indians. The port of Jaffir.

JAGGÉNHAUT, Ind. a Gentoo pagoda.

JAGGHIRDAR, the person in possession of a jaghire.

JAGHIRE, an Indian term, signifying the assignment of the revenues of a district to a servant or dependant of government, who is hence called a jagh kirdar. Jaghieres are either mushroom, which means conditional, or belashirt, which signifies unconditional. Jaghires are frequently given in India to persons as a reward and compensation for their military services.

JAGHIRE ASHAM, Ind. land granted for the support of the troops.

JAGHIRE ZAT, Ind. lands granted for private maintenance.

JAM, Fr. which is sometimes written jamb, is a thick bed of stone by which the operations of the miners are suddenly interrupted when they are pursuing the veins of ore.

JAMBIERE, Fr. a piece of flat iron which, during the reign of Charles VII., was worn by the French cavalry.

JAMBEUX. An obsolete word which formerly signified boots, covers, or armour for the legs.

JAMBS, sometimes written jaumbs, Fr. the side-posts of a door.

JALET, Fr. a name given to certain round stones which are cast out of a bow called arbalète à julet, or crossbow. These stones are more generally called julet.

JALONS, Fr. long poles with a wisp of straw at the top. They are fixed at different places and in different roads to serve as signals of observation to advancing columns, when the country is inclosed, &c. They are likewise used as camp-colours, to mark out the ground on days of exercise.

JALONNEMENT D'UNE COLONNE, Fr. is the designation of certain points by which a column is governed on its march.

JALONNEURS, Fr. are the men selected from a battalion to mark out the ground, or to take up relative points towards which the column may march.

St. James, Knights of, a military order in Spain, first instituted in the year 1170, by Ferdinand II. king of Leon and Galicia. The greatest dignity belonging to this order is that of grand master, which has been united to the crown of Spain. The knights are obliged to make proof of their descent from families that have been noble for four generations on both sides; they must also make it appear, that their said ancestors have neither been Jews, Saracens, nor heretics, nor have ever been called in question by the inquisition. The novices are obliged to serve six months in the galleys, and to live a month in a monastery. They observe the rules of St. Austin, making no vows but of poverty, obedience, and conjugal fidelity.

JANIBAR, Ind. an advocate; a defender; it likewise signifies a partial person.

JANISSAIRES, Fr. See JANIZARIES.

JANIZARIES. This word signifies new militia. The first establishment of this body of armed men took place when the Sultan Amurat obtained such wonderful success in the inroads that were made into Thrace, and a part of Macedonia, by the Bachi Laia, Saim, and Auranos. Nor was the Sultan satisfied with this good fortune; he pushed his successes into Europe, and took an immense number of prisoners of all ages, but principally children. These were put under military tuition, with the view of hereafter converting them to some
some useful purpose for the Ottoman state.

Amurat took advice of one Agis Bictas, who by dint of hypocrisy had obtained the character and reputation of a very virtuous man. Agis Bictas gave directions in the first instance, that these children should put several Christians to death. He did this with the view of accustoming their young minds to scenes of slaughter, and to inure them to cruelty, as they were hereafter to compose the groundwork of the Turkish infantry, under the appellation of janizaries, or new militia. He next instructed them to observe an austere and barabarous outside appearance, and to become emulous of acquiring peculiar fame whenever they should be engaged in battle. In order to impress them with ideas of grandeur, he took off a part of his muslin sleeve, and twisting it in the shape of a turban, put it round the head of one of the children, when the corps was first established. This turban or cap was the model which the rest were to imitate. The janizaries wear the same sort to this day, with the addition of some gold lace.

The body of janizaries has been considerably augmented since their first establishment. According to a late account they have been increased to 54,222; these have been divided into three separate corps, viz. into jajabeya, bolykys, and selmanys. These were moreover distinguished amongst themselves by the following names: corigys, oturakys, and foddakorans.

They are under chiefs appointed for the specific purpose of superintending their conduct and behaviour, and are subordinate to particular officers, whose charge is confined to corps or companies that are called oda; from oda, a Turkish word, which properly signifies chamber or room, being thus called from the place in which they were ordered to mess. At Constantinople these chambers are covered with a sort of china ware; and there are recesses, called sophas, on which the men may sit or sleep. A kitchen is attached to each room, with every other convenience. When they take the field the same arrangement is attended to. The different companies being distributed in large round tents, that are distinguished by the figures of beasts and cyphers.

All the janizary companies consist of 196 men. There are 101 companies of jajabeya, who form the garrisons of the most important places upon the frontiers. The officers belonging to these companies are permitted to ride in the presence of their general, which is a privilege peculiar to themselves. On this account they wear yellow half-boots.

The bolykys consist of 61 companies; the commanding officers are obliged to wear red half-boots, which is to shew, that they are not permitted to go through their duty on horseback.

The selmanys amount to 34 companies. The officers belonging to them are subject to the same regulations by which the bolykys are governed. They must march by their general in red half-boots on foot, with this exception, that 30 supernumerary young men, who are seconded, and in expectation of commissions through the influence of their parents, are allowed to ride until they get companies.

A select body of men is indiscriminately chosen out of these three sorts of Janizaries; this chosen body is called corigys, and amounts to 930 men. Their particular duty is to protect the three imperial mansions of Constantinople, Adrinopolis, and Bursa.

Every janizary is obliged to give one and a half per cent. of all the money he receives in time of peace to the treasurer of his room, or to the treasurer general of the corps, and seven per cent. in time of war. In consideration of this sum he is allowed a space of ground, six feet in length and three in breadth to spread his mattrass; and he is moreover entitled to have every day at dinner and supper one plate of rice, a piece of mutton, and bread and water: so that a janizary may easily save the greatest part of his pay.

The uniform or clothing of a janizary is a doliman, or long robe with short sleeves. It is tied round the middle with a striped girdle of different colours, fringed at the ends with gold or silver. They wear over the doliman, a sapki, or blue surtoute, in the same loose manner that Europeans wear great coats or cloaks.

Instead
Instead of a turban the janizaries have their heads covered with a zarcola, or cad made of felt, from which hangs a long hood of the same stuff, that reaches to their shoulders, and is worn on parade days. The zarcola is decorated with a quantity of long feathers, that are fixed in a small tube, and stand in the front of the cap. The janizaries in Constantinople usually carry a long stick or Indian cane, without any other arms or weapons; but when they are equipped for the field against any European power, they have a sabre and fusil or musquet. They likewise carry a powder-horn, which hangs on the left side suspended from a leather string that is thrown across the body.

In Asia, the janizaries always go armed with a bow and a quiver full of arrows. They are thus equipped on account of the scarcity of gun-powder. They have besides a sort of poniard or large knife, which they draw against every person from whom they wish to extort any thing. The bows and arrows are regularly delivered out to the janizaries by the alkitef-ter-dars or vice treasurers general.

The janizaries seldom marry, or if they do it is at an advanced age; for the Turks, as well as other countries imagine that a married man cannot be so determined and careless of danger, as he must be who has no concerns to attend to besides his own. Matrimony, however, is not forbidden amongst them. On the contrary, when the ceremony is performed with the consent of their officers, they are permitted to take private lodgings, and are only required to appear every Friday at their rooms, and to parade before the Wekilbarg, or treasurer to the chamber, under pain of forfeiting their subsistence. When they get children, their pay is increased some aspers per day, by order of the Grand Signor.

The body of janizaries is by no means however, so considerable as it formerly was. In 1648, they were so formidable, that they assumed a dangerous influence over the government of the empire. They even went so far as to de-throne the Sultan Ibrahim, and afterwards to strangle him in the castle called the Seven Towers. Since that period the grand viziers have made a point to lower the pride and arrogance of the janizaries, in order to preserve the authority of their Sovereigns, and to maintain their own: on this account they adopted the barbarous policy of sending the bravest on a forlorn hope at the siege of Candia; and they permitted the rest to marry, and to embrace various trades, contrary to the established rules of the corps, for the sole purpose of enervating the individuals belonging to it. By degrees, persons without experience and addicted to the loosest effeminacy, were entrusted with commands; so that at present the janizaries do not possess either the character or the bravery of their predecessors.

The janizaries consist chiefly of Christian children that have been taken in war, or of debauched Turks who are ignorant of their birth or connection. Whenever any one dies, he leaves what little property or clothing, &c. he possessed to his messmen; even the Turks, from a species of social piety, always bequeath something to their particular ada or chamber. The consequence of which is, that the chambers become extremely rich, and their wealth is frequently put out to interest at 25 per cent. Add to this, that the Grand Signor directs, that every thing which is supplied to the janizaries should be rated lower than to the rest of his subjects, which circumstance easily explains why the janizaries can live cheaper than other people in Turkey.

Janizar Agazi, a name or military title which is attached to the person who has the chief command of the janizaries. It corresponds, in some degree, with the rank of Colonel General of Infantry in old France, when that body was under the command of the Duke of Epernon, and afterwards under the Duke of Orleans in 1720. This Aga takes precedence of all the infantry officers belonging to the Ottoman empire. The name is derived from Aga, which, in the Turkish language, signifies a stick. On public occasions the Aga always bears a stick in his hand; so indeed do all the janizaries when they appear in any large town or place, as an emblem of service.

This general was originally promoted to the rank of Aga out of the corps of janizaries. But as this was the occasion of
of much jealousy, and gave rise to various cabals, which frequently rendered the Aga contemptible in the eyes of his followers, the Grand Signor at present appoints him from the Icoglns belonging to the seraglio.

The daily pay of the Aga amounts to one hundred aspers, which are equal to 20 ecus, or French half-crowns, making 2l. 10s. of our money; independent of which he receives from 7 to 10 thousand French ecus or English half crowns on account of the Timars who are attached to his appointment. He moreover gets constant presents from the Sultan, especially when the janizaries have conducted themselves to his satisfaction on any critical emergency. The doucens which are lavished upon the Aga, whenever he has the good fortune to stand well with the Grand Signor, are innumerable; for it is through him, that every application is made for places of emolument. It is customary, however, in Turkey to bestow rank and advantageous posts, not according to merit, but in proportion to the number of purses, (in which manner all large sums are counted) that are produced by the several candidates. A purse in Turkey contains about 250 crowns, or 60l. 10s. English.

The Aga seldom appears in the streets of Constantinople without being followed by a large body of janizaries, most especially when any convulsion or disastrous event has happened in the empire. In these moments of public disturbance and consternation, the janizaries take occasion to demand an increase of pay, threatening, in case of refusal, to pillage the town; which threat they have often put in execution. Whenever these mutinous proceedings take place, the Aga marches at the head of 30 or 40 mungis or provost marshals belonging to the janizaries, together with 5 or 600 of this militia, in order to seize the mutineers, and to have them safely conveyed to some prison. He has the power of life and death over every individual of the corps; but he never gives directions to have a janizary executed in open day, lest the sight of their suffering comrade should create a disturbance among the rest. Small crimes and misdemeanours among the janizaries are punished by the bastinado, which is exercised by striking repeated blows upon the sole of the foot: but when the guilt is capital, the aga orders the culprit either to be strangled, or to be sewed up in a sack, and thrown into a pond or river.

When the janizar-Agasi dies, from disease or by violence, the whole of his property devolves to the treasury belonging to the corps of janizaries; nor can the Grand Signor appropriate one asper to his own use.

JAVELIN, a sort of spear 3/4 feet long, the shaft of which was of wood with a steel point. Every soldier in the Roman armies had seven of these, which were very light and slender.

The Velites or light armed troops among the Romans were armed with javelins. They were two cubits long and one inch thick.

There were several sorts of javelins or darts used among the ancients; some of which were projected by the help of a short strap girl round their middle.

There was likewise another species of javelin, the bottom of which was ornamented with three feathers, in the same manner that arrows and darts are. These javelins have been used by the Poles and other nations, but principally by the Moors, who call them zogais. In the early days of France, the javelin was likewise adopted in imitation of the Gauls; but it disappeared with many other missile weapons, on the invention of fire-arms.

JAVELINE, Fr. See JAVELIN.

JAVELOT, Fr. Javelin. A term used among the ancients to express every thing that was missile; it is derived from the Latin, jaculum à jacu-lando.

JAZERAN, Fr. an obsolete term which was formerly applied to an able veteran.

IBRAHIM CAWN, Ind. of the Garde tribe, commander of the artillery in the Mahratta army.

ICH DIEN, I write. A motto belonging to the badge of the arms of the Prince of Wales, which was first assumed by Edward surmounted the Black Prince, after the battle of Cressy, in 1346. Dieu et Mon Droit, in the badge of the King's arms, was used by Richard I. on a victory over the French in 1194.

ICNOGRAPHIE, Fr. Iconography.
ICHNOGRAPHY, in fortification, denotes the plan or representation of the length and breadth of a fortification, the distinct parts of which are marked out, either on the ground itself, or on paper. By this we are at once acquainted with the value of the different lines and angles which determine the exact breadth of fosses, the depth of ramparts, and of parapets. So that, in fact, a plan upon the correct principles of ichnography, represents a work as it would appear if it were levelled to its foundations, and shewed only the expanse of ground upon which it had been erected. But the science of ichnography does not represent either the elevation or the depth of the different parts belonging to a fortification. This properly comes under profile, which does not, however, include length. See Plan.

ICOGLAN, a page in the Grand Signor's service. These pages are always chosen out of the best formed, and best educated children among the Christian slaves. It has been a singular maxim of policy among the Turks to prefer Christian slaves, as confidential servants, to their own countrymen. Their motive originates in an idea, that the former, having lost all recollection of their native spot, and of the tenderness which is innate between child and parent, would have no other interest at heart but that of their employers; whereas freemen in general measure their attachment to their masters by the rule of self-accommodation and personal emolument. From these principles the Grand Signor has established a body of Icoglan, in order that they may be devoted to his service; and as a security for their affection he frequently raises individuals amongst them to the highest posts of trust and dignity in the empire. The rank of Spahiler Agusi, or General of Cavalry, has been conferred upon them; which appointment, next to that of Grand Vizier, of Mufti or of Bostangi, is the most considerable belonging to the Ottoman empire.

JEANATES, soldiers posted round the outside gates of the palaces belonging to the Greek Emperors.

JEE, Ind. a title of respect which is used in India, and signifies Sir, Master, Worship.

JEE POIR, Ind. a statement and decree.

JEHAUNDER, Ind. a term used in India, signifying the possessor of the world.

JEHAUN GEER, Ind. a term used in India, signifying the conqueror of the world.

JEHAUN SHAW, Ind. King of the world.

JEHOULDAR, Ind. Treasurer.

JELOUDAR, Ind. belonging to the train or equipage.

JEMADE, Ind. the Indian word for month.

JEMIDAR or JEMMADAR, Ind. a black officer who has the same rank as a Lieutenant in the Company's service. The author of the History of the Carnatic calls Jemidars or Jemmadars Captains either of horse or foot.

JENIZER-EFFENDI, an appointment among the Turks, which in some degree resembles that of provost-marshall in European armies. The only functions which this officer is permitted so exercise are those of judge to the company. He sits on particular days for the purpose of hearing the complaints of the soldiers, and of settling their differences. If a case of peculiar difficulty should occur, he reports the same to the Aga, whose opinion and determination are final.

JERSEY, an island on the coast of Normandy in France, which has belonged to the English, ever since the Norman conquest. Although this island, as well as that of Guernsey, is still governed by the ancient Norman laws, it is nevertheless subject to the Mutiny Act in many particulars.

JERUMÔNA, Ind. Mulct, fine or penalty.

JET, Fr. a term signifying the motion of any body that is urged forward by main force; it likewise means the space which is gone over by any propelled body; and sometimes the instrument from which any thing is thrown or shot, as the cross-bow, &c.

JET des bombes, Fr. This word has been adopted instead of TR, which formerly expressed the course that a shell took when it was thrown out of a mortar by the power of gunpowder.

We sometimes use the word flight, to express the same action and progress.

The jet or flight of a bomb usually forms
forms a curved line; but many engineers assert, that when the mortar is placed horizontally, it describes the three movements that are made by a cannon ball, viz. The violent or straight forward one, the mixed or curved, and the natural one, which is perpendicular.

It is particularly incumbent upon the officer who superintends the mortar duty, to ascertain, by a correct observation of the eye, the exact distance to which he means to throw the bomb.—With this view he must give as many degrees of elevation as may be found necessary by the judgment he has formed.

In order to obtain some degree of certainty, he first throws a bomb, by way of experiment, and he increases or diminishes his degrees of elevation according to the distance it runs, and from the spot on which it falls. These are the only rules which are generally followed by those officers who have the direction of mortars. However, according to St. Remi, the French bombardiers frequently make use of tables, in order to calculate precisely the different lines of extent according to the different elevations of the mortar, particularly with respect to the degrees of the square rule from 1 to 45.

Although this method has been sanctioned by various and innumerable experiments, it has nevertheless been exposed to some censure. Mr. Blondel has written a treatise on the subject. This engineer asserts, that he has discovered a way of firing true, which exceeds all former inventions.

We are of opinion, that the best method must be that which is founded upon practical and daily experience. Those men who are in the continual habit of exercising in mortar duty, and who can form just calculations, especially with regard to the quality and quantity of gunpowder, will always be esteemed in preference to the most profound theorists.

According to the experiments which have been made by bombardiers with respect to the flight of bombs, a mortar is said to propel or urge forward in proportion to the quantity and quality of the gunpowder, by which it is charged.

A mortar, for instance, which has twelve inches caliber, and which is loaded with two pounds of mealed gunpowder gives a difference in its flight of 48 feet from one degree to another; and 2160 feet in its greatest extent under the elevation of 45 degrees.

The same mortar gives a difference, from one degree to another, of 60 feet, provided there be two pounds and a half of the same powder in its chamber, and it gives 2700 feet for its greatest flight.

It finally gives 72 feet difference from one degree to another, if the charge consists of three pounds of mealed gunpowder, and the elevation be taken at 45 degrees, which, in the opinion of bombardiers, is the greatest flight, taking a range of 3240 feet.

Among the French bombardiers there are tables put out according to this calculation, which may be found in Blondel or St. Remi. These tables are adapted to mortars of 12 inches caliber, which weight we have taken for example.

Jet, among the French is likewise applied to the range taken by a fusée, as jet de la fusée, the flight of the fusée. In cannon founderies it is further used to express the different pipes or hollows which are made of clay or of wax, in order to convey the liquid metals into their moulds. In this sense it means cast, so that jet may be properly called a vent or aperture which is made at the extreme end of the mould, and through which the metal is poured; hence Un beau Jet, a fine cast.

Jetée, Fr. a pier. It usually consists of a projection, made with stone, brick, or wood, at the extreme ends of a harbour, for the purpose of resisting the impetuosity of the waves.

Jeter, Fr. to pour metal into a mould; to cast ordnance; to throw; to impel, &c.

Jeter des bombes, Fr. to throw bombs, or shells, for the purpose of destroying the walls, &c. of a fortified town or place.

Jeter du secours dans une forteresse, &c. Fr. to throw succours into a fort, &c.

Jeth, Ind. the name of a month which, in some degree, coincides with our month of May.

Jeu
JEU de hazard, Fr. chance play. It was our intention to have entered fully into this subject, as far as it concerns the military system, under the head hazard; but as the matter has been more particularly adverted to in a French author, we judge it best to quote from that authority, and to shew, that, corrupt as the old government of France most unquestionably was, the character of its army was not neglected. Every species of chance play was strictly forbidden in the French camps and garrisons, and throughout their armies. The prohibitions on this head bear the most ancient dates. On the 24th of July, 1534, Francis I. issued an order, which was again confirmed by Henry II. on the 29th of May, 1557, that no comrade should, under any pretext whatever, obtain money from a brother soldier by play. It was further ordained, that in case of foul play, the persons who should be discovered, were, for the first offence, to be publicly flogged, and for the second to be punished in the like manner, to have their ears cut off, and to be banished for ten years. The delinquents were committed to the charge and custody of the Provost, who was authorized to confiscate every farthing that was played for. Dice and cards were rigorously forbidden under the same penalties, as well as all sorts of games which might create animosities and dissensions among individuals.

On the 15th of January, 1691, Louis XIV. issued an order from the privy council, by which he expressly forbade not only the officers belonging to his army, but likewise all other persons of whatever sex or denomination to play at Hoca, Pharoah, Barbacole, Basset, and Pour et Contre. The penalties for every infraction or breach of this order were as follow. Those persons who played were fined 1000 livres or 40l. and the master or mistress of the house where games of the above description were allowed, stood fined in 6000 livres or 240l. for each offence. One third of these penalties was applied to his Majesty's use, one third to the relief of the poor of the place where the offence was committed, and the other third was paid to the informer. It was further ordained, that in case the persons so discovered were unable to pay the fines, their persons should be taken into custody. Those subjected to the penalty of 1000 livres were imprisoned four months, and those who incurred the fine of 6000 livres, without having the means to pay it, were imprisoned one year. The Intendants, or Lords-Lieutenants of the Provinces and Armies, the Police Magistrates, and the Military Provosts, were all and severally directed to see this edict put into execution; and by a circular letter, which in 1712, was written, in the king's name, by M. Voisin, to the different governors and lords lieutenants of provinces, the prohibitions were extended to the lancquenet, or private soldier.

On the 25th of August, 1698, Louis XIV. issued out an order, by which he rigorously forbade, under pain of death, every individual belonging to the French cavalry or infantry, (suttler and private soldier included) to keep any gaming table in camp or quarters. In consequence of these regulations, and with the view of introducing the strictest principles of honour and regularity in a profession which must be tarnished even by the breath of suspicion, on the 1st of July, 1727, Louis the XVth ordained, by the 43d article of war, that every soldier, horse or foot, who was convicted of cheating at play, should be punished with death. He further directed, that in case any hazard table should be set up in a camp, or garrison, the commanding officer or governor was to order the same to be broken forthwith, and to commit all persons concerned therein to prison.

JEWAER KI'ANNA, Ind. the jewel office.

INIIMAMDAR, Ind. a person appointed by the Hindu magistrate, who has the superintending agency over several towns.

IJEAS, Ind. the general assembly of the court of justice in Bengal, is so called.

To IMBODY, in a military sense, implies to assemble under arms, either for defence or offence. This term is particularly applied to the meeting of the British and Irish militia.

IMPETUS, in mechanics, the force with which one body impels or strikes another. See GUNNERY. MOMENTUM.

IMPOSTS, that part of a pillar in vaults.
vaults or arches, on which the weight of the whole rests.

**IMPREGNABLE**, any fortress or work which resists the efforts of attack, is said to be impregnable.

To IMPRESS, to compel any body to serve.

**IMPRESS-Service**, a particular duty which is performed by persons belonging to the navy. Soldiers, that behave ill, and from repeated misconduct are deemed incorrigible on shore, get frequently turned over to a press-gang. This does not, however, occur without some sort of concurrence on the part of the soldier, who is left to choose between the execution or continuance of a severe military punishment, or to enter on board one of His Majesty's ships.

**IMPRESS-Money**, all sums which are paid to men who have been compelled to serve, are so called.

**IMPRESSION**, the effect of an attack upon any place, or body of soldiers.

**IMPREST of Money**, a term not strictly grammatical, but rendered familiar by its official adoption, signifying sums of money received from time to time, by persons in public employment, for the current services of the year. Of this nature are the imprests which the Barrack-Master General receives upon estimates signed by him, and delivered into the office of the Secretary at War.

To IMPUGN, to attack, or assault.

**IMPULSE**, hostile impression.

**INACCESSIBLE**, not to be approached, in contradistinction to accessible.

**INATTAQUABLE**, Fr. not to be attacked. Monsieur A. T. Gaigne, in his *Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire*, gives the following explanation of this term:—An inherent right and title cannot be attacked or disputed; but a military post may always be assailed when there are some physical defects.

**INCAPABLE**. A term of disgrace, which is frequently annexed to military sentences; as, such an officer has been cashiered by the sentence of a general court-martial, and rendered incapable of ever serving his majesty in either a civil or military capacity.

**INCH**, a well-known measure in length, being the 12th part of a foot, and equal to three barley-corns in length. See Measure.

**INCIDENCE**, the direction with which one body strikes another; the angle made by that line and the plane of the body struck, is called the Angle of Incidence.

**INCLINAISON**, Fr. See Inclination.

**INCLINATION**, in geometry, is the mutual leaning or tendency of two lines or planes towards each other, so as to make an angle.

**Inclination of a right line to a plane**, is an acute angle which that line makes with any line of the plane towards which it bears.

To INCLINE, in a military sense, means to gain ground to the flank, as well as to the front. According to the last printed Regulations for the Cavalry, page 27, S. 10, inclining is of great use in the marching of the line in front, to correct any irregularities that may happen. It is equivalent to the oblique marching of the infantry. It enables you to gain the enemy's flank without exposing your own, or without wheeling or altering the parallel front of the squadron.

**Right (or left) Incline**, a word of command in cavalry movements, when each man makes a half-face on his horse's fore feet, by which means each will appear to be half a head behind his flank leader; and the whole will look to the hand to which they are to incline. It must be generally observed, that the leading officer on the flank, with a glance of his eye ascertaining his points, marches steadily upon them, at whatever pace is ordered: every other man in the squadron moves in so many parallel lines, with respect to him, and preserves the same uniformity of front and files, as when he first turned his horse's head.

At no time of the incline ought the former front of the squadron, or distance of files to be altered.

In the incline, the rear rank moves in the same manner, and is, of course, regulated by the front rank, which it takes care to conform to.

Whenever a squadron inclines it must not pass an angle of 34° with respect to its former direction, unless it should be required to gain as much or more ground to
to the flank as to the front. The distance of files at six inches allows the squadron to incline in perfect order, while its new direction does not go beyond the angle specified. When more is required to be taken, the squadron must either wheel up, and march upon the flank point, or it will fall more or less into file, according to the degree of obliquity required, by moving each horse retired, half neck, or head to boot.

INCLINED Plane. See Gunnery.

INCLUSIVE, comprehended in the sum or number; thus, when the abstracts were made out for 60 and 61 days, they generally ran from the 24th of one month to the 24th of the second month, including the last 24th only. Since the new regulation, the muster, as also the abstract, is taken from the 25th of one month to the 24th of the following month, both days inclusive.

INCOMMENSURABLE. That cannot be measured, or be reduced to any proportion or equal measure with another.

INCOMMODER ennemi, Fr. to get possession of a fort, eminence, &c. from which the enemy may be harassed, or which is necessary to his security.

INCOMPETENT, incapable, unfit, unequal. No officer, be his situation what it may, (from a General inclusive to the lowest non-commiss.ioned) can be said to be competent to command, unless he be not only willing and able to follow orders himself, but is also capable of seeing them strictly adhered to by others. His mind must be superior to partialities, and his judgment equal to discern real merit from ignorant assumption. Every soldier is incompetent to his profession who does not possess a spirit of subordination, and great natural or acquired bravery.

INCOMPLETE, opposed to complete, which see.

To INCORPORATE, in a military sense, is to add a smaller body of forces to a larger, and to mix them together. Independent companies are said to be incorporated, when they are distributed among different regiments, regiments among brigades, &c. &c. So that any lesser body may be incorporated in a greater. Thus after Lord Moira, by good generalship and uncommon activity, had landed at Ostend in 1794, and marched up the country (within musquet shot of a superior enemy that hung upon his flank and rear) for the purpose of joining his Royal Highness the Duke of York, his gallant little army, consisting of 3000 men, was incorporated with the main body of the British and Hanoverian forces, and the different regiments were brigaded.

INCURSION, invasion without conquest; inroad; ravage.

INDEMNIFICATION, any reimbursement or compensation which is given for loss or penalty.

Military INDEMNIFICATION, a regulated allowance which is made by the king for losses sustained by officers or soldiers on actual service, viz.

Infantry.
1st. The whole of the personal baggage of a subaltern officer to be valued at 60l. and the camp equipage between two subalterns, 35l.
2d. The baggage of a captain to be valued at 80l. and the camp equipage, at 55l.
3d. Field officer’s baggage, 100l. and the camp equipage 60l.
4th. Colonel’s baggage 120l. and camp equipage 80l.

Cavalry.
5th. The whole of the personal baggage of a subaltern officer to be valued at 70l. and the camp equipage at 45l.
6th. Captain’s baggage 90l. and camp equipage 45l.
7th. Field officer’s baggage 120l. and camp equipage 90l.
8th. Colonel’s baggage 140l. and camp equipage 90l.

9th. Officers giving certificates signed by themselves and the commanding officer of their regiments, that they have lost the whole of their baggage and camp equipage, and that at the time it was lost, they were in no respect deviating from the orders of the general officer commanding in chief relative to baggage, shall receive the whole of the sums above allotted, according to their ranks.

10th. Officers losing any part of their baggage, are to give in similar certificates, according to the best of their belief and judgment, without entering into particulars, but estimating their loss at one-fourth, one-half, or three-fourths of the whole value, according to which they
they shall be paid the like proportion of the above sums.

11th. The whole baggage of a quarter-master of cavalry shall be estimated at 40l. A quarter-master losing the whole or any part of his baggage, must produce certificates from the officer commanding, and from his captain, as to the quantity of his baggage, which to the best of their belief and judgment, has been lost, according to which he will receive the whole, or a proportion, of the above sum of 40l.

12th. The baggage and camp equipment of all staff officers of both cavalry and infantry, are to be valued as those of subaltern officers, except for such as are allowed a tent to themselves, whose camp equipment in that case will be valued as that of a captain.

13th. A serjeant of cavalry losing his necessaries, without any fault of his own, shall receive 2l. 15s.

14th. Corporal, trumpeter, or private, 2l. 10s.

15th. Serjeant of infantry 2l. 10s.

16th. Corporal, drummer, or private, 2l. 2s.

17th. A servant, not being a soldier, 3l. 8s.

The certificates in these five cases to be the same as in the case of the quarter-master.

The king has also been pleased to order, that the officers of his majesty's forces on actual service, whose horses shall be killed or taken by the enemy, or shall be shot for the gendarmerie, shall receive allowances by way of indemnification for them, according to the following rates; viz.

Cavalry.

Heavy dragoons, first charger, 47l. 5s.
Light dragoons, first ditto, 36l. 15s.
Heavy or light ditto, second ditto, 31l. 10s.
Quarter-master's horse, 29l. 8s.

Infantry.

Field officer's charger, 31l. 10s.
Adjutant's ditto, 31l. 10s.
Chaplain's and subaltern's horses, each 18l. 18s.
Bat horses, (both cavalry and infantry) 18l. 18s.

General officer's first charger, 47l. 5s.
Second ditto, 31l. 10s.
Aids de camp, brigade majors, and other staff officers, whose situations require their keeping good horses, receive as the light dragoons.

Staff officers, for whom inferior horses are deemed sufficient, 18l. 18s.

Certificates, stating the particular circumstances and causes of the loss of the horses, are to be signed by the officers themselves, and by the commanding officers of their regiments.

And the general officers commanding in chief on the different foreign stations, are to decide on the claims preferred in their respective districts of command upon the ground of this regulation, and to grant payment accordingly.

INDEMNITY, a security or exemption from penalty, loss, or punishment. It is sometimes connected with amnesty. Thus Charles the Second, on his restoration, endeavoured to conciliate the minds of his subjects, by promising amnesty and indemnity to the different parties that had been directly active, indirectly instrumental, or passively the means of his father's death.

TO INDENT, a word particularly made use of in India for the dispatch of military business. It is of the same import and meaning as to draw or value upon. It likewise means an order for military stores, arms, &c. As an indent for new supplies, &c.

INDENTED line, in fortification, is a line running out and in, like the teeth of a saw, forming several angles, so that one side defends another. They are used on the banks of rivers, where they enter a town; the parapet of the covertway is also often indented. This is by the French engineers called redans. Small places are sometimes fortified with such a line, but the fault of such fortifications is, that the besiegers from one battery may ruin both sides of the tenaille of the front of a place, and make an assault without fear of being enfiladed, since the defences are ruined.

INDEPENDENT, in a military sense, is a term which distinguishes from the rest of the army, those companies that have been raised by individuals for rank, and are afterwards drafted into corps that may be short of their complement of men. At the commencement of the late war, letters of service were issued from the war-office, for the specific purpose of enabling professional and other gentlemen to answer their own wishes, with
with respect to military situation; and at the same time to recruit the army. The system however was discontinued, when his Royal Highness the Duke of York was appointed commander in chief.

**INDEPENDENT COMPANY,** { is one **INDEPENDENT TROOP,** that is not incorporated into any regiment.

**INDIAN Camp.** An Indian camp may be considered as one of the loosest assemblages of men, women, and children, that can perhaps be imagined.

Every common soldier in the army, is accompanied by a wife, or concubine; the officers have several, and the generals whole seraglio; besides these, the army is encumbered by a number of attendants and servants, exceeding that of the fighting men; and to supply the various wants of this enervated multitude, dealers, pedlars, and retailers of all sorts, follow the camp, to whom a separate quarter is allotted, in which they daily exhibit their different commodities, in greater quantities, and with more regularity, than in any fair in Europe; all of them sitting on the ground in a line, with their mercantiles exposed before them, and sheltered from the sun by a mat supported by sticks.

**INDIAN Engineers.** Mr. Orme, in his history of the Carnatic, affords an instance of the art of engineering being known, and cultivated by the native Indians. In page 265, he gives the following account of a place called Chinglapet, which had been fortified by an Indian engineer. Chinglapet is situated about 30 miles west of Cobelong, 40 south-west of Madrass, and within half a mile of the northern bank of the river Paliar. It was, and not without reason, esteemed by the natives, a very strong hold. Its outline, exclusive of some irregular projections at the gateways, is nearly a parallelogram, extending 400 yards from north to south, and 320 from east to west. The eastern and half the northern side, is covered by a continued swamp of rice-fields, and the other half of the north, together with the whole of the west-side, is defended by a large lake. Inaccessible in these parts, it would have been impregnable, if the south side had been equally secure; but here the ground is high, and gives advantages to an enemy.—

The Indian engineer, whoever he was that erected the fort, seems to have exceeded the common reach of his countrymen in the knowledge of his art, not only by the choice of the spot, but also by proportioning the strength of the defences, to the advantages and disadvantages of the situation: for the fortifications to the south are much the strongest, those opposite the rice-fields, something weaker: and the part that is skirted by the lake, is defended only by a slender wall: a deep ditch 60 feet wide, and faced with stone; a fausse braye, and a stone wall 18 feet high, with round towers, on, and between the angles, form the defences to the land: nor are these all, for parallel to the south, east, and north sides of these outward works, are others of the same kind, repeated within them, and these joining to the slender wall, which runs to the west along the lake, form a second enclosure of fortification.

**INDIAN Fortification.** The entrance into an Indian fortification is through a large and complicated pile of buildings, projecting in the form of a parallelogram from the main rampart; and if the city has two walls, it projects beyond them both: this building consists of several continued terraces, which are of the same height as the main rampart, and communicate with it: the inward walls of these terraces, form the sides of an intricate passage, about twenty feet broad, which leads by various short turnings at right angles, through the whole pile, to the principal gate, that stands in the main rampart. We have extracted this passage from the history of the Carnatic, as affording a general outline of Indian fortification. In the same place may be seen, (page 320), the following description of a battery; which was built by the English in 1753, and contributed to the preservation of Trichinopoly, when the French attempted to storm that place.

This battery was called Dalton's battery, from an officer of that name, who, when intrusted with the command of the garrison, had converted that part of the gateway which projected beyond the outward wall, into a solid battery, with embrasures: having the part between the two walls, as it stood with its windings.
windings and terraces: an interval was likewise left between the backside of the battery and the terrace nearest to it, which lay parallel to each other; so that an enemy who had gained the battery, could not get to the terrace, without descending into the interjacent area, and then mounting the wall of the terrace with scaling ladders: the battery, however, communicated with the rampart of the outward wall of the city, but being, as that was, only eighteen feet high, it was commanded by the terraces behind it, as well as by the rampart of the inner wall, both of which were thirty feet high; upon one of the inward cavaliers, south of the gateway, were planted two pieces of cannon, to plunge into the battery, and scour the interval between the two walls, as far as the terraces of the gateway; and two other pieces, mounted on the north-west angle of the inward rampart, commanded in like manner, both the battery and the interval to the north of the terraces.

**Indian Guides.** According to the ingenious author of the history of the Carnatic, these men are not to be depended upon. In page 217 he relates, that on the 1st of April, 1752, at night, a Captain Dalton was ordered with 400 men to march, and, by taking a large circuit, to come in at the eastern extremity of the enemy's camp, which he was to enter, beat up, and set fire to. The English Troops, from their long inactivity, knew so little of the ground about Trichinopoly, that they were obliged to trust to Indian guides; and these being ordered to conduct them out of the reach of the enemy's advanced posts, fell into the other extreme, and led them several miles out of their way, and through such bad roads, that when the morning star appeared, they found themselves between Elunicode and the French rock, two miles from Chundasaheb's camp, and in the centre of all their posts.

**Indian Princes and their Troops.** Their military character may be collected from the following curious account, which is given of a circumstance that occurred in the Tanjore country, when the English obtained a signal victory over the French and Mysoreans, in 1753. The presence of the nabob being thought necessary to facilitate a negotiation that was then judged expedient to undertake, he prepared to march with the English army; but on the evening he intended to quit the city, his discontented troops assembled in the outer court of the palace, and clamouring, declared, that they would not suffer him to move, before he had paid their arrears; in vain were arguments used to convince this rabble, (more insolent because they had never rendered any effectual service,) that his going to Tanjore was the only measure from which they could hope for a chance of receiving their pay: they remained inflexible, and threatened violence; upon which Captain Dalton, whom we have already mentioned, sent a messenger to the camp, from whence the grenadier company immediately marched into the city, where they were joined by 100 of the garrison of Trichinopoly, and all together forcing their way into the palace, they got the nabob into his palanquin, and escorted him to the camp, surrounded by 200 Europeans with fixed bayonets; the malcontents not daring to offer him any outrage as he was passing, nor on the other hand, was any injury offered to them: for notwithstanding such proceedings in more civilized nations rarely happen, and are justly esteemed mutiny and treason; yet in Hindostan they are common accidents, and arise from such causes as render it difficult to ascertain whether the Prince or his army be most in fault. The nabob had certainly no money to pay his troops; so far from it, that the English had now for two years furnished all the expenses of their own troops in the field: but it is a maxim with every prince in India, let his wealth be ever so great, to keep his army in long arrears, for fear they should desert. This apprehension is perhaps not unjustly entertained of hirelings collected from every part of a despotic Empire, and insensible of notions of attachment to the prince or cause they serve; but from hence the soldiery, accustomed to excuses when dictated by no necessity, give no credit to those which are made to them, when there is a real impossibility of satisfying their demands; and a practice common to most of the princes.
princes of Indostan, concurs not a little to increase this mistrust in all who serve them; for on the one hand, the vain notions in which they have been educated, inspire them with such a love of outward show, and the enervating climate in which they are born, renders them so incapable of resisting the impulses of fancy: and on the other hand, the frequent reverses of fortune in this empire, dictate so strongly the necessity of hoarding resources against the hour of calamity, that nothing is more common than to see a nabob purchasing a jewel or ornament of great price, at the very time that he is in the greatest distress for money to answer the necessities of the government. Hence, instead of being shocked at the clamours of their soldiery, they are accustomed to live in expectation of them, and it is a maxim in their conduct to bear them with patience, unless the crowd proceed to violence; but in order to prevent this, they take care to attach to their interest some principal officers, with such a number of the best troops, as may serve, on emergency, to check the tumult, which is rarely headed by a man of distinction. But when his affairs grow desperate by the success of a superior enemy, the prince utters severely for his evasions, by a total defection of his army, or by suffering such outrages as the Nabob Mahomed-Ally would in all probability have been exposed to, had he not been rescued in the manner we have described.

Military INDICATIONS, (Indices Militaires, Fr.) Marshal Saxe very judiciously observes, that there are indications in war which every officer should attend to, and from which deductions and conclusions may be drawn with some degree of certainty. A previous knowledge of your enemy's national character and customs will contribute not a little towards the attainment of this object. Every country, indeed, has customs and usages which are peculiar to itself. Among various indications that we might adduce, let us suppose these leading ones, by which the intentions of an enemy may be discovered by the garrison of a besieged town. If, for example, towards the close of day, groups or loose parties of armed men should be discovered upon the neighbouring heights which overlook and command the town, you may remain assured, that some considerable attack is in agitation. Small detachments from the different corps are sent forward for this purpose, and the besieging army is thereby apprized of the business, as the heights are occupied in the evening by the parties in question, in order that they may be thoroughly acquainted with the leading avenues, &c.

When much firing is heard from an enemy's camp, and another army lies encamped near, the latter may conclude, that an engagement will take place the following day; for it must be evident, that the soldiers are cleaning and trying their musquets.

Marshall Saxe further remarks, that a considerable movement in an enemy's army may be discovered by any large quantity of dust, which is a sure indication of it. The reflexion of the sun upon the firelocks of an army will likewise lead to some knowledge of its position. If the rays are collected and perpendicular, it is a certain indication, that the enemy is advancing towards you; if they disappear at times and cast a broken radiance, you may conclude, that he is retiring. If the troops move from right to left, their line of march is towards the left: if from left to right, the line of march is towards the right. Should considerable clouds of dust be seen to rise from an enemy's camp, and it be ascertained, that he is in want of forage, it may fairly be inferred, that the train of waggoners and purveyors, &c. are moving, and that the whole will follow shortly.

If the enemy, observes the same writer, has his camp-ovens on the right or left, and you are covered by a small rivulet, you may make a flank disposition, and by that manœuvre, suddenly return and detach ten or twelve thousand men to demolish his ovens; and whilst you are protected by the main body of the army which is ordered to support the first detachment, you may seize upon all his flour, &c. There are innumerable stratagems of this sort which may be practised in war, and by means of which, a victory may...
may be obtained without much bloodshed on your part, and at all events with considerable disadvantage to the enemy.

INDIES (EAST). According to the geographical description of the East Indies, they must be considered as being divided into two principal parts, viz. India within the river Ganges, and India beyond the river Ganges.

INDIA, WITHIN THE RIVER GANGES.—This division consists of a country, which is situated between the latitudes of 6 and 34 degrees north, and between 53 and 91 degrees of east longitude. A great part of this space is covered with the sea. India within the Ganges is bounded on the north by Usbec, Tartary, and part of Thibet, by the Indian ocean on the south, by Great Thibet, India beyond the Ganges, and the Bay of Bengal on the east, and by Persia and the Indian ocean on the west. The chief mountains are those of Caucasus, Naugratch, and Balaghat, which run almost the whole length of India from north to south.

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES. This division consists of a country, which is situated between the latitudes of one and 30 degrees north, and between the longitudes of 89 and 109 degrees east. Great part of these limits is covered by the sea. It is bounded on the north by Thibet and China, by China and the Chinesian sea on the east; by the same sea and the streights of Malacca on the south, and by the bay of Bengal and part of India on the west.

For the different establishments that constitute the Indian army, properly so called, we refer our readers to the Oriental Register, which is published annually.

INDOSTAN. According to Mr. Orme, this word ought properly to mean India. See Book I. Page 1, History of the Carnatic.

Unenlightened as the native inhabitants of India may appear in the eyes of a refined European, there is, nevertheless, one prevailing custom among the people of Indostan, which must be gratifying to every man of merit. We shall quote a passage out of the history of the Carnatic, as perfectly illustrative of our meaning.

There is no country, observes the judicious author of that interesting work, in which the titles of descent are less instrumental to the fortunes of men, than they are in Indostan; none but those of royal blood are considered as hereditary nobility; to all others, the exclusion is so absolute, that a new act from the sovereign is necessary to ennable even the son of the grand vizir of the empire. The field of fortune is open to every man who has courage enough to make use of his sword, or to whom nature has given superior talents of mind. Hence it happens, that half the grandees of Indostan, have arrived to the highest employments in the empire, from conditions not less humble than that of Anwar-Odean Khan; against whose accession to the Nabobship of the Carnatic, the people had taken an aversion from causes independent of his personal character. See history of the Carnatic, Book I. Page 52, 53.

INEXPUGNABLE. See IMPREGNABLE.

INFAMOUS BEHAVIOUR, (infamie, Fr.) a term peculiarly applicable to military life when it is affected by dishonourable conduct. Hence the expression which is used in our articles of war, relative to scandalous infamous behaviour; on conviction of which, an officer is ordered to be cashiered. Infamy may be attached to an officer or soldier in a variety of ways; and some countries are more tenacious than others on this head. Among European nations it has always been deemed infamous and disgraceful to abandon the field of action, or to desert the colours, except in cases of the greatest emergency. In Germany a mark of infamy was attached to the character of every man that was found guilty of misbehaviour before the enemy. He could not assist at the public sacrifices, nor be present at a court martial. Many destroyed themselves in consequence of the ignominy they suffered on these occasions. According to the old French salique law, any person who should upbraid another with having fled from the field of battle, and not be able to prove it, was heavily fined.

Among the Romans the punctilious nicety of military fame was carried to a much higher pitch. It was considered
sidered as infamous and disgraceful to be taken prisoner, and a Roman soldier was impressed with the idea, that he must either conquer or die in the field. Regulus, the Roman general, was so much influenced by these high sentiments, that when the Carthaginians, by whom he had been taken prisoner, sent him to Rome, in order to arrange certain conditions of peace, he deemed himself unworthy to appear in the senate, notwithstanding that his fellow citizens invited him to the sitting. The advice which he gave his countrymen, and the punishment he suffered on his return to Carthage are well known.

Although these notions have considerably degenerated among the moderns, the military character is nevertheless so far elevated above every other profession in life, that the slightest imputation of cowardice or dishonour is sufficient to affect it. Among the French the most punctilious nicety is observed; so much so, that the common soldier considers himself superior to the lower orders of mankind, and will resent a blow or a lie, with a pertinacity of honour, that puts him upon a level with the most scrupulous duellist. How far this sense of honour ought to be encouraged in the ranks, we will not pretend to determine. But we shall scarcely be found fault with, or run the hazard of contradiction, when we assert, that no officer ought to hold a commission in any service, who can either take or give the lie, or receive a blow, without resisting the insult in the most summary manner. For we may pronounce that man incapable of doing justice to the service, who can be insensible to what is owing to himself. Nor does the term infamous apply in this instance only. There are various cases, in which the conduct of an officer may render him unworthy of the situation he fills: such as cheating at play, taking unfair advantages of youth, imposing upon the credulity or confidence of a tradesman, habitual drunkenness, flagrant breaches of hospitality, &c.

Fortunately for all ranks in society, but most especially so, for the character of the British army, the present commander in chief is accessible to every complaint, which can justly be preferred against any man who bears a commission. A striking instance of this kind has occurred during the late war, which reflects too much credit upon His Royal Highness the Duke of York, to omit a general mention of it in this place.

An officer having been detected by another, from whom he had won a considerable sum of money, in foul practices, at hazard or back-gammon, the latter exhibited a charge against him before the commander in chief, who instantly ordered a court of enquiry to sit upon the party. The accusation was substantiated, and the delinquent dismissed the service, without ulterior investigation, being declared guilty of infamous scandalous behaviour, unbecoming the character of an officer and a gentleman. In this case, the peremptory decision of martial law has a considerable advantage over the dull and tedious uncertainty of civil process. Nor is the influence of this laudable attention to the credit of the army, confined to military men. Every tradesman or private gentleman, on being dishonourably treated by an officer, may find redress by stating the case at head-quarters. If there be ought wanting to render the conduct of the commander in chief productive of every good effect, it is, that such a readiness to take cognizance of every flagrant instance of misbehaviour, is not generally known. Publicity might act as a preventive; and the younger part of the army would at least know, that the lowest and poorest subject in the kingdom can have justice done him at the Horse-guards, (should it be refused by the commanding officer of a corps,) without putting him to the expense of one shilling.

INFANTRY. (infanterie, Fr.) This term being little understood with respect to its derivation, and having by some writers been either vaguely interpreted or erroneously traced, we think it our duty to give the best, and we presume, the only correct explanation of the word. In so doing we should be unthankful to one of the most acute observers in life, and one of the closest reasoners, were we to omit acknowledging, that we have been favoured by the ingenious and learned author of the diversions of Purley, with the following account of its derivation.

Johnson generally states, that infantry are foot soldiers belonging to the army; and the compilers of other diction-
aries content themselves with assimilating the term infantry to the name of a Spanish princess, who marched at the head of a body of Spaniards on foot, and defeated the Moors. She was called Infanta. Our learned friend, on the contrary, traces it to the source of genuine etymology, and grounds his opinion upon the best authorities. His first root is from the Greek phemi, Latin, Fari, participle Fans—in-fans; Italian, Infante, by abridgement, Fante; Infanteria, by abridgement, Fanteria; French, Infanterie; English, Infantry.

It is still in French and in English, a common expression to soldiers, Allons mes enfans, Come on, my lads, (or my boys). So a servant is called a lad or a boy (and formerly a knave or a page), although a full grown man.

The military profession is still in the army.

Skinner says well;—“The Infantry, Fr. G. Infanterie; Italian, Fanteria, peditatus: Fante, pedes et famulus; quia silicet olim pedites equitum famuli, vel pedissequi fuerunt. Fante detriment a Lat. Infans, manifeste ortum ducit. Et nos Boy, non tantum pro puero sed et pro famulo, secundario sensu usurpamus.”

After which he refers us to Lansquenet.

A Lansquenet, a Fr. G. Lansquenet, pedes, miles, gregarius, utr. a Teut. Lance, lancea, et Knecht, servus: olim enim pedites equitum lanceariorum quos servi erant; et quilibet eques quis tuor vel quinque pedites, tantum famulos circumdant. exercitut autem numero equitum, non peditem consenbantur.

Vide Cominicum et alias illorum secutorum Scriptores.

It appears, that Machiaveli, in his Arte della Guerra, sufficiently points out what, and how considered, the infantry were in his time, when he says (libro primo) “Venuta la pace, che i gentil huomini allaloro particolare arte.”

It is plain, the fanti were huomini bassi, e soldati gregari, i. e. hired servants, and therefore called fanti, and the corps fanteia. The term infantry was given to them when they were considered merely as lads attending on the army; and the term has continued, though their condition is altered.

From these sensible observations, it is evident, that although the primary sources of infantry are in the Greek and Latin languages, its modern derivation is from the Italian word fante, which signifies a follower. In the first stages of modern warfare, battles were chiefly fought by cavalry or horsemen; but in Italy, and afterwards in Spain, the bodies of horse were always attended by a certain number of squires or armed men on foot, who marched in the rear, and assisted their leaders.

Boccaccio mentions the latter under the term fanteria, and other Italian writers, (one of whom we have already quoted,) call it infanteria, both being derived from fante. Nothing can be more out of date, out of place and superficial than to imagine, that because the Spaniards have recorded a gallant action, which was performed by an infanta of that nation, the rest of Europe should bury the real etymology of infantry beneath the flimsy texture of court-adulation. It is, besides, extremely erroneous to state, that until that period men did not fight on foot. It is well known, that the Greeks and Romans frequently placed the greatest confidence in men of that description. The former had their Hoplita, their Psilo, and their Pelasgi, and the latter their Celere, Velites, Hasta, Principes, and Triarii, or Pisarii. The French word Fontassin which signifies a foot soldier, is manifestly derived from fante.

Until the reign of Charles the VIIth, the French infantry were extremely defective; so much so, that Brantome says in one part of his works, the infantry could not be considered as essentially useful to the security of the state. For it consisted in those days of maraunts, belistres mal armés, mal complexionés; jeniaux, pillards et mangeurs du peuple: which may be thus rendered in plain English: lads, rascals and vagabonds, scoundrels, ill-equipped and ill-looking; filchers, plunderers and decoyers of the people.

Europe, however, is unquestionably indebted to the Swiss for a total change in the military system, particularly so with regard to foot soldiers.

Dr. Robertson, in the first volume of his history of Charles V. p. 105, observes, that the system of employing the Swiss
Swiss in the Italian wars, was the occasion of introducing a total innovation in the military custom. The arms and discipline of the Swiss were different from those of other European nations. During their long and violent struggles in defence of their liberties against the house of Austria, whose armies, like those of other considerable princes, consisted chiefly of heavy-armed cavalry, the Swiss found that their poverty, and the small number of gentlemen residing in their country, at that time barren and ill cultivated, put it out of their power to bring into the field any body of horse capable of facing the enemy. Necessity compelled them to place all their confidence in infantry; and in order to render it capable of withstanding the shock of cavalry, they gave the soldiers breast-plates and helmets, as defensive armour, together with long spears, halberts and heavy swords, as weapons of offence. They formed them into large battalions, ranged in deep and close array, so that they could present on every side a formidable front to the enemy. (See Machiavel's Art of War, b. ii. chap. ii. p. 451.) The men at arms could make no impression on the solid strength of such a body. It repulsed the Austrians in all their attempts to conquer Switzerland. It broke the Burgundian gendarmerie, which was scarcely inferior to that of France, either in number of reputation; and when first called to act in Italy, it bore down by its irresistible force, every enemy that attempted to oppose it. These repeated proofs of the decisive effect of infantry, exhibited on such conspicuous occasions, restored that service to reputation, and gradually re-established the opinion which had been long exploded, of its superior importance in the operations of war. But the glory the Swiss had acquired, having inspired them with such high ideas of their own prowess and consequence, as frequently rendered them mutinous and insolent, the princes who employed them became weary of depending on the caprice of foreign mercenaries, and began to turn their attention towards the improvement of their national infantry.

The German powers having the command of men, whom nature has endowed with that steady courage and persevering strength which form them to be soldiers, soon modelled their troops in such a manner, that they vied with the Swiss both in discipline and valour.

The French monarchs, though more slowly, and with greater difficulty, accustomed the impetuous spirit of their people to subordination and discipline; and were at such pains to render their national infantry respectable, that as early as the reign of Louis XII. several gentlemen of high rank had so far abandoned their ancient ideas, as to condescend to enter into their service.

The Spaniards, whose situation made it difficult to employ any other than their national troops in the southern parts of Italy, which was the chief scene of their operations in that country, not only adopted the Swiss discipline, but improved upon it, by mingling a proper number of soldiers armed with heavy muskets, in their battalions; and thus formed that famous body of infantry, which, during a century and a half, was the admiration and terror of all Europe. The Italian states gradually diminished the number of their cavalry, and, in imitation of their more powerful neighbours, brought the strength of their armies to consist in foot soldiers. From this period, the nations of Europe have carried on war with forces more adapted to every species of service, more capable of acting in every country, and better fitted both for conquest, and for preserving them. See Robertson's View of the State of Europe, Book I. pages 105 and 107.

Infanterie acentuiren, Fr. a species of French infantry, which succeeded to the legions that were established under Francis I. in imitation of the Roman legions. This infantry was kept up as late as during the reign of Henry IV. when the whole of the foot establishment was reduced into regiments.

Heavy-armed Infantry, among the ancients, were such as wore a complete suit of armour, and engaged with broad shields and long spears. They were the flower and strength of the Grecian armies, and had the highest rank of military honour.

Light-armed Infantry, amongst the ancients, were designed for skirmishes, and for fighting at a distance. Their weapons were arrows, darts or slings.

Light Infantry have only been in use
use since the year 1656. They have no
camp-equipage to carry, and their arms
and accoutrements are much lighter than
the common infantry, or battalion men.
Wherever there is light cavalry, there
should be light infantry to act in con-
junction.

Foreign Infantry (Infanterie étran-
gère, Fr.) Foreign troops were taken
into pay, during the old monarchy of
France, at a very early period. In the
reign of Philip, surnamed le Bel, or
handsome, treaties and agreements were
severely entered into, for this purpose,
with John Baillieu, king of Scotland,
Eric, king of Norway, Albert, duke of
Austria, and many other German
princes, and with Humbert, duke of
Viennois.

Philip of Valois, likewise made use
of foreign troops; and under Louis XI.
the Swiss were taken into French pay;
since that period, and until the revolu-
tion, which was accomplished on the
10th of August, 1792, several regiments
were maintained under the different de-
nominations of Swiss, German, Italian,
Catalonian, Scotch, and Irish corps, or
brigades. During the present war the
same system has been more or less
adopted by the British government.

Independent of foreign subsidies, it has
been judged expedient to admit foreign-
ers of rank, and, we presume, of mili-
itary merit, within those native limits,
from whence heretofore every stranger
was jealously excluded. A reference
to the official Army List will readily
point out the corps that come under
this description. With respect to the
60th, or Loyal American, it is necessary
to observe, that the original principles
upon which those battalions were estab-
lished, have been totally altered. One
battalion in particular, instead of being
called American, should be named Ger-
man. For the colonel is a German by
birth and education, and the majority
of the corps are from that country.

In thus adverting to the 60th regi-
ment, we think it right to explain away
an absurd and contradictory opinion,
which has prevailed of late years to the
prejudice of that gallant corps. It has
been called the condemned regiment,
from an idle, and unfounded notion,
that the different battalions, though
forming a considerable part of the Bri-
tish Infantry, were excluded from home
service, on account of some imputed
misconduct. Their uniform good be-

The Turkish Infantry (Infanterie
Turque, Fr.) is generally composed of
regiments that are chosen or select-

This body is first divided into two parts
called Capiculy and Serralculy. The
militia, which is named Capiculy, is
subdivided into Janizaries, Age molans
Topcys, Gebegys and Sakkas. The Age-

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molans constitute the military school, in which young men, destined for the corps of Janizaries are educated; the Topçys are Turkish cannoniers, the Gebezys are armourers, and the Sakkas are water-carriers.

The Serratchly Infantry is composed of Azapes, Izareys, Sichenys, Lagumys and Muselliys. Count de Massily in his Etat militaire de l'Empire Ottoman, gives the following account of these corps.

The Porte being convinced, that the body of Janizaries was not sufficiently strong to garrison all the frontier places belonging to the Turkish Empire, established in the different provinces new corps of infantry, whose duty was similar to that of the Janizaries, in camp and garrison. These corps were maintained at the expense of each Beglierbat or principality. Some writers have inconsiderately confounded this corps with that of the Janizaries, merely distinguishing it by the name of Capicyly. It differs, however, very materially from them, being superior in the formation of its divisions, more celebrated for the valour of its troops, and in every respect better disciplined.

This corps is not upon the same footing as the militia called Capicyly. It is, in general, under the direction of the Bachas of the different provinces, the command of which is given to those persons who are either the particular friends of the Bachas, or have the means of bribing handsomely for the appointments. This militia does not receive any pay, unless it be actively employed, and its subsistence in that case is drawn from the provinces, much in the same manner as British militia is from the different counties, at the monthly meetings. With regard to its institution, the principal object of it is to support the Janizaries, and to replace them, when vacancies occur.

The Serratchly infantry is divided into Azapes, Izareys, Sichenys, Lagumys, and Muselliys.

The number of the Azapes is not particularly fixed. They consist chiefly of independent companies, which are distributed among the different departments of the Turkish Empire. They are distinguished among their own people by the different names of the week, and they are divided into as many odas or companies.

These odas or companies are indiscriminately subject to the orders of two general officers, viz. the Azape-Agasi who is commander in chief of the azapes, and the Azape-Kiatiby their commissary general, who keeps a register of their names and countries.

They obey subordinate officers called Derys, Oda-Bascys and Baitactars. There are ten Derys attached to each company, who may be properly considered as corporals, entrusted with the discipline of the soldiers. The Baitactars are the standard-bearers. Each standard belonging to an oda or company consists of a horse's tail, which hangs from the end of a lance, that is capped with a gilt ball. The officers are moreover directed to superintend the messes belonging to their different companies.

It is usual for each azape to be a native of the province, in which he serves, and he is generally clothed after the fashion of the country. At Buda the azapes were ordered to be dressed in the Hungarian manner, which consisted in a cloth cap bordered with skin, a sabre, an arquebus or fusil; which similarity of dress and accoutrement has frequently confounded the azapes with Hungarian Christians.

The izareys are chiefly employed in the frontier towns, and have charge of the artillery in the room of the topçys or cannoniers. They are under the direction and command of an artillery officer, who is sent from Constantinople and is called Topçy-Agasi.

Their number is uncertain, and they are not subdivided, as their employment depends wholly upon the quality and quantity of artillery that are used. One man is attached to small field pieces, and two to those of larger caliber; so that instead of being distributed by companies, they are ordered upon duty according to the nature and number of the ordnance.

They have no other officer, besides the one already mentioned, attached to them, which officer is subordinate to the Bacha of the province, as their service does not require subaltern officers. The Bolukys-Bascys are officers merely employed to bring orders from the general
neral officers, but they cannot interfere in the direction or management of the artillery.

The Seimenys are the least respectable body belonging to this national militia, being composed wholly of peasants, that are called out and enrolled, like the supplementary militia of Great Britain, in cases of extreme necessity. They are only in fact considered as a mass of people, serving to increase the number of better disciplined troops, without having any credit for military skill or valour. They consist of Turks, Greeks, and even of Roman Catholics, who enrol themselves in order to be exempted from the annual tax.

Their only chief or commanding officer, is the bacha of the province. The Seimenys belonging to Natolia are all Mahomedans. They are called Jajas, or Men on foot, and although they do not receive any pay, except when embodied, they are nevertheless divided into Baitaces or Standards, which are similar to the Odas, and they obey their Seimeny-Boluk-Ibscs, who commands sixty men that are attached to his standard, and to the Baitacar, who escorts the standard, which is generally red, and of a moderate size.

The Seimenys usually do duty in camp and garrison. For although the Turks place little confidence in Christians, yet there have been instances wherein their services have been required on very important occasions. At the Siege of Vienna they employed Christian troops, and increased their infantry by those means very considerably; they even formed a reserve from troops of that description; and their conduct was such, that they acquired a marked reputation by the obstinate resistance which they made at Colembergh.

These troops, however, are in general ill-armed; having only rough polished sabres, and very indifferent arquebuses with locks, or bad fusils of different sizes, and consequently of little use in the hands of such men.

The Lagumys are what we call miners. This body is chiefly composed of Armenians and Christians, out of Greece or Bosnia, who being in the habit of mining, are extremely serviceable in that line, and act under the immediate direction of some old officers called Lagumy's-bascys, or chiefs of the miners. Some particular privileges are annexed to these appointments.

The Musellims are Christian tribunaries, whose duty is to march before the advanced guard of the army, to clear the roads and to construct bridges for the passage of the troops. On this account they are called pioneers.

The bachas of the different Turkish towns pay great attention to these musellims or pioneers. They not only exempt them from all taxes, but even give them lands and freeholds. By a particular privilege which is attached to this corps, only five out of thirty are obliged to do duty on a march, and they are then joined to the carpenters, which renders the service less fatiguing. Their number is not fixed. It depends indeed, more or less, upon the population of the different provinces, and on the extent of land which may be disposed of in their favour.

They are commanded by a bas-musellim, or principal person belonging to the exempts, whose only duty is to superintend the regular discharge of their functions.

Those, however, belonging to Natolia are subject to the Beg or Sangiah, who superintends the distribution of their subsistence, &c. in the same manner that he does that of the cavalry which is attached to his department.

The only weapon they carry is a hatchet; but the neighbouring villages or the public magazines belonging to the artillery are obliged to supply them with pick-axes and other tools that may be wanted in their profession. They are strictly forbidden the use of a sabre or fusil.

Whenever the Turkish army is on its march, the musellims are obliged to go forward every preceding day, in order to prepare the way for its progress.

During a siege they are frequently attached to the garrison guns, which they work in the best manner they can; and when a town is besieged by the Turks, the musellims are employed in the trenches, from which duty they derive considerable profit; so much so, that the janizaries are extremely jealous of them on these occasions. They are, in a word, the most formidable body of infantry which the Turks possess; for the
the groundwork of every species of attack or defence, and the management of all warlike machines rest upon their exertions.

The INFERNAL. Strada gives a very curious and interesting account of this machine, in his History of the Belgic War.

The Infernal was tried by the English at Dunkirk and St. Maloés, and by the Dutch and English under King William. It is likewise mentioned by Grose in his History of the English Army.

The only time during the late war at which its dreadful powers have been attempted, was in the month of December, 1800, when a conspiracy was formed to destroy Bonaparte, then first Consul of France. It failed as to its immediate object, but proved by its collateral effects, that the invention is as destructive as the most sanguine butcher of the human race could wish. See Machines Infernales.

To INFEST, (infester, Fr.) This word is more strictly applicable to places than to things.

To INFEST a place (infester un lieu, Fr.) signifies to frequent any particular spot for the evident purpose of doing damage, to create uneasiness and to commit depredations. Thus free-booters or thieves are said to infest places.

INFINIMENT PETIT, Fr. infinitely small. Modern calculators call, by this name, every thing which is so exiguous that it cannot be compared to any other quantity, or which is smaller than any other assignable quantity. The new calculation which has been adopted among geometers respecting quantities that are infinitely small, is called the calculation of infinitesimals.

INFIRMARY. See HOSPITAL.

INFLEXIBLE, (inflexible, inébranlable, Fr.) not to be prevailed on, immoveable. Every chief of an army that is solicitous to preserve good order and discipline, must not suffer the least deviations from established rules and regulations.

INFLUENCE of example. In a military sense the influence of example is of the greatest consequence. We have already spoken generally on the necessity of good example (see Example); we think it proper further to observe, that the influence which every action of a commanding officer bears,

is of so much importance to the service, as to render it incumbent upon every superior person to consider its effects upon the mind and conduct of an inferior. A circumstance once occurred (we believe at Chatham) which is become current in the army, and is frequently quoted, even in the navy. It was briefly this: An officer happening to appear upon the parade without being strictly uniform as to dress, was ordered to fall out. Some little time after the commanding officer (by whom the subaltern had been noticed) was himself irregularly dressed; the latter availed himself of an opportunity to mention the circumstance in a familiar and good-humoured manner; upon which the former very shrewdly replied—It is true, Sir, that I am not strictly uniform to-day, but you will be pleased to recollect, that I have the commanding officer's leave.

The repartee was not amiss, as it conveyed at the same time a sound piece of advice to every inferior officer; but it did not justify the deviation. Lord Duncan, from motives, we conceive, of duty, as well as principles of economy, was so tenacious of regularity, that rather than appear not strictly correct, he has been known to have a second naval uniform made of coarse flannel, which he constantly wore on board. Notwithstanding this laudable instance, it is well known, that both in the army and navy, the repartee of the commanding officer has been frequently used.

INFORMERS, (denonciateurs, Fr.) persons who inform in a court of judicature, before a magistrate, or commanding officer, &c. against such as trespass the law, &c. Soldiers who give information of false musters, or of pay illegally detained, are entitled to their discharge. See Mutiny Act, Sections 27 and 69.

INGENIEUR, Fr. See Engineer.

INGENIEUR par rapport à l'Architecture civile, Fr. an engineer, who may be properly called an adept in civil architecture. A person of this description was always employed among the French. He was a skilful and intelligent man, perfectly master of mechanics; by which means he could invent machines for the purpose of increasing propellents, so as either to draw or to raise heavy loads with facility, or to elevate and direct the course of waters.
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**INGénieur en architecture militaire,** Fr. an engineer who is perfectly master of military architecture. The term itself points out, that the requisite qualifications are ingenuity, skill, and an apt talent at invention. All warlike machines, such as cannons, &c. were formerly called engines. The word engin, Fr. and engine, Eng. come from the Latin ingeniun, or invention.—These machines were, indeed, frequently called, in bad Latin, ingenia. Hence the etymology of ingénieur. The situation of ingénieur, among the French, has always been deemed extremely honourable. They have always risen to the highest posts in the army, and their skill and judgment have always been thought indispensably necessary in all the operations of war. We have already pointed out, (under the article **Engineer**), the outlines of this important character. We only regret, that the limits of our undertaking will not admit the very sensible observations which are to be found under the head **Ingénieur** in several French publications.

**Ingénieur Directeur,** Fr. A responsible person in the old French service, whose duty was to superintend and take charge of a certain number of fortified towns or places, and to transmit a regular account of the actual state of the works, and to represent whatever might appear defective, or stand in need of repair.

**Ingénieur en Chef,** Fr. chief engineer. It was the business of this officer to superintend the construction of all sorts of military works, having several subordinate engineers under him to assist and put his plans into execution. In order to make some distinction between the man of skill and genius, and the mere pretenders to knowledge in this great branch of military acquirements, it was usual, during the monarchy of France, to call all engineers that were acknowledged by government, **ingénieurs ordinaires du Roi,** engineers in ordinary to the king.

The usual pay of the French engineers was, from vingti écus or two pounds ten shillings up to one hundred écus or four pounds ten shillings per month, according to each individual's length of service, peculiar talents or appointment.

Persons were received as engineers by the superintendent of the board of ordnance, after having passed a mathematical examination; and the situation was the more eagerly sought after, inasmuch as it led to the highest military post; as that of marshal of France, to which the celebrated Vauban was promoted.

In 1755, the French engineers were formed into one corps, under the name of the royal corps of artillery and engineers; the principal officers of which communicated with the secretary of war, and received through him the king's orders.

No country has ever paid so much attention to the art of engineering, as France has under all her vicissitudes; and this has arisen, not so much from a natural predilection to that peculiar study, as from a conviction of its utility in all warlike operations; but most especially in sieges. This class of military men was, however, extremely neglected, until the reign of Louis the XIVth. Few ever saw, or were present at, above five or six sieges; being either wounded at the beginning, or during the operations of a siege. They seldom indeed, witnessed the termination of it; and from the want of engineers, the investment of a town or fortified place became tedious, and many lives were unnecessarily lost. Louis the XIVth, by his personal appearance and attention, gave fresh life to his army, and instilled into every part of it a spirit of subordination, which had been hitherto unknown. He was actuated by a thorough conviction, that in every species of offensive and defensive operation the use of artillery, under the guidance of scientific men, was essentially requisite. In no instance, however, does the skill of an able engineer appear so much to advantage as in the attack of a fortified place. This the king witnessed himself, and on that account he considerably increased the number of engineers. Persons of the first birth and distinction became candidates for situations in that honourable body.

Whenever there was a deficiency during a siege of subordinate engineers or **ingénieur en second,** it was usual among the French to select lieutenants, or sub-lieutenants from the different infantry corps to superintend the works, and
and to see that the workmen did their duty. They received an additional pay of ten écus, or one pound five shillings per month, in consideration of this extra service; and their being selected in this manner was a sure step to the rank and emoluments of an engineer. It has been very justly observed by a French writer, that every infantry officer should be acquainted with field fortification at least; for a thousand instances occur, in which the immediate assistance of an engineer is required, and to which, in actual service, it is impossible for the regularly bred officer of that establishment to pay personal attention. We allude, among other cases, to the temporary defence of out-posts, to the laying and springing of fougasses, &c.

Before the revolution, the frontier towns and other fortified places belonging to France, were under the direction of 350 engineers, called ingénieurs du Roi, who were subordinate to one director-general.

All instructions relative to the fortifications passed through the latter officer to the king.

All engineers were subject to the orders that the commissary general thought proper to issue, with respect to the attack or defence of places, the construction of works, &c. and they were further directed to see, that all the necessary implements for a siege were duly provided. They gave in a weekly report to the director general of the progress and state of the works, and had authority to draw upon the treasurer for whatever sums were wanted to pay the contractors. Every engineer was particularly enjoined to see that the contractors furnished good materials.

Ingénieur géographe, Fr. an individual attached to a general officer, for the purpose of drawing out plans, geographical charts, &c.

INGREZ, Ind. the English are so called by the natives of Bengal: they are frequently called Wullaget, which signifies the country.

INHIBITION. See EMBARGO.

INHUMAN, (inhumain, Fr.) insensible to the common dictates of humanity. We have already said, that the chief of an army must be inflexible and immovable with respect to good order and discipline; but on this very ground, neither he nor his followers can be inhuman.

INJURE, Fr. a particular phrase used by the French to signify contumelious or offensive language. In many instances, especially among military men, words have occasioned the most serious quarrels. On this account young officers should be particularly circumpect in their behaviour to one another.

INIMICAL, hostile.

INLISTING, the act of engaging soldiers to serve either in the cavalry, infantry, or artillery. For the regulations respecting the inlisting soldiers, see RECRUITING.

INN-HOLDERS, or INN-KEEPERS, persons who have a licence to enable them to sell spirituous liquors, beer, &c. and who are obliged, by the conditions specified in that licence, to provide victuals and beer for military men, under certain restrictions. See 39th and 40th Geo. III. Cap. 27. Art. XII. XIII. XLIII.

INNODER, Fr. See INUNDATE.

INQUIRY. See COURT OF INROAD, incursion, sudden and desultory invasion.

INSCONSENT, in the military art. When any part of an army has fortified itself with a scone, or small work, in order to defend some pass, &c. it is said to be insconced.

INSIDE guard, a guard with the broad sword, to secure the face and front of the body, from a cut made at the inside of the position above the wrist. See BROADSWORD.

INSPECTEUR, Fr. inspector. Military inspectors were originally instituted among the French, after the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1668. Two persons at that epoch occupied this important situation; one being called inspector-general of cavalry, and the other inspector-general of infantry. Louis XIV. under whom France assumed over the rest of Europe a preponderance of military character, increased the number of inspectors, and ordered them to be distributed in the different departments for the purpose of reviewing the troops every month, and of transmitting to him a regular statement of their effective force, &c.

It was the duty of these inspectors...
to examine minutely at the commence-
ment of every month the state of each
regiment, to look at the books belonging
to the several companies, and to mark
out such men as did not appear fit for the service. Each inspector had
a separate dwelling-house allotted to
him in the garrison town of his depart-
ment, and he had the power, on giving
previous notice to the governor, of or-
dering the men under arms. A brigade-
major delivered to him every evening
the orders of the day.

Inspectors-general of this description
ranked with the army, without bearing
any direct commission, and in time of
war, they were acknowledged as general
officers, brigadiers or colonels.

Their inspection did not extend to the
troops of the household, the French, or
Swiss guards, nor to the regiment du
Roi infanterie. The artillery were also
out of their superintendence.

Previous to the French revolution,
there were eleven inspectors of infantry,
and eleven of cavalry attached to the
French army. There was likewise one
inspector-general of infantry, and one
inspector-general of cavalry.

Inspecteur de construction, Fr. an
officer in the French army, in whose
presence all plans and profiles for forti-
ication, &c. were drawn, before any
work could be undertaken. An accu-
rate estimate was made of the wood
which would be required to complete
it. It was likewise a part of his duty
to point out to the carpenters the pre-
cise method by which ground plans and
elevations, forts, batteries, and brigades,
&c. were to be conducted. It was his
business, in a word, to attend to the
construction and repair of every part of
a fortification.

INSPECTING field officer of a dis-
trict, a responsible character, selected
from the line, who is nominated by the
War-office, to superintend and to vouch
for the faithful distribution of monies
which are issued to officers acting on de-
tachmet, or on recruiting parties,
within the limits of his station.

All district pay-masters are strictly
enjoined by the last General Regulations
(Schedule A) to get their muster-rolls
and pay-lists duly authenticated, not only
before a justice of the peace, but to have
them witnessed by the inspecting field
officer. All the recruiting officers, &c.
within the limits of the district are ac-
countable and subordinate to the inspec-
ting field officer. It is the duty of the
latter to be particularly minute in his ex-
amination of every thing which apper-
tains to the recruiting service. Inspectors
have the command of all recruiting par-
ties of regiments of cavalry and in-
fantry in their districts; they are au-
thorized to give an intermediate ap-
proval of the recruits whom they judge
fit for service, except in cases where re-
giments are so quartered, as to render
it, in point of distance, equally conve-
nient for the recruits to be sent to their
own head quarters. The senior officer
in each quarter is ordered to report to
the field officer of the district. No offi-
cer is to leave his station even for one
day, without reporting to the field offi-
cer who has the command of the re-
cruiting parties in the district, or to be
absent from it, for more than one day,
without the previous permission of the
field officer. The field officers in their
districts, are to be responsible for the
dress, regularity, and good conduct of
the officers, non-commissioned officers
and private men of the several recruit-
ing parties under their command. They
are constantly to wear their uniforms,
whilst in their districts, and they are to
see, that his Majesty's orders respect-
ing the due observance of discipline,
regularity, and uniformity, of appear-
ance among the officers, non-commis-
sioned officers, and privates, be strictly
and unequivocally adhered to.

Field officers of districts may order
detachment courts martial, to be com-
posed of the recruiting officers in their
districts, in the usual number and ranks,
and they are to approve of every such
court-martial, and to direct the punish-
ment awarded thereby to be executed,
mitigated, or remitted, as they shall
think expedient. They are to receive
orders from the inspector-general of the
recruiting service, respecting the nature
of their returns; and all returns and
reports are to come to the inspector ge-
general through them. Each district field
officer has an allowance of ten shillings
a day, in addition to the full pay of his
respective regimental rank, and he is
to be reimbursed for the actual ex-
pense he incurs for stationary and post-
age,
Each district field officer is allowed to appoint a subaltern officer (not employed upon the recruiting service) to act as adjutant in the district. The pay or allowance of such subaltern is three shillings a day in addition to his full regimental pay; he is also authorized to nominate two sergeants, with the additional pay of sixpence each, one to act as sergeant-major, and the other as clerk to the district.

Each field-officer may moreover give directions to the hospital mate, who is placed under his orders, to examine the recruits when brought for inspection, and to give such medical assistance as may be in his power, to the several recruiting parties in the district he belongs to.

When colonels of regiments take upon themselves the whole direction of the recruiting service for their own corps, they must conform to the regulations which require returns to be made to the inspector general of the recruiting service; and they must instruct their officers to send weekly returns to the regulating field-officer, in whose district they are stationed, of all the casualties that have occurred. See pages 105, 106, 127, and 108 of the General Regulations.

INSPECTION, a strict examination, a close survey. It likewise signifies superintendence. In a military sense it admits of both interpretations, and may be considered under two specific heads, each of which branches out into a variety of general, regimental, and company duties.

A general Inspection is made annually by the reviewing generals of districts. Every regiment, on this occasion, is minutely looked into, and a faithful account must be delivered by each commanding officer of the actual state of his regiment, together with all the casualties that have occurred during the current year. The interior economy of the corps is not only investigated to the bottom, but the discipline of the men is likewise examined. For a more particular explanation of the latter, see Review.

Regimental Inspection is made once a month by the commanding officer. The clothing, the necessaries, arms, and accoutrements belonging to the different companies are examined by the lieutenant colonel or major of the corps. Specific returns are made by the officers commanding troops or companies, by whom the debts or credits of the men, which have been made up and accounted for on the 24th day in each month in infantry regiments, and on the 24th day in each second month in cavalry corps, are exhibited for examination at head quarters. This forms the groundwork or basis of the general inspection, at which the troop or company book should always be produced.

Private Inspection of companies is the first step towards the other two, and ought to be made every Monday morning, by each officer commanding a troop or company, or by his subaltern.

Inspection of necessaries is an examination of the different articles which every soldier is directed to have in good repair. The regular or established proportion of necessaries that each soldier of cavalry or infantry is to be in possession of on the 24th day of each month, to entitle him to receive the balance that may be then due to him, consists in the following articles.

Cavalry.—8 shirts, 2 pair of shoes, 3 pair of stockings, 1 pair of gaiters, 1 forage cap, 1 saddle-bag, 1 pair of canvas, or woollen over-hose, 1 canvas, or woollen frock or jacket, 1 stock, 1 black-ball, 2 brushes, 1 curry-comb and brush, 1 mane-comb and spunge, 1 horse-picker.

Infantry.—3 shirts, 2 pair of shoes, 2 pair of stockings, or 2 pair of socks, 1 pair of long gaiters, 1 forage cap, 1 pack, 1 stock, 1 black-ball, 2 brushes.

Private Inspection of arms. Twenty minutes or more before the general parade, every troop or company should be drawn up on its troop or private parade, and each man be narrowly inspected by an officer. When the dress and accoutrements have been looked at, the troop or company standing at open ranks, and with shouldered arms, will receive the following words of command from the senior officer.

Open pans—slope, or port arms—The pans and locks will be narrowly inspected. Carry arms—shut pans—order arms—draw ram-rods—at which word the men draw and put them in the pieces, springing them successively as the
the officer comes up to them, but not returning them until the whole troop or company has been examined. The officer will carefully examine the nob of each ram-rod, and determine from its appearance whether the inside of the barrel be clean. On some particular occasions, especially when a party is ordered upon immediate duty with ball cartridges, a more minute examination of the musket should take place. The prickler is not always sufficient to ascertain the state of the interior part of the touch-hole, as it can only enter in one direction; it is therefore recommended to order the men Butts to the front, after which they are to blow down the barrels, by applying his hand to the touch-hole, the officer will be able to know the real state of the vent. When the arms have been examined, the men will be ordered to handle arms—fix bayonets.—When the bayonets and slings will be inspected—unfix bayonets—ease arms—stand at ease.

INSPECTION des gardes et détachements, Fr. Private inspection of guards and detachments. This is done, in the first instance, by the serjeants and corporals, and afterwards by the officers of troops or companies.

INSPECTOR-General of Cavalry, a general officer, whose particular duty is to inspect all cavalry regiments, to report the state of the horses, and to receive specific accounts from the different corps of their actual state; he communicates with the commander in chief, and whenever a cavalry regiment is ordered to be disbanded, it must be looked at by the inspector general, before it is finally broken.

INSPECTOR-general of the recruiting service, an officer of rank through whom the field-officers of districts, and colonels of regiments (when they personally manage the recruiting service of their own corps) transmit their several returns to the adjutant general's office. All recruiting parties which are sent to the great manufacturing towns in England and Wales, as also to Scotland and Ireland, must be previously authorized so to do by the inspector general.

INSPECTOR of clothing. Two field-officers have lately been appointed as permanent inspectors of clothing. These inspectors, or the inspectors for the time being, are directed to view and compare with the sealed patterns, the clothing of the several regiments of cavalry and infantry, as soon as the same shall have been prepared by the respective clothiers; and if the said clothing appear to be conformable to the sealed patterns, they are authorized to grant two certificates of their view and approval thereof; one of which certificates is to be delivered to the clothier, to be sent with the clothing to the head quarters of the corps, and the other to be lodged with the general clothing board, as the necessary voucher for passing the assignment of the allowance for the said clothing.

All clothing must be viewed, and certificates be signed by both inspectors, except in cases where the absence of one of them shall be unavoidable; in all which cases, the cause of such absence is to be stated by the other inspector, in his certificate of the view of the clothing.

Inspectors of clothing are to follow all instructions which may be transmitted to them from the commander in chief, the secretary at war, or the clothing-board.

INSPECTOR of health, a civil officer of professional knowledge and abilities, who is appointed by the Medical Board to visit the hospitals, military places of confinement, and ships allotted for the sick in the service. He likewise examines into the state of transports before troops are embarked. His pay during the late war was 3l. per diem.

INSPECTOR of hospitals, the next on the staff to the surgeon general.

INSTALLATION, the act of investing any one with a military order.

INSTRUCTION des procès criminels, Fr. A military form or process in criminal matters. In the old French service, when troops were in garrison, it was the duty of the town major to issue out the regular form of proceeding against all officers, serjeants, and soldiers who were accused of crimes or misdemeanours. The majors of corps exercised this function when troops were encamped. There was a specific form, subject only to a few alterations with respect to terms and expressions, by which all sorts of military crimes were investigated. Desertion was the chief and most prevalent crime among French soldiers. It became the peculiar business of the major, whether in garrison
or in the field, to explain and bring forward every thing that might establish the truth of the accusation; and he acted on this occasion, as the attorney-general does in civil matters; only with this difference, that the latter explained the grounds of his indictment before a judge, whereas the former, not only exposed the nature of the case, but drew his own conclusions and bounded his verdict.

Those officers who may be disposed to enter more largely into the subject of French military process, as conducted before the revolution, may be satisfied by perusing Le Code Militaire, ou deuxième volume du service de l'Infanterie, page 193; and we refer all British officers in general to Mr. Tyler's late publication on English military law.

Military INSTRUMENTS (instruments militaires,) Fr. By the sound of military instruments, the troops belonging to the several armies in Europe, &c. are directed in their various movements.

The instruments which are peculiar to the cavalry of most nations are the trumpet and the cymbal. In France dragoon regiments in general adopted the drum in common with the infantry. A certain number of fifers are likewise allowed in foot regiments. Hautboys and clarinets do not form any part of the music which is sanctioned and paid for by the public. Colonels of corps, however, frequently entertain a band either at their own expense, or out of what is called the stock-purse.

The principal military instruments which were used among the antients, whether for cavalry or infantry, consisted of the trumpet, the cornet, and the bucchina or French horn.

Warlike INSTRUMENTS used by the Turks. The Turks make use of wind and clashing instruments of different shapes and sizes; all, except one wind-instrument, are better calculated for pomp and ceremony, than adapted to military service.

The clashing instruments, which the French call instruments à choc, consist of two sorts of drums, and an instrument which is made of two plates of metal.

Their wind-instruments consist of a winding or crooked trumpet, and of a wooden file.

The big drum, which they call daul, stands three feet high. It is carried by a mounted drummer, who makes use of a thick stick, with which he strikes the upper part, and a small one, with which he plays upon the under one; these he applies alternately, with much ingenuity of hand, and great gravity of countenance. This is the only instrument which the Turks use in military exercise or manoeuvres. The big drums are constantly beat when the enemy is near, and round all the out-posts, in order to keep the sentinels upon the alert. On these occasions the drummers exclaim with a loud voice: Jegder Allah! that is, God is good! or as the French interpret it—Dieu Bon.

The two small drums, or the kettle drums, serve as marks of distinction for the bacha's family, and likewise as signals when the troops are to march.

They contribute greatly to the general harmony of a concert. The Turkish name for them is Sadar Nagara. The bachas, or bashaws with three tails are entitled to three kettle drums, which are fixed on each side of the saddle, and are beat in the same manner that those in other services are.

There is likewise another sort of Turkish instrument called zill, which consists of two hollow brass plates, on whose convex side is fixed a ring, sufficiently large to contain the grasp of three fingers. By clashing them seasonably together, an agreeable silvery sound is extracted. The bashaws with three tails are each entitled to two sets of these instruments.

There are two sorts of wind-instruments used among the Turks, they differ very much both with regard to the manner in which they are played, and to the materials with which they are made. The first is the trumpet, which is made of the same metal that ours are, but are somewhat longer; they are called bori. The man who blows this trumpet is always mounted on horseback, and every bashaw with three tails is entitled to have seven.

The second instrument is made of wood; it is a sort of pipe or flute with five holes; the Turks call it zurnader. The person who plays this instrument is on horseback, and every bashaw with three tails is entitled to five.
The sounds which issue from these different instruments would be extremely harsh to the ear, were they not in some degree harmonized by the great drum: when the whole is played together, the effect is both martial and pleasant.

Surgical Instruments directed to be provided for the use of regimental hospitals. An amputating saw, with spare blade, 1 metacarpal saw, with ditto, 24 curved needles, 2 amputating knives, 1 catlin, 2 tenaculum, 1 bullet forceps, 1 pair of bone nippers, 2 screw tourniquets, 4 field tourniquets with handle, 2 calico compresses, 2 trephines, with sliding keys, 1 trephine forceps, 1 elevator, 1 lenticular, a brush, key instruments for teeth, to fit trephine handle, 8 scalpels, 2 silver cathethers, 1 trocar with spring and introductory canula, 1 ditto ditto, and canula for hydrocele, 1 probang, 1 long silver probe, 1 large bougie.

Surgical Instruments directed to be provided for the field. An amputating saw, 1 metacarpal saw, 12 curved needles, 1 amputating knife, 1 catlin, 1 screw tourniquet, 1 silver catheter, 1 elastic ditto, 2 trephines to one handle, 1 trephine forceps, 1 elevator, 2 scalpels, 1 bullet forceps, 1 trocar with spring and introductory canula, 1 trocar with spring canula for hydrocele, a brush, a tenaculum, thread for ligatures.

To INSULT, (insulter, Fr.) in a military significance, is to attack boldly and in open day, without going through the slow operations of opening trenches, working by mines and saps, or having any recourse to those usual forms of war, by advancing gradually towards the object in view. An enemy is said to insult a coast, when he suddenly appears upon it, and debarks with an immediate purpose to attack. The British forces under the command of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, insulted the Dutch coast when they took possession of the Heider, in consequence of a bold descent. In attacking fortified places it is usual to insult the counterscarp, in order to avoid the destruction which would naturally follow, if the besieged had time enough allowed them to give effect to the different mines that must necessarily have been prepared beneath it. The grenadiers are always employed on these occasions, accompanied by workmen and artisans to secure the post, after it has been taken by assault.

INSULTE (mettre hors d’), Fr. to take such measures and precautions, either in a fortified town or camp, as to be able to resist an enemy’s attack.

INSURGENTS, (insurgens, Fr.) All vassals in Hungary when assembled together in consequence of the general proclamation by Ban and Arrière Ban are so called. This, however, does not happen except in cases of great emergency, when they are headed by the Prince Palatine of Hungary, and march to the defence of their frontiers. The Hungarians have sometimes indeed gone beyond them, in order to support their sovereign’s right, and have acted offensively in the neighbouring countries.

This term is also generally applied to any body of men that rise in open rebellion, against an established authority. Thus, the Americans when they first opposed the British troops, were insurgents, as they had formerly acknowledged the power that sent them over.

INTELLIGENCE, in a military sense, may be variously applied, and of course has different significations. No general can be said to be in any degree qualified for the important situation which he holds, unless, like an able minister of state, he be constantly prepared with the requisite means to obtain the best intelligence respecting the movements and the designs of the enemy he is to oppose. On the other hand, it is not possible to conceive a greater crime than that of affording intelligence to an enemy, and thereby bringing about the overthrow and destruction of a whole army. A French military writer, (to whose work we have the satisfaction of being frequently indebted for much general and useful knowledge) makes the following observations respecting the latter species of intelligence, which he classes under two specific heads.

He justly remarks, that to hold correspondence, or to be in intelligence with an enemy, (être d’intelligence avec l’ennemi) is not only to betray your king, but likewise your country. Armies and fortified places are almost al-
ways surprizd and taken by means of a secret intelligence, which the enemy keeps up with domestic traitors, acting in conjunction with commissioned spies and delegated hirelings.

A garrison town may be taken by surprise, under the influence of secret intelligence, in two different ways. — The one is when the assailant, to whom the place has been surrendered, is not bound to join his forces to those troops by whom he has been admitted; the other, when it is necessary that an assault should be made by openly storming, by throwing shells and by petards, or by stratagem.

The first species of intelligence may be held with a governor who has influence enough to direct the will and actions of the garrison; with a garrison which is indisposed towards the governor and the officers that command the troops; with the inhabitants who have undertaken to defend a place where no garrison is stationed, and lastly with the prevailing faction, where there are two parties that govern in a free town.

The other species of intelligence may be practised with a governor who either wants power, or is afraid to tamper with the fidelity of the garrison; with some particular officer, serjeants, or soldiers; with the body of inhabitants who think differently from the armed force that overawes them; or with active and shrewd individuals, who have access to the ruling party, and can skilfully combine affected loyalty with secret disaffection.

There is not, however, in human nature perhaps a more insidious, or a more dangerous ground to tread on, than that of secret intelligence; nor are the faculties of the mind ever so much put to the test, as when it is necessary to listen to the report of an individual, who, whilst he is betraying one side, may be equally disposed to dupe the other. A wise general will consequently hear everything, and say nothing; and a wise man, let his secret wishes be what they may, will warily consider, whether the person who insinuates to him the possibility of a plot, does not at that instant endeavour to get into his confidence, for the sole purpose of acting contrary to his supposed views, and of betraying the man who has unfolded other schemes. It is certainly justifiable policy, either in the governor of a town, or in a general, to affect to give into the views of any man or party of men whom he has cause to suspect, and whose ultimate object he is determined to defeat. But he should be equally cautious, how he listens to the communications of spies or informers. The veil of honesty is often assumed to cover a deep-laid scheme of villainy; and apparent candour is the surest path to unchecked confidence. When villains voluntarily unfold themselves in such a manner as to convince an able and penetrating officer, that their treachery can be depended upon, much blood may be spared by making a proper use of their intelligence. This axiom has prevailed in every civilized country; and should be well attended to by thinking men. For when a battle has been gained, it avails little to ask, whether the enemy owed his success to force or treachery? No treachery, however, is admissible, or should be sanctioned by belligerent powers, which militates against those laws of nations that are founded upon the wise basis of humanity. Private assassinations, the use of poison, or the disregard of paroles of honour, must be generally reproubated; and whatever general obtains his ends by any of these dark means, his name should be stamped with infamy, and he himself be exposed to all the melancholy casualties of retaliation.

INTENDANT D'ARMÉE, Fr. under the old government of France, the intendants d'armées, or superintendents of the army, were principal inspectors of all sorts of stores, &c. that were necessary for the troops. The French general officers and governors of fortified towns, held continual intercourse with the intendants or supervisors, who directed every branch of the commissariat.

When the intendant d'armée was not likewise intendant de province, he was directed to accompany the troops, to visit their line of encampment or cantonnement, and to require of all the subordinate intendants, the regular proportion of stores and provisions, and to see, that they were supplied according to contract, and with punctuality.

INTERIOR, (interieur, Fr.) inward; internal.
INTERIOR Flanking Angle, is formed by the curtain and line of defence. INTERIOR Radius, the part of an oblique radius extending from the center of the polygon to the center of the bastion.

INTERIOR Side. The line of the curtain, produced to the two oblique radii of the front; or a line drawn from the center of one bastion to that of the next.

INTERIOR Slope. See TALUS.

INTERMEDIATE (intermédiaire, Fr.) anything that is, or lies between. See Intermediate Posts.

INTERSECTION, the point where two lines cross each other.

INTERVAL, (intervalle, Fr.) any space between. A word variously applied in military dispositions and manoeuvres, to denote any given distance or space.

INTERVAL between two battalions, the space which separates them when they are drawn up for action, or when they are encamped. This space is generally wide enough to admit the march of another battalion, that is to say, it is equal to the extent of its front when in line. When troops are encamped for the purpose of investing a town or fortified place, the interval is much greater, and seldom or ever less.

INTERVAL between the line and the camp. This comprehends the space which lies between the camp and the line of entrenchments. It is generally from one hundred and eighty to two hundred toises in breadth; so that the different battalions and squadrons which are necessary for the security of the camp may have room to move in, while sufficient ground is left in the rear for troops to pass and repass as occasion may require. The same observation holds good with respect to contravallation.

INTERVALLE du Camp à la ligne, Fr. See Interval between the line and the camp.

To INTRENCH, to secure against the attack of an enemy, by digging a ditch or trench, &c.

To INTRENCH upon. To invade, to make incroachments upon the property or territories of another.

INTRENCHMENT, any work that fortifies a post against the attack of an enemy. The word is generally used to denote a ditch or trench with a parapet. Intrenchments are sometimes made of fascines, with earth thrown over them, of gabions, hogsheads, or bags filled with earth, to cover the men from the enemy's fire. See INTRENCHMENT.

INTREPIDITY, (intrépitude, Fr.) an unqualified contempt of death, and indifference to fortune, as far as it regards personal safety; a fearlessness of heart, and a daring enterprize of mind. According to Rochefoucault, intrepidity, especially with regard to military daring, implies firmness of character, great confidence of mind, and extraordinary strength of soul. Buoyed up and supported by these qualities, (which are sometimes natural and sometimes acquired,) men become superior to every emotion of alarm, and are insensible to those perturbations of the heart which the prospect of imminent danger almost always engenders. Chevalier Folard defines it to be a settled contempt of death, a species of courage which so intoxicates the mind, as to make it leap over the sober bounds of judgment and discretion; an enthusiastic impulse, which urges us forward and renders danger imperceptible; or, if discovered, raises our sensations beyond the least impression of fear. This definition appears extremely just. Were we disposed to enter into instances of illustration, it would not be difficult to find them among our own countrymen, especially among the illustrious characters that have raised the British Navy to the highest pinnacle of human glory. The mention of the battle of the Nile will, however, be sufficient for our purpose. Lord Nelson, whether he be on his own element, or be destined to act on shore, seems to possess this quality to the full extent of its definition.

A general may be said to act with intrepidity when, with forces inferior to those of his enemy, and under all the disadvantages of ground, &c. he hazards a general action, attacks his whole front, and finally defeats him. This hardiness and enterprise of character not only surprise an enemy, but likewise create emotions of wonder. If, on the contrary, a general at the head of a small army should be known to act against another that is superior to him in every point,
Intriguant, Fr. a person who puts himself forward; an intriguer in politics, &c. a confined politician. Hence the French say, ce n'est qu'un intriguant—he is a mere schemer.

Intriguer, Fr. to embroil; to plot; to puzzle; as, intriguer son ennemi, to puzzle one's enemy.

S'intriguer, Fr. to bustle about; to put one's self forward, &c.

Invalid, (invalide, Fr.) properly includes every soldier that has been wounded, or has suffered materially in his health, and in consequence of his good conduct, has been recommended to a certain provision for life. Chelsea hospital is the place allotted for the reception of such objects of public gratitude and benevolence in this country. Before the building of the hotel des invalides at Paris, all soldiers of the above description, who belonged to the French army, were distributed among the frontier towns, and enjoyed a certain allowance for life.

In England, and, we presume, the custom still exists under the new order of things in France, those invalid soldiers who are reported not wholly incapable of bearing arms, are occasionally sent into garrisoned places, and do duty with the regular army.

Invalid-battalion. See Veteran. Invasion, (invasion, Fr.) in war, the
the entrance or attack of an enemy on
the dominions of another.

INVENTAIRE des Effets des Offi-
ciers décédés, Fr. Inventory of the ef-
teffects of deceased officers. As the French
regulations on this head were more spe-
cific than those expressed in our Arti-
cles of War, we shall premise the ex-
tract from the latter, by the following
particulars which were in force during
the old government of France.

When governors, commandants of
places, staff officers, commissaries of
war, engineers and officers entrusted
with the care of artillery, died in their
several provinces or allotted quarters,
the judges or magistrates belonging to
the spot where such deaths occurred,
sealed up the effects of the deceased,
and took an inventory of their property
without being, in the least, controuled
by any species of military authority.
On the removal of the seals, the town-
major or his adjutant received a specific
statement of every thing which apper-
tained to the situation or appointment
of the deceased person or persons,
which statement was transmitted to
government.

The creditors of the deceased pre-
ferred a schedule of debts contracted
in each place of residence, before any
of the ordinary justices, which debts
were discharged out of the personal
property that was left. But all other
creditors were obliged to have recourse
to the judge or justice belonging to the
precise spot where the deceased resided;
applications respecting all debts, which
exceeded the value of the personal ef-
facts, were directed to be made through
the same channel.

When officers died in a garrison
town, or upon a march, or when engi-
neers, who had no particular fixed resi-
dence, or artillery officers that were up-
on leave, departed this life, the town-
majors or aid-major of the towns or
places, where such persons died, fixed
their seals upon their effects. An in-
ventory of these effects was afterwards
taken, (provided they were not claimed
by the next heir;) in which latter case,
all the debts that had been contracted
by the deceased in the place where he
died, were ordered to be paid by the
person who took possession of the pro-

of drum, that a military sale would be
made, and one sol (equal to our half-
penny) in the livre was charged on all
that was disposed of in this manner.

The man who beat the drum, and
the person who registered the minutes
of the sale, were paid out of this sol;
whatever surplus remained, after a rea-
sonable deduction had been made for
these purposes, became the town-major's
property.

The produce of the sale was appro-
priated to the discharge of such debts
as had been contracted in the garrison;
and the judge or magistrate, whose par-
ticular province it was to take cogni-
zance of all cases relating to property,
placed his seal upon the remainder,
which was deposited in a box. This
box was delivered over to the person
that had registered the effects and
taken minutes of the sale; in whose
hands it remained until claimed by the
widow of the deceased, the residuary
legatee, or by any creditors; except
those who immediately belonged to
the garrison.

When a captain in the French guards
died, or was killed, his heirs or execu-
tors were not obliged to discharge any
demands which his company might
have had upon him. If the sale of his
private property should not be sufficient
to defray these debts, the officer who
succeeded to the company was bound to
make up the remainder, and the soldier's
claim had the preference of all other
demands. If there was an overplus, it was
paid into the hands of the lawful heirs.
The soldiers of the company received the
moiety, of what was due to them, in
ready money.

On the decease, or departure of the
officers belonging to any of the detached
companies of invalids, the superior offi-
cier of that detachment in which the
death or dereliction happened, ordered
every article belonging to the royal hos-
pital of invalids to be sold in the pre-
sence of the several officers, without de-
ducting the sol in the livre. The pro-
duce of this sale was placed to the cre-
dit of the detachment; and all other
articles belonging to the deceased were
disposed of by the town-majors in the
manner already mentioned.

The powers which were vested in the
town-majors and staff-officers belonging
to garrisoned places, were lodged in the hands of the majors or adjutants of regiments, who upon the decease of an officer on service, or in a place where there was not any staff, took a regular inventory of his effects, &c.

Town-majors were not authorized to put their seals upon the effects of deceased officers belonging to the Swiss regiments, as these had a peculiar military jurisdiction of their own. But other foreign troops in the service of France were not entitled to these privileges.

**INVENTORY of deceased officers effects, &c.** In the British army, when any commissioned officer happens to die, or is killed on service, it is directed by the articles of war, that the major of the regiment, or the officer doing the major's duty in his absence, shall immediately secure all his effects or equipage then in camp or quarters; and shall before the next regimental court-martial make an inventory thereof, and forthwith transmit the same to the office of our secretary at war, to the end that the executors of such officer may, after payment of his regimental debts and quarters, and the expenses attending his interment, receive the surplus, if any be, to his or their use.

When any non-commissioned officer, or private soldier, happens to die, or is killed on service, the then commanding officer of the troop or company, shall, in the presence of two other commissioned officers, take an account of whatever effects he dies possessed of, above his regimental clothing, arms and accoutrements, and transmit the same to the office of the secretary at war. These effects are to be accounted for and paid to the representative of such deceased non-commissioned officer or soldier; and in case any of the officers, so authorized to take care of the effects of dead officers and soldiers, should, before they have accounted to their representatives for the same, have occasion to leave the regiment by preference or otherwise, they are ordered before they be permitted to quit the same, to deposit in the hands of the commanding officer or of the agent of the regiment, all the effects of such deceased non-commissioned officers and soldiers, in order that the same may be secured for, and paid to, their respective representatives. See Articles of War, Section XIX.

To INVEST a place, (investir une place, Fr.) A fortified town or place is said to be invested, when all the avenues leading to it have been seized upon by hostile troops, which are distributed and posted on the principal commands, to prevent any succour from being received by the garrison, and to keep the ground until the rest of the army, with the artillery, can arrive to form a regular siege. To invest a place is, in fact, to take preparatory measures for a blockade, or a close siege. In order to do this effectually, the general in chief of the approaching army must detach a large body of cavalry, together with the different corps of dragoons, under the command of a lieutenant-general, for the purpose of regularly investing the town. As secrecy is of the utmost consequence on this occasion, the troops belonging to the detachment must have their march so managed as to create an alarm and jealousy in some other quarter, by deviating from the road which leads directly to the proposed object of attack. The general, indeed, would act wisely, by giving written sealed orders to the commanding officer, with strict injunctions not to open them until the detachment should have reached a certain spot, and then only in the presence of some particular persons; by which means his real designs may be concealed. Sometimes a place is partially invested, for the sole purpose of diverting the enemy’s attention from the real object, and of inducing him to weaken the garrison by detaching it to different quarters. Thus in 1710, the allied army suddenly appeared before the town of Ipres, and by threatening to besiege it, caused so many troops to be detached from Tournay to its relief, that the latter place, (which was the real object of attack, and was one of the strongest towns in the Low Countries,) afforded little or no resistance.

It is sometimes prudent to harass and perplex the enemy, that may be in the neighbourhood of the town which you propose to attack, by perpetually driving in his outposts, &c. and by forcing him to retire from the different avenues and commanding grounds. When the various objects which are to facili-
tate the approaches of the besieging army, have been accomplished, the lieutenant-general who is entrusted with the investment of the town, must procure faithful and intelligent guides, advance by forced marches, halt as little as possible, and then only for the purpose of refreshing his men. He must studiously preserve the secret of his expedition, until he gets so near to the town, that the object of his approaches becomes manifest and unequivocal.

When he arrives within one day's march of the town, he must detach from his main body two or three parties of horse, (each party to be stronger than the garrison of the place) which must lie in ambush in the neighbourhood, for the purpose of carrying off cattle, or of making prisoners. The instant he reaches the town he must seize upon all the leading avenues, and draw his army up on some advantageous ground. He then goes out to reconnoitre, and to discover the most likely places by which succours might be conveyed into the town. He must have the precaution to post a strong guard in each of these places.

His next business will be to send out small scouting parties, in order to obtain correct intelligence respecting the enemy's motions. Every out-post is blocked up by some dragoons, for the purpose of hemming in the garrison as close as possible. He makes it his study moreover to acquire personal information by examining the prisoners, with regard to the nature of the country, the different fords, rivulets, points of enfilade, avenues, strong buildings, or commanding heights in the neighbourhood. He further enquires as to the strength of the garrison, and the number of officers; whether the governor suspects that a regular siege is intended: whether he expects succours, supplies of stores and ammunition, and from what quarter he is to be furnished; finally, whether the fortifications be in good repair, and the place equal to a defence. At night he sends out advanced parties, with directions to bioac within musket shot of the town, and takes especial care always to post strong parties in those places and avenues by which succours and supplies might be easily conveyed to the garrison. He has likewise the precaution to have different small guards, or out-lying and in-lying pickets, both in his front and rear, to prevent surprizes. On these occasions, the detachments are formed, half on foot, and half mounted; those on foot constantly remaining at their horses' heads, bridle in hand. These detachments are on the alert during the whole of the night, and only one half of the number is suffered to repose during the day. Whenever the commanding officer has received intelligence of the approach of a body of troops to relieve the garrison, he must make his dispositions in such a manner as to give them battle, before they get sufficiently near to throw themselves into the town, in scattered and divided parties. Great caution, however, must be observed under these circumstances, not to advance too far, lest it should only prove a feint on the enemy's part, in order to induce him to weaken some of his posts; and by taking advantage of their absence, to throw some succours into the town.

As the principal, indeed the only object which the lieutenant general can have, is to prevent any assistance being given to the garrison, whilst he invests the place, he must always be on horseback; he must incessantly visit the different posts, thoroughly reconnoitre the country, and minutely examine those quarters through which succours or supplies might be conveyed to the garrison, or which offer advantageous positions for his own troops to occupy. During the investment of the town, it will be his duty to collect all the intelligence and information he can, respecting the state of the works, and the adjacent points, in order to communicate fully with the general in chief, when he brings up the besieging army, and to put him in full possession of every thing, which may facilitate the object of his enterprise.

The chief engineers should always accompany the lieutenant general who is entrusted with the investing of a town, in order to get the necessary knowledge of the place before-hand, and to understand how the lines of circumvallation, &c. should be drawn three or four days before the main army arrives; they should, moreover, make several rounds, for the purpose of reconnoitring. These measures will conduct a great deal towards
wards a wise and effectual method of investing the place. To accomplish these ends, a correct plan of the town must be procured. This plan must be reduced, and a rough sketch taken of every thing within half a league of the circumference of the town; after which a small chart may be drawn of the lines, &c. which are to be made for the purpose of carrying on the siege. This must be done in concert with the lieutenant general, who ought to know better than any body what the order of battle will be, how much ground is to be occupied by the different brigades and regiments, and what the relative detail of the whole army will require.

From the day on which a town is invested, every thing is thrown into motion. The train of artillery is directed to be brought out with necessary stores and ammunition, and proper carriages, with their drivers, are impressed; every department, in a word, performs its allotted duty, and the board of ordinance, as well as the commissary general's office become subservient to the orders that are issued by the general in chief.

Whilst the necessary measures are adopted for the close investing of the town, the main army approaches by forced marches, and generally arrives before the place five or six days after it has been invested. The lieutenant general, or officer commanding the investing army goes out to meet the main body, when it is within half a league of the place, and communicates with the general: who, in consequence of the report he makes, gives directions respecting the line of circumvallation, &c.

For further particulars on this article, see Traite de l'Attaque des Places par le Marechal Vauban recue, &c. F. P. Poissac Chef de Brigade au Corps du Genie de la Republique Francaise, vol. 1. page 69.

INVESTISSEMENT. (A French word, which is strictly military. The celebrated Vauban has erroneously used investiture to signify the same thing.) The act of investing any town or place in such a manner as to prevent the garrison or inhabitants from receiving succours or provisions.

INVINCIBLE, not to be overcome or conquered.

Les INVINCIBLES, Fr. a French regiment which accompanied Bonaparte when he invaded Egypt, and which had distinguished itself in several battles, during that general's campaigns in Italy. It was completely routed (leaving its famous standard in the field,) on the 21st of March, 1801, and at last surrendered, with the rest of the army, to General, now Lord Hutchinson, who had succeeded Sir Ralph Abercrombie in the command of the British troops.

To INUNDATE, in a military sense, is to overflow any part of a country, in order to prevent an enemy from advancing. Holland is particularly calculated for this species of defence.

INUNDATION. The act of letting water into a country, so that it shall be overflowed, to prevent the approach of an enemy.

In the Instruction addressée aux officiers d'Infanterie pour tracer et construire toutes sortes d'Ouvrages de Campagne, &c. par A. P. I. Belair, Chef de Brigade, may be found some very sensible observations on the means of making inundations to answer military purposes, see page 119, &c. Chapitre Huitiéme, Moyens de faire des Inondations. We likewise refer our military readers to the Elements de Fortification, published by the same author, see pages 75, 82, 83, and 84. In page 294 of his Dictionnaire Militaire, some excellent observations upon the same subject may be seen under the article Architecture hydraulique.

INVULNERABLES. During the American war, certain corps of loyalists were so called by the British.

INVULNERABLES aux armées. See MONT-PAGNOTE.

JOAR, Ind. A general massacre of the women and children, which is sometimes performed by the Hindoes, when they find they cannot prevent the enemy from taking the town. When this dreadful and unnatural ceremony is to take place, a spot is selected, which is filled with wood, straw, oil, &c. the victims are enclosed, and the whole is set on fire.

To JOIN. A technical word used in the British service, generally signifying to effect the junction of one military body with another. In a more limited sense, it means the accession of an individual
dividual voluntarily, or otherwise, to a corps or army. If an officer, on being ordered to join, omits to do so wilfully, he is liable to be tried by a general court-martial, or to be peremptorily suspended or dismissed by his Majesty, for being absent without leave.

JOINT BELTS. See BELTS.

JOLS, Fr. Barges so called, are used in Denmark, and sometimes by the Russians.

JONCTION, Fr. See JUNCTION.

JONCTION de corps militaires, Fr. The junction or assemblage of several military corps, so as to form one body, and thereby constitute an army.

JOODAY PERRAPUT, Ind. A term used in India to signify a slave taken in war.

JOOMAN, Ind. Friday so called in India.

JOUE! Fr. a word of command in the French service, answering to Present!

Coucher en Jouz, Fr. To aim with a musquet, or other fire-arm, which is used as such—as je l'avais déjà couché en jouz, I had already taken my aim at him.

JOUER, Fr. In a military sense to put into motion or state of action.—Hence faire jouer la mine—To spring a mine. The French also say familiarly, jouer des couteaux—To fight sword in hand. It literally signifies to fight with knives.

JOUES d'une embrasure, Fr. The two sides of the epaulement in fortification, which form the opening of the embrasure from its utmost point of elevation to the genouillère.

JOVES, Fr. The two sides in the epaulement of a battery which form the embrasure, are so called.

JOUR, Fr. The tour of duty which is done in the course of a day and night.

Etre de Jour. To be officer of the day, or to command a body of troops at a siege, or otherwise in the capacity of a general officer, &c. The usual time was 24 hours, at the expiration of which another officer undertook the duty, and was relieved by one of his own rank.—See Officer of the day.

Ordre du Jour, Fr. Orders. See General Orders.

JOURNAL Militaire, Fr. A public record or general orderly book, which was formerly kept in the French service, and in which every transaction that occurred during a siege was entered by the governor of the town, for the future inspection of a superior authority. The general officer who carried on the siege of a place, likewise kept a document of the sort, and minutely down every thing that happened under his command. So that the journal which was kept in this manner was a circumstantial detail of what occurred, day after day, during the attack and defence of a town.

JOURNAL de l'armée, Fr. See Returns.

JOURNÉE, Fr. A term used among the French, to express any particular engagement or battle, as la journée de Marengo, the battle of Marengo. We frequently adopt the word day in the same sense: thus a hard fought day signifies a hard fought battle.

JOUTE, Fr. A close fight between two individuals. It likewise means an engagement at sea.

JOUTER, faire des joutes, Fr. To run a tilt at one another with lances.

JOUST. See JUST.

JOYEUSE, Fr. The sword of Charlemagne was so called by the French; in which sense joyeuse probably meant lucky, fortunate.

IRAN, Ind. Persia.

IRENARCH, (Irenarque, Fr.) An officer, so called in the old Grecian empire, irenarcha prefectus pacis. His principal duty was to preserve public tranquillity, and his functions were nearly similar to those of the French prévots de maréchaussée, or police magistrates. We read in the Justinian code of laws, that the irenarchs were sent into the different provinces, for the purpose of preserving peace and good order. They were therefore invested with authority to take cognizance of all crimes and misdemeanours, and to punish the delinquents. There was likewise an irenarch established in every town, to settle the disputes and differences which might arise between the inhabitants, and to secure public tranquillity. This person was anciently called prefectus urbis. The office of irenarch was abolished under the Emperors Theodosius and Honorius, it having latterly been found more productive of evil than good. The word itself is derived from the Greek, and signifies Prince of Peace.
ISS

IRON Guns. See GUNS.
IRONs. See Priming IRONS.
Iron, (ferr, Fr.) letters, or instruments made of iron, with which a prisoner is shackled.
To be put in IRONS, (être mis aux ferr, Fr.) to be handcuffed and confined in fetters.
IRREGULAR Fortification. See Fortification.
ISLAUD, Ind. A term to express slow music among the Indians.
ISLE OF WIGHT. This place, as subject to the militia laws, differs from the other counties in England in one material instance, viz. that the governor has the power of appointing the officers and deputy lieutenants, without transmitting their names to the secretary of state for his Majesty's pleasure. Their qualifications, &c. are the same as those in Wales. The militia, however, when embodied, or assembled for annual exercise, is to be deemed a part of the militia of the county of Southampton, and is to be raised in the same manner. It is to continue in the island, unless it be otherwise ordered by his Majesty.
ISOCELES, a triangle having only two sides which are equal.
ISOLE, Fr. This word is used among the French, to express any body or thing which is detached from another. It is variously applied in fortification. Thus a pavilion or barrack which is not joined to any other wall or building is called isolé, because it stands alone, and a person may walk entirely round it. A parapet is also said to be isolé, when there is an interval of four or five feet between the rampart and its wall; which interval serves as a path for the rounds.
ISOPERIMETRICAL Figures.—(Figures Isopérimétriques, Fr.) A term derived from the Greek to express all figures that have equal circumferences or perimeters.
ISSUE, event; consequence; the ultimate result of any undertaking; the termination of any contest.
General ISSUE. In matters of litigation with respect to the militia, it is enacted by the 36th of the King, that if any action shall be brought against any person or persons, for any thing done in pursuance of that act, such action or suit shall be commenced within six months next after the fact commit-
mitted, and not afterwards, and shall be laid in the county or place where the cause of complaint did arise, and not elsewhere; and the defendant or defendants in every such action or suit may plead the general issue, and give this act and the special matter in evidence at any trial to be had thereupon: and if the jury shall find for the defendant or defendants in any such action or suit, or if the plaintiff or plaintiffs shall be non-suited, or discontinue his or their action or suit after the defendant or defendants shall have appeared; or if upon demurrer judgment shall be given against the plaintiff or plaintiffs, the defendant or defendants shall have treble costs, and have the like remedy for the same, as any defendant hath in other cases to recover costs by law.
ISSUES, In military finance, certain sums of money which are, at stated periods, given to public accountants for public service; and for the honest distribution of which, every individual so entrusted is responsible to Parliament.
Regimental ISSUES. Monies paid by regimental agents, acting under the authority of their respective colonels, for regimental purposes; the latter being accountable to the public for the proper distribution of all such monies, and the former being subject to specific rules and regulations which come from the secretary at war.
No clerk belonging to the war department can issue money to a regimental agent, or to any other person, without the express order and authority of the Secretary.
Balances of regiments cannot be struck within three months after the expiration of the year, as the paymasters affect to say, that it is not in their power to collect their contingent disbursements before that period. This argument, or rather excuse, is totally unfounded.
The recruiting branch of service is similar to that of the pay of regiments, and is comprehended under the following heads:
Increased rates to innkeepers both in quarters and on the march, under two distinct heads; bounty or levy money.
The secretary at war, in the first instance, advances to the regimental agent a sum of money to enable the officer or officers to commence recruit-
ing. This money must be accounted for by a regular return of the number of men who have been enlisted, before any more will be issued. The officer or officers on the recruiting service send their several accounts of monies paid or disbursed to the agent, who makes out a general return from the whole, and lays the same before the secretary at war, who orders a further sum to be issued to the agent; being governed by the prospect of success which may appear on the several returns already given in. When the levy is called in, or completed, each officer employed upon the recruiting service makes up his separate account. This account is accompanied by the attestations of the different recruits, as indispensable vouchers, from which the regimental agent makes out a general account, and transmits the same to the secretary at war; nor is any thing allowed which is not confirmed or accompanied by a specific voucher for each charge against the public; the attestations answering for the amount of bounty. From these several documents, the secretary at war is enabled to form his army estimates, &c. which are annually laid before the House of Commons.

With respect to the issue of regimental monies, the following particulars relate to that head.—If the regiment is at home, the paymaster sends in to the secretary at war an estimate every month, for the sum which will be wanted for that month, ending the 24th inclusive. This estimate consists of pay to officers, issued both by regimental paymasters, agents, and district paymasters for the recruiting service: pay for non-commissioned officers and privates, (if for cavalry, pay of horses) increased rates to inn-keepers, extra-allowance for bread, ditto for meat, (when the price exceeds a given sum per lb.) contingencies, levy-money. The total amount of these several heads is issued on the 25th of every month to the agent, to enable him to answer the drafts of the respective persons for the current month; and on the first of the following month the agents send in a state of the drafts of their respective paymasters, together with such vouchers as may have been delivered for payments made to officers in their agency; as also such contingent charges as may have been paid by them. The regimental paymaster is, of course, supposed to have transmitted, by this time, his general pay-list for the same period; and from this list, compared with the agent's account, it is immediately ascertained what sum may be left in the agent's hands, or disbursement made; as each month is brought forward under its respective head, with a general total of the whole sum that has been issued.—Should the agent have advanced more than he has received, he then makes a formal application to the secretary at war for the sum so advanced, under whatever head or heads of service it may really appear. All issues are now made according to specific estimates which are given in to the secretary at war. They were formerly granted on the application of a regimental agent; by which ill-judged system every colonel in the army, having a regiment, might have been ruined, as he was always at the mercy of his agent, especially if he was incautious enough to omit taking ample security.

**Issues.** Fr. outlets or passages from a fortified town, place, or camp.

**Isthmus,** (Isthme, Fr.) a neck of land which joins the peninsula to the Continent, and which separates two seas.

**Itinéraires,** Fr. Itinerary movements or days of march. A technical phrase among the French to denote the order and disposition which a body of men, or an army, is directed to observe in its march from one camp to another, or to any particular quarter of destination.

**Itmamdár,** Ind. a superintendent or lieutenant-governor in India.

JUDGES are authorized to take judicial notice of the Articles of War. Mutiny Act, Sect. 18.

**Juge-Martial,** or Advocate-General, the supreme judge in martial law as to the jurisdiction and powers of military courts. It is incumbent upon this person, as well as upon his deputies, to be well acquainted with the laws of the land, that they may admonish the court or president when their proceedings are tending to infringe the civil law. He is register of courts-martial, and should take down the evidence in the very words of the witness. He is neither a judge nor a juror as to the charge.

**Juge,** Fr. a sort of judge or provost.
vost marshal. This term was particularly applicable to the interior government of the Swiss guards that were in the service of France. Each regiment of that description had one judge or provost marshal per company, and one superior to the rest, who presided over the regiment. The inferior judge was called richter, and the grand or superior judge obster richter. The inferior judges had the examination of petty crimes and offences which they reported to the captain of the company. If the crimes were of a serious or heinous nature, the inferior judges drew up a specific statement of them, and laid the whole before the obster richter, who communicated the circumstance to the colonel. Grounds for a general court-martial were generally established out of the latter report.

**JUGEMENS Militaires,** Fr. the cognizance which is taken, and the sentences that are passed, for military offences.

**JUGES Militaires,** Fr. See Juge.

**JUGG,** Ind. an Indian sacrifice.

**JUGGUT GROW,** Ind. an Indian term which signifies guardian of mankind.

**JUMBAUN,** Ind. in Indian music, means, shake.

**JUMBOO DEEP,** Ind. A word particularly used to signify India; it is derived from jumbo or jumbook, a jackal, and deep, any large portion of land which is surrounded by the sea. The inhabitants of India were so called before the introduction of the Tartar governments.

**JUMMA KERCH,** Ind. An account, stating the receipt and expenditure of the revenue.

**JUNCAN,** Ind. a toll or duty on every thing that passes.

**JUNGLE,** an Indian term for a wood, or woody country. It likewise means high grass, reeds, or thicket.

**JURISDICTION,** legal authority, extent of power. Officers not being liable to be tried by garrison or regimental courts-martial, may appeal from the jurisdiction of such courts; as may non-commissioned officers and soldiers in cases where their pay is concerned.

**JUST,** a sportive combat on horseback, man against man, armed with lances; called also Joust, Tilt, Tournament, &c.

**JUSTICES.** Military men are, in many instances, under the necessity of applying to justices in order to execute their several orders and instructions without infringing upon the civil authorities; and justices on their side are bound to aid and assist the military in conformity to established laws and regulations. As the functions of these gentlemen seem specifically pointed out in militia acts, and every thing relating to the army is comprised under the different heads, we shall give the following brief abstract for the information of military men in general.

Justices are directed to grant warrants for impressing carriages for the use of the regular army and militia, when any part of either of those establishments is on its march. They may grant warrants for the apprehending of deserters, and must pay 20s. to the person who brings a deserter, and has him sworn in before them.

They may billet officers and men upon the different public-houses, and when the militia is disembodied, they provide in the same manner for that establishment, during the annual exercise. With regard to the militia, it is the peculiar province of each justice to order costs for making distress on quakers for rates for raising volunteers, and to grant warrants in general for levying by distress the regulated rates under that head. They may likewise determine disputes respecting wages under 20l. between masters and their servants, who have been enrolled as militia-men, and may order the same to be levied by distress. They may likewise order relief to be given to disabled militia-men, &c. and may commit militia-men for not paying the penalty they might have incurred for selling their arms, and either commit the purchasers of them, or cause them to be whipped at the cart's tail, &c.

At the quarter session after Christmas in every year, justices are to assess 3l. per man on every place that does not return an annual state of its militia when disembodied; and at Midsummer quarter session they are to order the overseers of the poor to certify the quota paid to the land tax by places not rated to the county rate, and which have not paid their assessments for not having raised their militia.
KABBADE or CABADE, Fr. A military dress which is worn by the modern Greeks. According to Tzetzes it derives its name from Cabades, a Persian king. Codinus, on the other hand, asserts, that the Greeks in Constantinople adopted it in imitation of the Assyrians. Others again maintain, that it owes its appellation to the resemblance which it bears to a Greek letter. Father Goar, the author, very justly ridicules this etymology. We are, however, authorized to say, that be the derivation of the word what it may, the dress itself consists of a short garment which was worn underneath another. It had not any folds, but sat close to the body, being buttoned with large buttons, and reaching down to the calves of the legs. It was fringed round the edges, and was usually worn with a girdle; such is the description which Father Goar has given of the kabbades in his notes upon Codinus. He concludes by observing, that in his opinion it is what the Romans called sagum, and the modern Greeks afterwards corrupted into kabbade.

KABEL-JAUW, Fr. a name formerly given to a faction in the low countries, which constantly opposed the Houchiens.

KAJANA, Ind. a collection of treasures under the immediate control of a Jaghirdar, or military chief, in the Indian empire. This treasure, to use the words of the editor of the Asiatic Register, consists of specie and jewels, which are lodged in a secret depository within the walls of a strong fortress, often erected for the purpose, on one of the most inaccessible mountains in the dominions of a Marhatta prince.

KAK TOWDA, Ind. fine mould

KAKAR

Military Justice, (Justice militaire, Fr.) That species of justice which prevails in the army, and corresponds with the Articles of War.

K

beat strongly in between two walls, for the purpose of shooting arrows into, when the walls are taken away.

KALAI, a term used among the Turks to signify fort or fortress; a species of defence which they particularly adopt when they construct their Palanchus.

KALEE, Ind. an Hindoo deity, to whom human beings are sacrificed.

KALLAAT or KELAUT, Ind. a dress which is given to any person invested with a new office.

KALMUCS, (Kalmouques, Fr.) This word is generally written Calmucs. They are wandering tribes of Tartars, who inhabit the parts north of the Caspian sea. These hordes frequently put themselves under the protection of the court of Russia. A French writer describes the Kalmucs to be a sort of militia, which is established between Siberia and the Caspian sea. There are generally some regiments of them attached to the Russian armies in common with the Cossacks. They are armed with a lance iron pointed, about six feet long, and carry a bow with a quiver upon their backs, containing ten arrows. They never serve on foot, and are only formidable by name.

KALSA, Ind. the king, the head.

KALSA CUTFHERY, Ind. the room of business, where the king sits in person.

KAM, (Kam, Fr.) an elective prince belonging to one family, who has full power over the small states of Tartary; subject only to the Grand Signor.

KAN, an officer in Persia, who is invested with the same powers that are entrusted to an European governor.

KANAUTS, Ind. a term used in India, to express the walls of a canvas tent.

KARKI-MESRAC, a sort of lance
or javelin used by the Turks in Asia, and by the cavalry called Crepically and Seraculy.

KATA, the Indian name for China. KATIK, an Indian month, which, in some measure, coincides with our month of October.

KAULAUBHAIEEE, the Indian term for message.

KAYMETAN. See SEYMEY-BASSY.

KECHERKLECHI, guards attached to the person of the king of Persia; they are armed with a musquet of an extraordinary size and caliber. They were raised and formed into a regular corps about the middle of the last century.

KEELS, the long boats in which the Saxons successfully invaded England were so called.

KEEP, in ancient military history, a kind of strong tower which was built in the center of a castle or fort, to which the besieged retreated and made their last efforts of defense. Of this description is the keep of Windsor Castle.

King's KEEP, a fort built by King Henry II. in the interior part of Dover Castle is so called.

To KEEP off, in a military sense, is either to deter your enemy from approaching close to the lines or fortifications by inducing him to suspect a superior force, an ambuscade, or a mine, or by openly galling his advanced posts in such a manner as to beat him in detail. Infantry may keep off cavalry by hot firing, or by a compact intrepid direction of the bayonet.

To KEEP up, in military movements, is to preserve that regular pace, by which a line or column, on a march, or in maneuvering, advances towards any given point without any chasms or fluctuations. When a regiment marches by files, it is almost impossible for the rear to keep up. On this account, divisions, subdivisions, and even sections, are best calculated to preserve a regular depth and continuity of march.

To KEEP up, likewise signifies to attend to the interior management and discipline of a corps, so as to prevent the least deviation from established rules and regulations. Thus commanding officers are said to keep up good order and discipline, who (whether absent or present) provide against the least insubordination, &c.

To KEEP up a heavy fire, is to play with heavy ordnance against a fortified place, or body of men, by a calm and well-directed succession of shot. In musquetry firing, officers commanding battalions, divisions, or platoons, should be very exact in giving the word in order to keep up the different firings.

KEERAY, Ind. expenses, charges.

KENT. It is the peculiar duty of the county lieutenant, or of three deputy lieutenants belonging to this county, to issue orders to the chief constables of the several hundreds to send out precepts to the churchwardens or overseers to return a list of men liable to serve. The churchwardens and overseers of the county of Kent are, by act of parliament, invested with the powers of constables, to put in force the militia acts.

KENTASSI, a range of mountains in Thibet, in which are the sources of the Ganges. This river, formed from several sources, passes successively two great lakes, and flows to the west, until the opposition of a part of the Indian Caucasus turns it to the south, and having completed in these various directions a course of two hundred leagues, it enters India by forcing its passage through the mountains of the frontier.

KERAN, a long trumpet, similar in shape and size to the speaking trumpet. The Persians use it whenever they wish to make any extraordinary noise, and they frequently blow it with hautboys, kettle drums, and other instruments at sunset, and two hours after midnight.

KEREEF, Ind. one of the two seasons into which the year is divided in India.

KERIMCHARRY, Ind. an inferior officer under the Zemindar, who collects from the villages, and keeps the accounts.

KERN. The Irish infantry were formerly distinguished by this appellation. The men in those days were armed with a sword, and a dart or javelin, which was tied to a small cord, so that, after they had thrown it at the enemy, they could instantly recover it, and use it in any way they thought proper. The javelin was called skene.

KERUI, Ind. a village or parish.

KETELE,
KEY  KIL

KETTLE, a vessel used to boil composition for fire-works.

KETTLE-DRUMS. See DRUMS.

KETTLE-drum cart, a four wheel carriage which is drawn by four horses, and is used exclusively by the royal artillery.

The ordnance flag is planted on the fore part, and the drummer with two kettle drums is seated, as in a chair of state, on the back part. This cart is finely engraved and richly gilt. It has not been in the field since the year 1743, when the King was present. It is kept in the tower.

KEY, in a general sense, is an instrument with which locks are opened.

KEYS, in artillery carriages, may be considered under three specific heads, viz.

Fore-lock KEYS, which serve to pass through the lower end of bolts, in order to fasten them.

Spring KEYS may be used in the same manner, but are differently made, for instead of being of one single piece, they are of two, like two springs laid one over the other. When they are put into eye-bolts, they are pinched together at the ends, and when they are in, they open again; so that the motion of the carriage cannot disturb or shake them out. Spring keys are peculiarly useful in travelling carriages.

KEYS with chains and staples fixed on the side pieces of a carriage or mortar bed. They serve to fasten the cap squares by passing through the eyes of the eye-bolts.

KEY STONE, in architecture, is the middle stone of an arch, by which the sweep of an arch is bound together.

KEY, is also used in a figurative sense, to signify any important outlet of a kingdom. Thus Luxemburgh is called the key of the German empire towards France. The French use the word in the same sense, Calais est une des clés de la France, Calais is one of the keys of France. Dover may also be so called, with respect to England. KEY also means a haven for ships to ride in. See QUAY.

Gold KEY, (cléf d'or, Fr.) a key which is worn by the lords of the bed-chamber in England, and in most European courts.

KEYSERLICKS, or Imperialists, the Austrian troops are frequently called so. The term was indeed common among the British soldiers, when they did duty together, and invaded France in 1794. It is derived from keyser, which in German signifies emperor.

KHAN, Ind. signifies lord or chief-tain. This title is given by the king of Delhi, for which it is supposed, the person maintains 250 horse soldiers, which he commands and disciplines for the king's service.

KEET, Ind. a fortified city, which is four coss or English miles in length and breadth, and not so much as eight.

KHODA, Ind. God.

KHODADAUD SIRCAR, Ind. Tip-po Sultaun, the sovereign of the kingdom of Mysore, who fell in defence of his capital, Serungputtan, or Seringspatam, when it was stormed, May the 4th, 1799, by the British forces under the command of lieutenant general Harris.

KID. This appellation was formerly given to any person that was trepanned by kidnappers.

KIDNAPPER, a man who by improper means decoys the unwary into the king's service.

KIEU, the Indian term for any bridge under which water flows.

To KILL, (Tuer, Fr.) To deprive of life. A power arrogated by the strong over the weak, without any other principle to justify it than the usage of mankind.

To KILL according to law, to take away life in consequence of judicial investigation, and for a breach of some known rule. Under these circumstances the execution of the culprit takes place in open day-light.

To KILL privately, and with malice prepense, to murder in the dark or by secret means. Hence, to assassinate, which is derived from the word assassins; a modern term, taken from a set of miscreants who formerly inhabited a part of Asia, and were under a petty prince called the Old Man of the Mountain. This man, according to Hume, had acquired such an ascendant over his fanatical subjects, that they paid the most implicit deference to his commands; esteemed assassination meritorious when sanctified by his mandate;
date; courted danger, and even certain death, in the execution of his order; and fancied, that when they sacrificed their lives for his sake, the highest joys of Paradise were the infallible reward of their devoted obedience.

The greatest Monarchs stood in awe of this prince of the Assassins, (for that was the name of his people) whence the word has passed into most European languages.) vol. II. Hume's History of England, p. 18.

KILLA, Ind. a castle, fort, or fortress.

KILLADAR, Ind. the governor or commandant of a fort.

KIND, (genre, sorte, Fr.) natural state or condition of any thing.

In KIND, (en espèce; en nature, Fr.) as the thing is. Thus in military distributions, rations are ordered to be supplied in KIND, (en nature) and not paid for or compounded in money.

KINDALAHS, a vagabond, outcast set of people in India, originally belonging to the Hindoo tribe. By such proscription and disgrace are these miserable creatures marked, that the people of other casts not only will not visit them, but if any one of them should presume to approach a person of the Navr tribe, it is lawful for the latter to put him to instant death.

To KINDLE, in a military sense, is to excite mankind to arms. To kindle the flames of war is a familiar expression.

The KING, a person in whom a supreme or qualified authority is vested by the consent of a nation. The chief magistrate, and one of the three integral parts of the British constitution.

In a military acceptance of the term, the King of Great Britain is constitutionally, and in his own proper right, captain-general of the British army, the primary source from which all appointments in it are derived, and the last resort of naval and military jurisdiction. With him, as principal magistrate in the state, and head of the executive power, all the arrangements of the British army finally rest, as from him they primarily issued. From him all the effective forces derive energy and effect, and when war has been declared, to him only does the army look for the immediate application and general exercise of its powers, through the medium of the ministers he appoints, who are responsible to parliament for the manner in which the authority they have received has been executed. English kings have sometimes fought at the head of their armies, and the next heir to the crown has often exposed himself in common with his father’s subjects, to all the casualties of war.

The KING is supreme head of the militia, and has the power of appointing or dismissing lieutenants of counties. His majesty may likewise order three deputy lieutenants to act, when the lieutenant is abroad, or when there is a vacancy. He may join independent companies into a battalion, or incorporate them with any other regiment; and by him only can adjutants be appointed to act in the militia. If they are selected from the regular army, they preserve their rank, and their new commission bears the sign manual.

In case of an invasion or rebellion, the King has the power to order the county lieutenants to embody the militia, and to put it under general officers from the regular army. On these occasions he may issue a proclamation for the meeting of parliament in fourteen days.

KING at Arms. See HERALD.

KIOSQUE, Fr. a sort of garden pavilion which is open on all sides. It is used in the Levant, particularly in Turkey, and at Constantinople.

KISSELBACHES, Ind. soldiers are so called in India.

KIST, Ind. the amount of a stated payment.

KISTYBUNDY, the Indian term for a monthly payment.

KIT, in laboratory works, a composition, made of rosin 9lb, pitch 6lb, beeswax 6lb, and tallow 1lb. used for the last covering of carcasses. In order to apply it properly, it must first be broken into small pieces, and put into an iron pot over the fire, where it must be kept in agitation until it be thoroughly dissolved. When rendered very hot, and completely liquid, it may be used.

KIT is likewise used among dragoons, to signify their lot of necessaries, which is packed up in a very small compass. The term has found its way in the infantry, and frequently means the contents of a soldier’s knapsack.

KITSBUNDY, a contract or agreement
ment for the discharge of any debt or obligation by stated payments.

KLINKETS, in fortification, are small gates made through palisades for the purpose of sallying.

KNAPSACK, a rough leather or canvas bag, which is strapped to an infantry soldier's back when he marches, and which contains his necessaries. Square knapsacks are supposed to be most convenient. They should be made with a division to hold the shoes, blacking-balls and brushes, separate from the linen. White goat-skins are sometimes used, but we do not conceive them to be equal to the painted canvas ones. Soldiers in the British service, are put under stoppages for the payment of their knapsacks, which, after six years, become their property. See list of necessaries, according to the last regulations, under the article NECESSARIES.

KNAPSACK, is said to have been originally so called from the circumstance of a soldier making use of a sack, which had been full of corn, &c. In those days there were no roads, and every thing was carried on packhorses. When the soldiers reposed, they hung up the empty sacks and slept in them. The word should be napsack, from napping, &c.—to slumber. The army was supplied by packhorses, and all things were in sacks, so that every soldier had his sack. Such is the account given to us by a very worthy and respectable friend; but we are inclined to think, that knapsack comes from the Saxon word Snapsack, a bag to carry food.

KNAVE, for its military acceptation, see INFANTRY.

KNIGHT, a person who, on account of some eminent service, civil or military, is singled out from the common class of gentlemen, &c. and is personally invested with a title. This word, which was originally derived from the German and Dutch knecht or knecht, signifies a servant, in which sense it is applied when we speak of the knight of a shire; it likewise means a military man, or rather a horseman, from the Latin eques, a soldier, or horseman; knighthood of this description having been either the king's domestic servants, or of his life-guards.

In common law they are called milites, usually holding lands by knight's service, to serve the king in his wars.

KNOT, the wing or epaulette, which is commonly made of worsted, of a non-commissioned officer or corporal. When sergeants and corporals are sentenced to be reduced to the ranks, the knot is generally cut off by the drum-major in the presence of the battalion, as a mark of infamy.

KNORTS, the division of the log-line. Each knot is equal to an English mile.

KNOT, a Russian punishment.

KOHIISTAN, Ind. properly means a province. It likewise signifies a rocky or mountainous country.

KOLLEE Jogue, Ind. is the fourth of the four aeras or periods of Indian chronology. It is the present aera, in which all mankind are corrupted, or rather lessened; it is supposed to be ordained to subsist four hundred thousand years, of which near five thousand are already expired, and the life of man, in that period is limited to one hundred years. Colonel Dow says this age is to last thirty-six thousand years: the age which preceded it, is called the davapaar jogue.

KOOLOO, Ind. the cocoa-tree.

KOONAR, an Indian month, which partly coincides with our month of September.

KOONCHY, Ind. a measure of about eight handfuls.

KOONWUR, Ind. prince, highness.

KOREISH, Ind. an Arabian tribe.

KORTCHI-BACHI, the chief or commanding officer of the Kortchis. In former times he was the first military character in Persia, at present he is only the second in command. He never leaves the court except upon extraordinary occasions, when his presence is required at the army. This, however, rarely happens, as the king is obliged to furnish him with an household service of plate, and to detach a part of his own guards for the protection of his person. The Kortchi Bachi is generally entrusted with one of the chief governments belonging to Persia.

KORTCHIS, a body of Persian cavalry, which is stationed along the frontiers of the country. Every individual belonging to this corps, receives fifty crowns for his annual pay. The children of the Kortchis succeed their fathers, with the consent and approbation of the general. The Kortchis are descended from a race of foreigners, who used
used to live under tents, and were always distinguished for their courage.

KOSACKS, (Kosaways, Fr.) See COSACKS.

KOTIE, Ind. a warehouse.

KOULIE, Ind. a courier, a porter.

KOULS, a corps of Persian soldiers who rank as a third body among the five that constitute the king's household troops; they mount guard under the portico which stands between the first and second gate leading to the palace. The Kouls are men of birth and rank; no person can arrive at any considerable post or situation, who has not served among the Kouls. Their number is computed at 4000 men.

KOULS-AGASI, a distinguished military character in Persia, who has the command of a body of men called Kouls. He is usually governor of a considerable province.

KOURIE, Ind. a sea-shell used as money in many parts of India.

KOYAL, Ind. a weighman.

KOYALEE, Ind. fees for weighing.

KRAMA, Ind. wooden sandals which are worn by the natives of India during the wet season.

KUFFEET, Ind. an Indian term for security.

KUL, the Turkish word for slave to the prince. The grand vizier, the baches, the beiglerbeys, and all persons who receive pay or subsistence from situations dependant upon the crown, are so called. This title is in high estimation among the Turkish military, as it authorizes all who are invested with it, to insult, strike, and otherways ill use the common people, without being responsible for the most flagrant breaches of humanity. Horrid pre-eminence, and fitted only to Mahometan civilization!

KULLUR, the governor of a fortified town in Turkey is so called.

KULLUSTAUNS, Ind. Christians.

KUNDNEE, Ind. a sum of money which is annually paid by an inferior governor to his superior.

KUPEELE, Straights so called in India, through which the Ganges disembogues itself into Indostan. They are distant from Delhi about 30 leagues, in the longitude of 96, and in the latitude of 30. 2. These straights are believed by the Indians, who look very little abroad, to be the sources of the Ganges; and a rock 15 miles distant from them, bearing some resemblance to the head of a cow, has joined in the same part of the kingdom, two very important objects of their religion: the grand image of the animal which they almost venerate as a divinity, and the first appearance of that immense body of holy water which washes away all their sins. It was at these straights that the Indians made some shew of resistance, when the famous Tamerlane invaded India. The field of this victory is the most distant term of that Emperor's conquests in India and on the globe. See Dissertation on the establishments made by Mahomedan Conquerors in Indostan, in Orme's History of the Carnatic, page 14 and 15.

KURROL, Ind. the advanced guard of a main army.

KURTCHI, a militia is so called in Persia. It consists of one body of cavalry, which is composed of the first nobility belonging to the kingdom, and of the lineal descendants of the Turkish conquerors, who placed Ismael Sophi on the throne. They wear a red turban, made of particular stuff into twelve folds. This turban was originally given them by Ismael, in consideration of their attachment to the religion and family of Ali. The twelve folds are in remembrance of the twelve Imaus or Mahometan preachers who descended in a direct line from Ali, and distinguished themselves so much in that sect. The turban is red, for the purpose of provoking those who wear it to avenge upon the Ottomans, the deaths of Ali and Hussein, who were murdered by the chief of Sunnis, to whose sect the Turks belong. In consequence of their wearing this turban, the Persians are always called by the Turks Kitiil-Baschi or Red-heads. The noblemen in Persia have adopted the term, with a slight alteration, and call themselves Kesil-Baschis or Golden-Heads. The Kurtchi form a body of nearly eighteen thousand men. The chief or commanding officer is called Kurtchi-Baschi. This was formerly the most distinguished situation in the kingdom, and the authority annexed to it was equal to what the constable of France originally possessed. At present...
sent his power does not extend beyond the Kurchis.

KUSH-BASCHII, Ind. persons who enjoy lands rent-free, upon condition of serving government in a military capacity when called upon. The term also signifies people of middling circumstances, who do not cultivate their lands themselves, but hire servants to do it while they hold other employments.

KUTTY, Ind. Closets.

KUVVAUS, Ind. servants attending on the King's person.

KUZANA, Ind. a treasury.

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LAAK, Ind. One hundred thousand.

LABARUM, a celebrated standard which was used among the Roman emperors, and frequently means any imperial or royal standard. The original one, so called, consisted of a long lance, at the top of which was fixed a stick that crossed it at right angles, and from which hung a piece of rich scarlet cloth, that was sometimes ornamented with precious stones. Until the days of Constantine the Great, the figure of an eagle was placed upon the top of the labarum; but that prince substituted in its room a cross, with a cypher expressing the name of Jesus.

LABORATORY, (laboratoire, Fr.) signifies that place where all sorts of fireworks are prepared, both for actual service, and for pleasure, viz. quick-matches, fuses, portfires, grape-shot, case-shot, carcasses, hand-grenades, cartridges, shells filled, and fuses fixed, wads, &c. &c.

Aigrettes. See Mortars.

Balls are of various sorts, shapes and forms; as

Chain-shot, are two shot linked together by a strong chain of 8 or 10 inches long: they are more used on board men of war, than in the land service. The famous M. de Witt was the first inventor, about the year 1665.

Light-balls, of which there are several sorts: the best composition is mealed powder 2, sulphur 1, rosin 1, turpentine 1/4, and saltpetre 1/4. Then take tow, and mix and dip it in this composition, till of a proper size, letting the last coat be of mealed powder. Or take thick strong paper, and make a shell the size of the mortar you intend to throw it out of, and fill it with a composition of an equal quantity of sulphur, pitch, rosin and mealed powder; which being well mixed, and put in warm, will give a clear fire, and burn a considerable time.

The composition for filling balls that are intended to set fire to magazines is, mealed powder 10, saltpetre 2, sulphur 4, and rosin 1; or mealed powder 4, pounded glass 1, antimony 1/2, camphire 1/2, sal-ammoniac 1, common salt 1/4; or mealed powder 48, saltpetre 32, sulphur 16, rosin 4, steel or iron filings 2, fir-tree saw-dust boiled in saltpetre ley 2, and birchwood charcoal 1. With any of these compositions fill the sack, and ram it, if possible, as hard as a stone, putting in the opening a fuse, and about the same an iron ring 1-5th of the ball's diameter wide; and on the opposite end, another ring 1-6th of the ball's diameter; then with a strong cord of 1-4th of an inch diameter, lace round the hoops, or rings, from one end of the ball to the other, as often as is requisite; this is called the ribbed coat: then lace it again the contrary way, which is called the check coat.

Between each square cord, iron barrels are driven in, 1-3d of which are filled with powder, and a bullet; at the end of each a small vent is made, that the composition may inflame the powder, and drive the balls out on every side, which not only kill numbers of people, but prevent any one from extinguishing the fire-ball. When finished, they must be dipped in melted pitch, rosin, and turpentine oil; which composition fastens the whole together.

Smoke-balls, are made and contrived to give an uncommon smoke, and thereby prevent the enemy from seeing what you are about. They are prepared as above, only the composition must be 5 to 1 of pitch, rosin, and saw-dust; the
ingredients are put into iron shells, having 4 holes each, to let out the smoke, and are thrown out of mortars.

Stink-Poisoned-Red-hot-Chain-Stang-Anchor-

Balls. See Balls.

Message-Balls. See Shells.

Fire-Barrels are at present not much used: they were of different sorts; some mounted on two wheels. The inside of the barrel is loaded with powder, and the outside full of sharp iron points, intermixed with grenades loaded, and fuses fixed. Sometimes they are placed under ground, and made use of to annoy the enemy's approach.

Carcass, in military affairs, was formerly of an oval form, made of iron bars, and filled with a composition of mealed powder, saltpetre, sulphur, broken glass, shavings of horn, pitch, turpentine, tallow, and linseed oil, covered with a pitched cloth; it is primed with mealed powder and quick match, and fired out of a mortar. Its design is to set houses on fire, &c. See Carcass.

None but round carcasses are used at present, the flight of the oblong ones being so uncertain. The composition is, pitch 2, saltpetre 4, sulphur 1, and corned powder 3. When the pitch is melted, the pot is taken off, and the ingredients (well mixed) put in; then the carcass is filled with as much as can be pressed in.

Cartridges are made of various substances, such as paper, parchments, bladders, and flannel. When they are made of paper, the bottoms remain in the piece, and accumulate so much, that the priming cannot reach the powder; besides other inconveniences. When they are made of parchment or bladders, the fire shrivels them up, so that they enter into the vent, and become so hard, that the priming iron cannot remove them so as to clear the vent. Nothing has been found hitherto to answer better than flannel, which is the only thing used at present for artillery cartridges of all sorts; because it does not keep fire, and is therefore not liable to accidents in the loading: but, as the dust of powder passes through them, a parchment cover is sometimes made to put over them, which is taken off when used.

The best way of making flannel cartridges, is to boil the flannel in size; which will prevent the dust of powder from passing through, and render it stiff, and more manageable; for without this precaution cartridges are so pliable, on account of their size, and the quantity of powder they contain, that they are put into the piece with much difficulty.

The loading and firing guns with cartridges is done much sooner than with loose powder, and fewer accidents are likely to occur. The heads of cartridges, especially for musquetry, are sometimes wrapped in coarse cotton.

In quick firing, the shot is fixed to the cartridge by means of a wooden bottom, hollowed on one side so as to receive nearly half the shot, which is fastened to it by two small slips of tin crossing over the shot, and nailed to the bottom; and the cartridge is tied to the other end thereof. They are fixed likewise in the same manner to the bottoms of grape shot, which are used in field pieces.

Grape-shot, in artillery, is a combination of small shot, put into a thick canvas bag, and corded strongly together, so as to form a kind of cylinder, whose diameter is equal to that of the ball which is adapted to the cannon.

To make grape shot, a bag of coarse cloth is made just to hold the bottom which is put into it; as many shot are then thrown in as the grape is to contain; and with a strong packthread the whole is quilted to keep the shot from moving. The bags, when finished, are put into boxes for the purpose of being conveniently carried.

The number of shot in a grape varies according to the service or size of the guns: in sea service 9 is always the number; but by land it is increased to any number or size, from an ounce and a quarter in weight, to four pounds. It has not yet been determined, with any degree of accuracy, what number and size answer best in practice; for it is well known that they often scatter so much, that only a small number take effect.

Of the three different sorts of cannon which are used for throwing grape shot, the
the 3-pounder seems rather the best; especially when two are used, as the effect of two 3-pounders, is much greater than that of one 6-pounder. But the 8-inch howitzer, which can be made to throw in from 3 to 5 of its charge (from 12 to 20lb. of shot) becomes thereby a very formidable piece, when it can be used for grape shot.

Proper charges for grape shot have never yet been effectually determined: we can only give our advice from some experiments; that for heavy 6-pounders 1-3d of the weight of the shot appears to be the best charge of powder; for the light 6-pounders, 1-4th of the weight of the shot; and for howitzers, 1-8th or 1-10th answers very well.

This kind of fire seems not yet to have been enough respected, nor depended on. However, if cannon and howitzers can be made to throw 1-3d or 1-4th, and sometimes half their charge of grape shot into a space 39 x 12 feet, at 300 and 300 yards distance, and those fired 10 or 12 times in a minute; it surely forms the thickest fire that can be produced from the same space.

Tin-case shot, in artillery, is formed by putting a great quantity of small iron shot into a cylindrical tin box, called a canister, that just fits the bore of the gun. Leaden bullets are sometimes used in the same manner; and it must be observed, that whatever number or sizes of the shots are used, they must weigh, with their cases, nearly as much as the shot of the piece.

Case shot, formerly, consisted of all kinds of old iron, stones, musket balls, nails, &c.

Tubes, in artillery, are used in quick firing. They are made of tin: their diameter is 2-10ths of an inch, being just sufficient to enter into the vent of the piece; about 6 inches long, with a cap above, and cut slanting below, in the form of a pen; the point is strengthened with some solder, that it may pierce the cartridge without bending. Through this tube is drawn a quick-match, the cap being fitted with mealed powder, moistened with spirits of wine. To prevent the mealed powder from falling out by carriage, a cap of paper or flannel, steeped in spirits of wine, is tied over it.

Flambeau, a kind of lighted torch, used in the artillery upon a march, or the park, &c.

Formers, are cylinders of wood, of different sizes and dimensions, used in the laboratory, to drive the composition of fuzes and rockets.

Funnels, are of various sorts, used to pour the powder into shells, and the composition into fuses, and rocket-cases.

Fire ship, a vessel filled with combustible materials, and fitted with grappling irons, to hook, and set fire to the enemy’s ships in battle, &c.

From the bulk head at the forecastle to a bulk head to be raised behind the main chains, on each side and across the ship at the bulk heads, is fixed close to the ship’s sides, a double row of troughs, 2 feet distance from each other, with cross troughs quite round, at about 24 distance; which are mortised into the others. The cross troughs lead to the sides of the ship, to the barrels, and to the port-holes, to give fire both to the barrels and to the chambers, to blow open the ports; and the side troughs serve to communicate the fire all along the ship and the cross troughs.

The timbers of which the troughs are made, are about 5 inches square; the depth of the troughs, half their thickness; and they are supported by cross pieces at every 2 or 3 yards, nailed to the timbers of the ship, and to the wood work which incloses the fore and main masts. The decks and troughs are all well paved with melted rosin.

On each side of the ship 6 small port holes are cut, from 15 to 18 inches large, (the ports opening downwards,) and are close caulked up. Against each port is fixed an iron chamber, which, at the time of firing the ship, blows open the ports, and lets out the fire. At the main and fore chains, on each side, a wooden funnel is fixed over a fire barrel, and comes through a scuttle in the deck, up to the shrouds, to set them on fire. Both funnels and scuttles must be stopped with plugs, and have sail-cloth or canvass nailed close over them, to prevent any accident happening that way, by fire, to the combustibles below.

The port-holes, funnels, and scuttles, not only serve to give the fire a free passage to the outside and upper parts of the ship and her rigging, but also for the
the inward air (otherwise confined) to expand itself and push through those holes at the time of the combustibles being on fire, and prevent the blowing up of the decks, which otherwise must of course happen, from the sudden and violent rarefaction of the air as will then be produced.

In the bulk head behind, on each side, is out a small hole, large enough to receive a trough of the same size of the others; from which, to each side of the ship, lies a leading trough, one end coming through a sally port cut through the ship's side, and the other fixing into a communicating trough that lies along the bulk-head, from one side of the ship to the other; and being laid with quick match, at the time of firing either of the leading troughs, communicates the fire in an instant to the contrary side of the ship, and both sides burn together.

Fire-barrels, for a fire-ship, are cylindric, on account of that shape answering better both for filling them with reeds, and for stowing them between the troughs: their inside diameters are about 21 inches, and their length 33. The bottom parts are first filled with double-dipt reeds set on end, and the remainder with fire-barrel composition, which is, corned powder 30lb. Swedish pitch 12, saltpetre 6, and tallow 3, well mixed and melted, and then poured over them.

There are 3 holes of 3-quarters of an inch diameter, and 3 inches deep, made with a drift of that size in the top of the composition while it is warm: one in the centre, and the other four at equal distances round the sides of the barrel. When the composition is cold and hard, the barrel is primed by well driving those holes full of fuse composition, to within an inch of the top; then fixing in each hole a strand of quick-match twice doubled, and in the centre-hole two strands the whole length; all which must be well driven in with mealed powder; then lay the quick-match all within the barrel, and cover the top of it with a dipped curtain, fastened on with a hoop to slip over the head, and nailed on.

Baccas, for a fire-ship are made of birch, heath, or other sort of bushwood, that is both tough and quickly fired: in length 2.5, or 3 feet; the bush-ends all laid one way, and the other ends tied with two bands each. They are dipped, and sprinkled with sulphur, the same as reeds, with this difference, that the bush-ends only are dipped, and should be a little closed together by the hand as soon as done, to keep them more compact, in order to give a stronger fire, and to preserve the branches from breaking in shifting and handling them. Their composition is, rosin 120lb. coarse sulphur 90, pitch 60, tallow 6, and mealed powder 12, with some fine sulphur for salting.

Iron-chambers, for a fire-ship, are 10 inches long, and 3.5 in diameter; breeched against a piece of wood fixed across the holes. When loaded they are almost filled full of corned powder, with a wooden tonpion well driven into their muzzles. They are primed with a small piece of quick-match thrust through their vents into the powder, with a part of it hanging out; and when the ship is fired they blow open the ports, which either fall downwards, or are carried away, and so give vent to the fire out of the sides of the ship.

Curtains, for a fire-ship, are made of barras, about 3-quarters of a yard wide, and 1 yard in length: when they are dipped, 2 men, with each a fork, must run the protrusions to the corner of the curtain at the same end: then dip them into a large kettle of composition (which is the same as the composition for baccas) well melted; and when well dipped, and the curtain extended to its full breadth, whip it between 2 sticks of about 5.5 feet long, and 1.5 inches square, held close by 2 other men to take off the superfluous composition hanging to it; then immediately sprinkle sawdust on both sides, to prevent it from sticking, and the curtain is finished.

Reeds, for a fire-ship, are made up in small bundles of about 42 inches in circumference, cut even at both ends, and tied with two bands each; the longest sort are 4 feet, and the shortest 2.5; which are all the lengths that are used. One part of them are single-dipped, only at one end; the rest are double-dipped, i.e. at both ends. In dipping, they must be put about 7 or 8 inches deep into a copper kettle of melted composition (the same as that for baccas) and when they have drained a little over it, to carry off the superfluous composition,
Composition for sky-rockets in general is, salt-petre 4 lb., brimstone 1 lb., and charcoal 1½ lb.; but for large sky-rockets, salt-petre 4 lb., mealed powder 1 lb., and brimstone 1 lb.; for rockets of a middling size, salt-petre 3 lb., sulphur 2 lb., mealed powder 1 lb., and charcoal 1 lb.

Quick-match in artillery, is of 2 sorts, cotton and worsted; the first is generally made of such cotton as is put in candles, of several sizes, from 1 to 6 threads thick, according to the pipes it is designed for. The ingredients are, cotton 1 lb., 12 oz. salt-petre 1 lb., 8 oz. spirits of wine 2 quarts, water 2 quarts, isinglass 3 gills, and mealed powder 10 lb. It is then taken out hot, and laid in a trough, where some mealed powder, moistened with spirits of wine, is thoroughly wrought into the cotton. This done, they are taken out separately, and drawn through mealed powder, and hung upon a line to dry. The composition for the second is, worsted 10 oz., mealed powder 10 lb., spirits of wine 3 pints, and white-wine vinegar 3 pints.

LABOUER, Fr. literally to remove earth with a plough, spade, &c. Figuratively, to belabour, which, according to Johnson, is to beat, thump, &c. The French use it, in a military sense, to express any direct and concentrated effort which is made to destroy a fortification.

LABOUREUR UN RAMPART, Fr. to bring several pieces of ordnance discharged from two oblique directions to bear upon one center. Shells and hollow balls are generally used on these occasions, and the chief design is to second the operations of the miner in some particular part from whence the explosion is to take place.

Labourer likewise applies to the working of a bomb or shell, which excavates, ploughs up, and scatters the earth about wherever it bursts.

LACAY OR LAQUET, Fr. An old French militia was formerly so called. The name is found among the public documents which were kept by the treasurers belonging to the Dukes of Brittany in the fifteenth century.

LACE, (passement, galon, Fr.) a line of silk, thread, intermixed with gold or silver; also a border or edging. The uniform of many regiments is distinguishable only by the lace and buttons.
LACERNA, Fr. a garment which was used by the ancients. It was made of woollen stuff, and was only worn by men; originally indeed by those alone that were of a military profession. It was usually thrown over the toga, and sometimes indeed over the tunica. It may not improperly be considered as the surtou or great coat of the ancients, with this difference, that there was a winter lacerna and a summer one.

The lacerna was adopted by the Romans towards the close of their republic. Even so late down as the days of Cicero, it was unknown amongst them, or if known, censured as a mark of disgraceful effeminacy. During the civil wars that occurred in the triumvirate of Augustus, Lepidus, and Anthony, the lacerna became familiar to the people, and by degrees was adopted as common apparel, by the senators and knights of Rome, until the reigns of Gratian, Valentinian, and Theodosius, who enjoined the senators not to wear it.

The lacerna is the same as the chlamys and the burreus.

Un LACHE, Fr. A familiar phrase among the French to signify a coward, &c.

LACHER, Fr. to go off. Son pistolet ou son fusil, vint à lâcher; his pistol or his musquet went off of itself.

LACHER pied, Fr. to run away.

LACHER un prisonnier, to let a prisoner escape, or go away unmolested.

LACHER un coup, in speaking of fire arms, signifies to discharge a pistol or musquet. Il lui lâcha un coup de pistolet dans la tête; he lodged a bullet in his head. Le vasseau lâcha toute sa bordure à la portée de mousquet; the ship fired a whole broadside within musquet shot.

LACHETÉ, Fr. An opprobrious term which is frequently used among the French, and is applied, in all instances of cowardice, want of spirit or dishonourable conduct. One of their writers emphatically observes, that in a military sense of the word it cannot be misunderstood, as the least imputation of cowardice or want of spirit, is sufficient to destroy the entire character and fame of every officer and soldier whom it may affect. As it is the direct opposite to courage, the person who enters into the profession of arms, should weigh well within himself, whether he possesses that indispensable quality, which is above all the temptations of pleasure or the effeminacy of life, and is only alive to the glorious impulse of military animation. He only, in fact, is fit for arms, whose spirit is superior to every sordid view, who knows no personal fear, and who can encounter the greatest difficulties and dangers with an inward placidity of soul, and an outward indifference to life. In order to illustrate this article, we shall quote some ancient and modern instances of that species of cowardice or lâcheté which affects the military character.

Euripidas, chief of the Eleans, having imprudently advanced too far into a long and narrow defile, and learning that Philip of Macedon was on his march to block up the passage through which he had entered, instead of manfully waiting the issue of an engagement, abandoned his army in the most cowardly manner. It does not appear, says the Chevalier Folard, that Euripidas possessed those talents which are necessary to form a great general; for instead of meanly stealing off by a bye road, and leaving his army to its fate, he would have remained at its head, and either have fought his way through, honourably have capitulated, or have died combating with his men.

Base and inglorious as this conduct of Euripidas most unquestionably was, the behaviour of Perseus king of the Macedonians exceeded it in cowardice and degradation. This infamous prince did not wait to be visited by misfortune or to lose a battle; he had on the contrary, obtained a signal victory over the Romans, and when Paulus Emilius marched against him, the army he commanded was not inferior to that of his opponent in discipline and valour, and had the advantage in point of numbers. Yet, strange to relate! the engagement was no sooner begun, than he rode off full gallop, and repaired to the town of Pydus, under the flimsy pretence of sacrificing to the God Hercules; as if Hercules, to use Plutarch's expression, was the deity to whom the prayers and offerings of Cowards were to be preferred!

Mark Anthony, on the other hand, after having acquired the reputation of a brave and distinguished general, submitted to the allurements of sensual gratification,
tification, and buried all his glory in the meretricious embraces of an Egyptian strumpet. We have had a striking instance, during the late war, of the superiority which a real military thirst for glory will always have over private indulgence. When the French army was very critically situated in Germany, General Hoche, who commanded it, became exposed one evening to the allurements of a most beautiful woman, who by design or accident got placed near the general at a public supper. Aware of the weakness of human nature, and full of his own glory, as well as conscious of the critical state of the army entrusted to his care, he suddenly rose, ordered his horses, and left the place at midnight.

We might enumerate a variety of cases, in which the greatest heroes have fallen victims to human weakness; and few, alas, in which a sense of public duty, and a regard for the opinion of posterity have got the ascendency. History, however, saves us that trouble, and we shall remain satisfied with having explained under the word Lâcheté, what we conceive disgraceful in an officer or soldier, who suffers personal fear, passion, or interest to get the better of public character.

The French also say, la trahison est un lâcheté; treason is infamous in its nature.

LACUNETTE, Fr. a term in fortification. A small fosse or ditch was formerly so called. The word Cunette has since been adopted.

LADAVEE, Ind. a release or acquittance from any demand.

LADIES, in gunnery, are made of copper, to hold the powder for loading guns, with long handles of wood, when cartridges are not used.

LADIES, in laboratory business, are very small, made of copper, with short handles of wood, used in supplying the fuses of shells, or any other composition, to fill the cases of sky-rockets, &c. There is another kind of ladders, which is used to carry red hot shot. It is made of iron, having a ring in the middle to hold the shot, from which 2 handles proceed from opposite sides of the ring.

Scaling-LADDERS, (échelles de siège, Fr.) are used in scaling, when a place is to be taken by surprise. They are made in several ways; sometimes of flat staves, so as to move about their pins and shut like a parallel ruler, for conveniently carrying them: the French make them of several pieces, so as to be joined together, and to be capable of any necessary length: sometimes they are made of single ropes knotted at proper distances, with iron hooks at each end, one to fasten them upon the wall above, and the other in the ground; and sometimes they are made with 2 ropes, and staves between them, to keep the ropes at a proper distance, and to tread upon. When they are used in the action of scaling walls, they ought to be rather too long than too short, and to be given in charge only to the stoutest of the detachment. The soldiers should carry these ladders with the left arm passed through the second step, taking care to hold them upright close to their sides, and very short below, to prevent any accident in leaping into the ditch.

The first rank of each division, provided with ladders, should set out with the rest at the signal, marching resolutely with their firelocks slung, to jump into the ditch; when they are arrived, they should apply their ladders against the parapet, observing to place them towards the salient angles rather than the middle of the curtain, because the enemy has less force there. Care must be taken to place the ladders within a foot of each other, and not to give them too much nor too little slope, so that they may not be overturned, or broken with the weight of the soldiers mounting upon them.

The ladders being applied, they who have carried them, and they who come after should mount up, and rush upon the enemy sword in hand; if he who goes first, happens to be overturned, the next should take care not to be thrown down by his comrade; but on the contrary, immediately mount himself, so as not to give the enemy time to load his piece.

As the soldiers who mount first may be easily tumbled over, and their fall may cause the attack to fail, it would perhaps be right to protect their breasts with the fore parts of cuirasses; because if they can penetrate, the rest may easily follow.

The success of an attack by scaling...
is infallible, if they mount the 4 sides at once, and take care to shower a number of grenades among the enemy, especially when supported by some grenadiers and piquets, who divide the attention and share the fire of the enemy.

The ingenious Col. Congreve of the royal artillery, has very much improved upon the construction of these ladders. As the height of different works vary, and the ladders, when too long, afford purchase to the besieged, he has contrived a set of ladders having an iron staple at the lower part of each stem, so that if 1, 2, or 3, should be found insufficient to reach the top of the work, another might with facility be joined to the lowest, and that be pushed up until a sufficient length could be obtained.

LAI Frère, Fr. lay-brother. This term was originally given to an invalid soldier, whom the heads of religious houses and monasteries in France were obliged to receive and to support during the remainder of their days. The monks generally agreed to take one; but the number seldom exceeded two. To use a French writer’s expression, these living remains of military glory led a melancholy life in the midst of their fat and pampered masters. They were obliged to clean the courts in front of the monasteries, and to do all the drudgery within doors. Louis XIV. rescued them from these disgraceful occupations, by establishing the Hôtel des Invalides, in Paris.

LAITON, sometimes written LEMON, Fr. a metallic composition which is made of copper, and the lapis calaminaris. See LEADTON.

LALÀ, Ind. lords; master; worship.

LAMA, Ind. A chief priest, whose followers suppose him immortal. They imagine, that on the dissolution of his mortal frame, his spirit enters the body of a new-born child. He is also monarch of Thibet.

LAMBREQUINS, Fr. small mantles or ribbons which were twisted round the hood or top of a helmet at the bottom of the crest, and kept the whole together. These ornaments fell into disuse when the helmet was laid aside. In former times, when the cavaliers, or persons who wore them, wished to take breath, and to be relieved from the weight of the helmet, they untied the mantles, and let them float about their shoulders suspended from the hood only. Hence the appellation of valets as hanging behind.

LAMPION à parapet, Fr. a lamp generally used on the parapet or elsewhere in a besieged place. It is a small iron vessel filled with pitch and tar which the garrison light as necessity may require. The lampion is sometimes confounded with the réchaud de rampart, or chaffing dish, which is used upon the rampart on similar occasions.

LANCE, ( lance, ) Fr. This offensive weapon was much used by the French in former times, particularly by that class of military gentlemen called chevaliers, and by the gendarmes. It has also been used by the English and other nations. Lances were made of ash, being a wood of tough quality, and not so liable to break as another species. Before the reign of Philip de Valois, the chevaliers and gendarmes fought on foot, armed with lances only, both in battles and at sieges. On these occasions they shortened their lances, which were then said to be retaiillées or cut again. A sort of banderole or streamer hung from each lance, and was attached to the bottom of the sharp iron or blade which was fixed to the pole. Lances were used in this manner as far back as during the crusades.

LANCE, Fr. This word formerly signified, among the French, a gendarme, who carried a pike or lance. Hence une compagnie de cent lances, a company consisting of one hundred gendarmes.

LANCE fournie, Fr. an old expression, signifying a knight or 'squire who was completely equipped, and had his complement of archers, &c.

Rompre la LANCE, Fr. to break a lance. This was a phrase peculiar to any assaults which were given at tilts or tournaments, and signified to engage or come to close combat. The French say : 'rompre des lances pour quelqu’un, to defend another : 'rompre une lance avec quelqu’un, to enter into any warm dispute or controversy with another.
Main de la Lance, Fr. A figurative expression, to signify the right hand of a cavalier or horseman.

Lance drapeau, Fr. the staff to which regimental colours are attached.

Lances levées, Fr. uplifted lances, indicated that the enemy was beaten, and that the Chevaliers or Gendarmes should close the day by giving a final blow to the disordered ranks. The use of the lance was discontinued in France some time before the compagnies d'ordonnance or independent companies were reduced and formed into the gendarmerie. Little or no use indeed, was made of them during the reign of Henry IV. But the Spaniards still retained that weapon as low down as the days of Louis XIII.

Lance, means likewise an earthen rod which is fixed across the earthen mould of a shell, and which keeps it suspended in the air when it is cast. As soon as the bomb or shell is formed, this rod must be broken, and carefully taken out with instruments made for that purpose. Shells ought to be scrupulously examined with respect to this article, as they could not be charged, were the lance or any part of it to remain within. Lance is also an instrument which conveys the charge of a piece of ordnance and forces it home into the bore. See Rammer of a Gun.

Lance à feu, Fr. a squib. A species of artificial fire-work which is made in the shape of a fuse, and is used for various purposes. According to the author of Oeuvres Militaires, tom. 11. p. 208, the composition of the lance à feu consists of three parts of the best refined saltpetre, two parts of flour of sulphur, and two of antimony; the whole being pounded and mixed together.

The chief use which is made of the lance à feu is to throw occasional light across the platform, whilst artificial fireworks are preparing. They likewise serve to set fire to fuses, as they can be taken hold of without danger.

Lance à feu punt, Fr. Stink-fire lances prepared in the same manner that stink-pots are, and particularly useful to miners. When a miner or sapper has so far penetrated towards the enemy as to hear the voices of persons in any place contiguous to his own excavation, he first of all bores a hole with his probe, then fires off several pistols through the aperture, and lastly forces in a lance à feu punt; taking care to close up the hole on his side to prevent the smoke from returning towards himself. The exhalation and stinking hot vapour which issue from the lance, and remain confined on the side of the enemy, infest the air so much, that it is impossible to approach the quarter for three or four days. Sometimes, indeed, they have had so instantaneous an effect, that in order to save their lives, miners who would persevere, have been dragged out by the legs in an apparent state of suffocation.

Lance de feu, Fr. a species of squib which is used by the garrison of a besieged town against a scaling party.

Lance-gaie, Fr. an offensive weapon formerly so called in France.

Lance spezzate, Fr. a reduced officer. In former times it signified a dismounted gendarme who was appointed to an infantry corps, with some emolument attached to his situation. The word anspessade, a non-commissioned officer who acts subordinate to the corporal, is corrupted from this term. Besides the three hundred Swiss guards which were constantly attached to the palace, the Pope maintained twelve lance-spezzate or reduced officers.

Landing Troops. See Debarkation.

Land Forces, troops whose system is calculated for land service only, in contradistinction to seamen and marines. All the land forces of Great Britain are liable to serve on board the king's ships.

Lance, in a military sense, is where men are drawn up in two ranks facing one another, as in a street, for any great person to pass through, or sometimes for a soldier to run the gantlope.

Langue, Fr. a term peculiarly connected with the order of Malta. The eight nations of which this celebrated order consisted, were distinguished by the appellation of Langue. There were three of this description in France, viz. la Langue de France, la Langue de Provence, and la Langue d'Avergne; two in Spain, viz. la Langue d'Aragón, et la Langue de Castile; and three indiscriminate ones, viz. la Langue d'Italie, la
the head of each language was called Grand Prieur, or Grand Prior.

**LANGUE de terre**, Fr. a tongue of land.

**LANSQUENETS**, Fr. the German mercenaries which Charles VII. of France first added to his infantry, were so called. They continued in the French service until the reign of Francis I, who consolidated all the foot establishments into a certain number of legions.

**LANS-PESATE, **LANCE-PESADE, a soldier that does duty as a corporal, especially on guards and detachments; a lance corporal.

**LANTERN, **commonly called **LANTHORN,** Muscovy lanterns, being a kind of dark lanterns, used in the field, to light the gunners in the camp to prepare the stores, &c.

**LANTERNE, **Fr. A word used in the French navy to signify any wooden case or box in which cartriges are brought out of the powder-magazine for the purpose of serving the guns.

**LANTERNE,** Fr. it is sometimes called cuiller or ladle, and serves to convey gunpowder into a piece of ordnance. It is made of copper, and resembles a round spoon or ladle, which is fixed to a long pole.

**LANTERNE à mitrailles, **Fr. A round piece of concave wood, something like a box, which is filled with case shot, and is fired from a piece of ordnance when the enemy is near.

To LASE, to fall in, or belong to. This expression is used in military matters, to signify the reversión of any military property. Thus upon the sale or purchase of one commission at the regulated difference, another (where there are two), is said to lapse to government. Commissions lapse, or fall into the patronage of government when vacancies happen by death, by officers being superseded, or where officers apply to sell who have only purchased a part of their commissions, and have not served long enough to be entitled to sell the whole; in which case they are only permitted to sell what they actually purchased, and the remainder is in the gift of government.

**LASCARS, or Laskars.** The native seamen of India; the native gunners are sometimes so called. They are often employed to tend and serve the artillery on shore, and are attached to corps as pioneers or tent-pitchers.

**LASHING RINGS, **in artillery

**LASHING RINGS, **with hoops, fixed on the side-pieces of travelling carriages, to lash the tarpauling, as also to tie the sponge, runner, and ladle. See Carriage.

**LATH,** in building, a long, thin, and narrow slip of wood, nailed to the rafters of a roof or cieling, in order to fasten the covering. Laths are distinguished into three kinds, according to the different kinds of wood of which they are made, viz. heart of oak, sap-laths, deal-laths, &c.

**LATHE,** a division of some extent in a county, which generally contains three, four, or five hundreds.

**LATEHE Reeve,** an officer during the Saxon government, who held a certain jurisdiction over that part of the county which was called a tithing.

**LATTIE,** an Indian term for warehouse.

**LATITUDE,** in geography, the distance of any place from the equator, measured in degrees, minutes, seconds, &c. upon the meridian of that place; and is either north or south, according as the place is situated either on the north or south side of the equator.

**LATRINES,** Fr. privies or holes which are dug at the back of a camp for the convenience of soldiers. The pioners are generally employed to make them.

**LATRO.** This word which in Latin signifies a thief, was also used among the Romans, to mark out a soldier who served for pay.

**LATROCINARI.** Among the Romans, to bear arms for pay or money.

**LAVER, LAVIS, Fr.** A wash, or superficial stain or colour! it is particularly made use of in all sketches, plans, and drawings; the different intervals or spaces of which are slightly shaded or coloured. This kind of painting is stiled lavis, or water-colouring. The difference between miniature painting and washing, or drawing in water colours, consists in this, that the former is dotted and worked up into light and shade; the latter is barely spread with a brush. There are, besides, other marks of distinction;
null
pillars, and in the maritime provinces, as far as 400 stadia from the sea, he should be empowered to command kings, governors, and states, to supply him with all the necessaries in his expedition.

Manilia lex, published in 687, ordained, that all the forces of Lucullus, and the province under his government, should be given to Pompey; together with Bithynia, which was under the command of Glabrio, and that he should forthwith make war upon Mithridates, retaining still the same naval forces, and the sovereignty of the seas as before.

Maria Porcia lex appeared in 1691, ordaining, that a penalty should be inflicted on such commanders as wrote falsely to the senate, about the number of the slain, on the enemy's side, and of their own party; and that they should be obliged, when they first entered the city, to take a solemn oath before the questioners, that the number which they returned was true, according to the best computation. See Kennet's Ant. of Rome, page 168.

It will be seen by these laws, particularly by the last, that the most minute military operation was subservient to the senate. The French seem, in this respect, to have imitated the Romans very closely, but they do not appear to have adhered, so strictly as they might, to the law which regards the loss of men, nor are their neighbours more correct.

Laws of Nations, such general rules as regard embassies; the reception, and entertainment, of strangers, intercourse of merchants, exchange of prisoners, suspension of arms, &c.

Law of marque, or letters of marque, that by which persons take the goods or shipping of the party that has wronged them, as in time of war, whenever they can take them within their precincts.

LAY. To lay down, implies to resign, as, the enemy laid down their arms; he means to lay down his commission.—To lay for, is to attempt something by ambushade.

LAZARET, Fr. those large houses are so called, which are built in the neighbourhood of some sea-ports belonging to the Levant, for the purpose of lodging the people that are ordered to perform quarantine.

Lazaretto, a pest-house.

Lazarus, a military order instituted at Jerusalem by the Christians of the west, when they were masters of the Holy Land, who received pilgrims under their care, and guarded them on the roads from the insults of the Mahometans. This order was instituted in the year 1119, and confirmed by a bull of Pope Alexander IV. in 1255, who gave it the rule of St. Augustine.

LEAD, a metal well known. It is employed for various mechanic uses; as in thin sheets for covering buildings, for pipes, pumps, shot, bullets, windows, for securing iron bars in hard stones, for sundry kinds of large vessels for evaporation, and many other purposes.

LEADER. See Commander.

FILE LEADER, the front man of a battalion or company, standing two deep.

LEADING-COLUMN, the first column that advances from the right, left, or center, of an army or battalion.

LEADING-FILE, the first two men of a battalion or company, that marches from right, left, or center, by files.

FLANK LEADING-FILE, the first man on the right, and the last man on the left of a battalion, company, or section, are so called.

CENTER LEADING-FILE, the last man of the right center company, division, or section; and the first man of the left center company, division, or section, are so called, when the line files from the center to the front or rear. At close order, the colours stand between them.

LEAGUE, in military history, a measure of length, containing more or less geometrical paces, according to the different usages and customs of countries. A league at sea, where it is chiefly used by us, being a land-measure mostly peculiar to the French and Germans, contains 3000 geometrical paces, or 3 English miles.

The French league sometimes contains the same measure, and, in some parts of France, it consists of 3500 paces: the mean or common league consists of 2400 paces, and the little league of 2000. The Spanish leagues are larger than the French, 17 Spanish leagues making a degree,
degree, or 20 French leagues, or 69 and 1/4 English statute miles. The German and Dutch leagues contain each 4 geographical miles. The Persian leagues are pretty near of the same extent with the Spanish; that is, they are equal to 4 Italian miles, which is pretty near to what Herodotus calls the length of the Persian parasang, which contained 30 stadia, 8 whereof, according to Strabo, make a mile.

League also denotes an alliance or confederacy between princes and states for their mutual aid, either in attacking some common enemy, or in defending themselves.

Leaves, indulgence, licence, liberty. Leave of absence, a permission which is granted to officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, to be absent from camp or quarters for any specific period.

General leave, an indulgence which is annually granted on home service, by the commander in chief, to a certain proportion of the army, to be absent from military duty. This generally occurs in the winter months, and ends on the 10th of March.

Lecture, Fr. see reading.

Lectures. Lectures are read at Woolwich to the officers of artillery, and engineers, and cadets, on chemistry: lectures upon topography and upon other essential parts of military science are given at High Wycombe.

Leeuk, Ind. a secretary or writer.

Left give point. See sword exercise.

Left protect. See sword exercise.

To put on the leg, among cavalry, is to press the inside of the foot and leg against the horse's flank. It is always used in passing to direct the horse which way to passage, and again on the opposite flank to stop him after he has passed to his place.

Legatus, in Roman antiquity, a military officer who commanded as deputy of the chief general.

Kennet, in his Antiquities, observes, that the design of the legati, at their first institution, was not so much to command as to advise. The senate selecting some of the oldest and most prudent members to assist the general in his councils.

Dionysius calls this the most honourable and sacred office among the Romans, bearing not only the authority of a commander, but withal, the sanctity and veneration of a priest.

Under the emperors there were two sorts of legati, consulares, and praetores; the first of which commanded the whole armies, as the emperor's lieutenant-generals, and the other only particular legions.

Machiavel highly extols the wisdom of the Romans, in allowing their generals unlimited commissions.

Legere. This word, although it be not strictly military, is in some degree connected with the profession, as diplomacy is not wholly foreign to military negotiation. A legere ambassador, or resident, signifies any person acting in that capacity, who remains stationary.

Cavalerie légère, Fr. Light horse.

Un Cheval léger à la main, Fr. A horse which is easily managed, or is not hard mouthed.

Troops légère, Fr. light troops, or such as act in desultory warfare.

Armée à la légère, Fr. light-armed.

Legion, in Roman antiquity, a body of foot, which consisted of ten cohorts, or 5000 men.

The exact number contained in a legion, was fixed by Romulus at 3000; though Plutarch assures us, that, after the reception of the Sabines into Rome, he increased it to 6000. The common number afterwards, in the first times of the free state, was 4000; but in the war with Hannibal, it rose to 5000; and after that, it is probable that it sunk again to 4200, which was the number in the time of Polybius.

In the age of Julius Cæsar, we do not find any legions exceeding the Polybian number of men; and he himself expressly speaks of two legions, that did not make above 7000 between them. (Commentar. lib. 5.)

The number of legions kept in pay together was different, according to the various times and occasions. During the free states, four legions were commonly fitted up every year, and divided between the consuls: yet in cases of necessity, we sometimes meet with no less than 16 or 18 in Livy.

Augustus maintained a standing army of 23 (or as some will have it) of 25 legions;
legions; but in aftertimes we seldom find so many.

They borrowed their names from the orders in which they were raised, as prima, secunda, tertia, &c. but because it usually happened, that there were several prime, secunda, &c. in several places, upon that account they took a sort of surname besides, either from the emperors who first constituted them, as Augusta, Claudiana, Galliana, Flavia, Ulpia, Trajana, Antoniana, or from the provinces which had been conquered chiefly by their value, as Parthisca, Sicythica, Gallica, Arabica, &c. or from the names of the particular deities for whom their commanders had an especial honour, as Minervia and Appollinaris; or from the region where they had their quarters, as Cretensis, Cyrenaica, Britannica, &c. or sometimes upon account of the lesser accidents, as Adjutrix, Martia, Fulminatrix, Rapax, &c.

The whole Roman infantry, which was divided into four sorts, Velites, Hastati, Principes and Triarii, consisted of Manipuli, Cohorts and Legions. So that legion was considered as the largest establishment for foot soldiers. See Kenney's Ant. of Rome, pages 190, 191.

Marshal Saxe has written at some length, respecting legion.

Legion, in a general acceptance of the term, signifies any large body of men. In a more confined one, among the moderns, it applies to a specific number of horse or foot, who are distinguished by that name, and do duty with the rest of the army. Such, for instance, was the British legion which served in America; and of this description are the Polish and Belgic legions, that form part of the French army.

Legionary, any thing appertaining to a legion, or containing an indefinite number.

Légumes, Fr. vegetables, roots, grain, &c. Every species of subsistence, which, under the old government of France, was not provided for the troops by direct instructions from the war-office, and at the expence of the public, was called légumes. Subsistence of this sort, however, may more properly be called that which soldiers got for themselves in foreign countries during actual hostilities.
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LETTER of service, a written order or authority issued by the secretary at war, empowering any officer or individual to raise a certain body of men to serve as soldiers, within a given time, and on special conditions.

LETTER of attorney, an instrument in writing, authorizing an attorney, or any confidential person, to take the affairs of another in trust. A letter or power of attorney is necessary to empower a person to receive the half-pay of an officer. This paper did cost six shillings, but now fifteen, and must be accompanied by a certificate sworn to by the half-pay officer before some magistrate or justice of the peace.

LETTER of credit, a letter which is given from one merchant or banker to another, in favour of a third person, enabling the latter to take up money to a certain amount. Sometimes a letter of credit is given without any specific limitation.

LETTER of licence, a deed signed and sealed by the creditors of a man, by which he is allowed a given period to enable him to discharge his debts by instalments, or by a certain proportion in the pound.

Military letter or dispatch. The French use the word dépêche. A letter of this description should be clear, and as brief as possible; containing in few words all that is necessary to be known, without endangering the object of its communication, through a want of sufficient explanation. We have a remarkable instance in history of this species of writing. When Spinola, who was originally a Genoese merchant, appeared unwilling to undertake the siege of Breda, the king of Spain's laconic letter determined him.

Marquis,

Take Breda.

-1 the King.

Spinola did so; and, in recompense for that, and other brilliant services, he was afterwards abandoned by his master, and died of a broken heart. Proh pudor!

We also find, in the history of Gustavus Adolphus, two other instances of the same laconic style.

General Kniphausen being anxious to preserve the pass and fortress of Scheibelftein, wrote to lieutenant-colonel Monro, who commanded the garrison, a short billet to this effect: Maintain the town as long as you can, but give not up the castle whilst a single man continues with you.

This place, observes the historian, was not defensible for a longer time than twenty-four hours; yet Monro, having the possession of it three days before Montecuculi's arrival, made a good appearance of resistance; and when the imperial general had ranged his army round the walls, in order to give one united assault, and sent a trumpeter to propose a treaty, the brave Scot replied, with great plainness, that the word treaty, by some chance had happened to be omitted in his instructions, and that he had only powder and ball at the count de Montecuculi's service. Upon this, orders were given to commence a general storm; but the Scottish troops behaved to admiration; and having laid the town in ashes, retired with great regularity into the castle. The Imperialists perceiving the governor to be a man of resolution, broke up their encampment, and quitted the siege. H. G. Ad. page 217.

Circular letters, (lettres circulaires, Fr.) documents (which, in official language, and for the sake of abbreviation, are generally called circulars,) that are sent to several persons upon the same subject.

Letter-men, certain pensioners belonging to Chelsea Hospital, are so called.

LETTON, Fr. a metal composed of molten copper, called rosette, and of lapis calaminarius, a yellow mineral, of which quantities may be found in the neighbourhood of Liege.

LETTON is used in cannon-foundries. The best practical mode of digesting and mixing the materials, is to put 11 or 12,000 weight of metal, 10,000 weight of rosette, or molten copper, 900 pounds of tin, and 600 pounds of letton. There are various opinions respecting the mixture of these several ingredients.

Lettre de cachet, Fr. an infamous state paper, which existed before the French revolution, differing in this essential point from an order of our privy council, that the former was sealed, and the person upon whom it was served, carried into confinement, without even seeing
seeing the authority by which he was hurried off in so peremptory a manner, or being tried afterwards for any specific offence; whereas the latter is an open warrant, which, (except when peculiar circumstances occasion a suspension of the habeas corpus act,) has its object closely investigated before an English jury. The French lettre de cachet was written by the king, countersigned by one of his principal secretaries of state, and sealed with the royal signet.


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LETTRES de service, Fr. See LETTERS OF SERVICE.


LETTRES de passe, Fr. A paper signed by the kings of France, authorizing an officer to exchange from one regiment into another.


LETTRE de créance, ou qui porte créance, Fr. A letter of credit. It likewise signifies the credentials which an ambassador presents from his sovereign to a foreign court.


LETTRE de récéance, Fr. A letter which an ambassador receives from his sovereign, by which he is recalled from a foreign court.


LETTRES en chiffre, Fr. Cyphers. Baron Espagnac in the continuation of his Essai sur l'opération de la guerre, tom. 1, page 269, gives the following instructions relative to this acquirement. He observes that cyphering may be practised in two different ways. First by means of distilled vinegar, which is boiled with silver litharge, one ounce of the latter to a pint of the former. When this mixture has stood some time, it must be carefully poured off from the sediment, and it will appear as clear as rock water. Intelligible or information may be conveyed by writing with this water in the blank spaces of an ordinary letter, on wrapping paper, or on the blank leaves of a book. The instant the writing dries, not the least trace appears of what has been marked. To render the writing legible, you must make use of a water in which quick lime has been dissolved with a mixture of orpiment. This water is as clear as rock water; and if you steep a sheet of paper in it, and lay it upon the letter, book, &c. on which any thing has been written, the different characters will instantly appear.

The first of these distilled liquids is so powerful and searching, that by putting the written letter upon several other sheets of paper, after having rubbed the top sheet with the second water, the writing will be clearly seen in almost all of them. The same circumstance will occur, if you rub the leaf of a book or any piece of paper which you may spread upon it. These waters, especially the last, should be kept in bottles that are well corked up, to prevent the spirituous particles from evaporating. A fresh composition must, indeed, be made, if the old one should seem weakened. The letters that are written must likewise be carefully permeed, and kept free from blots, &c. The paper must not be turned nor rubbed with the hand until the writing be thoroughly dry. This is the author's first proposed mode of writing in cyphers, the second may be seen in page 270 of the work already quoted.


LETTRES de représailles, Fr. reprisals. See LETTERS OF MARQUE.


LETTRES de santé, patentes de santé, Fr. letters of health.


LEVANT, the countries bordering upon the Mediterranean are so called.


LEVANTIN, Fr. A word generally used among the French to distinguish any person from the Levant.


LEVANTINE nations, (Nations Levantines, Fr.) nations belonging to the East, or to those countries which border on the Mediterranean. The French likewise say, Peuples Levantins.


LEVANTIS, Fr. The soldiers belonging to the Turkish galleys are so called.


LEVÉE des troupes, Fr. See LEVY.


LEVÉE en Masse, Fr. A general rising of the people of any country, either for the purposes of self-defence, or to answer the intentions of its governing powers.


LEVÉE d'une siege, Fr. The raising of a siege. See SIEGE.


LEVEL, an instrument to draw a line parallel to the horizon, whereby the difference of ascent or descent between several places may be found, for conveying water, draining fens, &c.


Air-Level, that which shews the line of level by means of a bubble of air, enclosed with some liquor in a glass tube of an indeterminate length and thickness, whose two ends are hermetically sealed. When the bubble fixes itself at a certain mark, made exactly in the centre of the tube, the plane or ruler wherein it is fixed


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fixed is level: when it is not level, the bubble will rise to one end. This glass tube may be set in another of brass, having an aperture in the middle, whence the bubble of air may be observed. There is one of these instruments with sights, being an improvement upon the last-described, which by the addition of more apparatus, becomes more commodious and exact: it consists of an air-level about 8 inches long, and 7 or 8 lines in diameter, set in a brass tube, with an aperture in the middle: the tubes are carried in a strong straight ruler, a foot long, at whose ends are fixed two sights, exactly perpendicular to the tubes, and of an equal height, having a square hole, formed by two fillets of brass, crossing each other at right angles, in the middle whereof is drilled a very little hole, through which a point on a level with the instrument is described: the brass tube is fastened on the ruler by means of two screws, one whereof serves to raise or depress the tube at pleasure, for bringing it towards a level. The top of the ball and socket is riveted to a little ruler that springs, one end whereof is fastened with screws to the great ruler, and at the other end is a screw, serving to raise and depress the instrument when nearly level.

Artillery foot-level, is in form of a square, having its two branches or legs of an equal length, at the angle of which is a small hole, whence hang a line and plummet, playing on a perpendicular line in the middle of a quadrant: it is divided into twice 45 degrees from the middle.

Gunner’s-level, for levelling pieces of artillery, consists of a triangular brass plate, about 4 inches, at the bottom of which is a portion of a circle divided into 45 degrees; which angle is sufficient for the highest elevations of cannons, mortars, and howitzers, and for giving shot and shells the greatest range: on the centre of this segment of a circle is screwed a piece of brass, by means of which it may be fixed or screwed at pleasure; the end of this piece of brass is made so as to serve for a plummet and index, in order to show the different degrees of elevation of pieces of artillery. This instrument has also a brass foot, to set upon cannon or mortars, so that when these pieces are horizontal, the instrument will be perpendicular. The foot of this instrument is to be placed on the piece to be elevated, in such a manner, as that the point of the plummet may fall on the proper degree, &c.

The most curious instrument for the use of the artillerist, has been invented by the very ingenious Colonel Congreve, of the royal artillery; having the following qualifications, viz. 1. It will find the inclination of any plane, whether above or below the horizon. 2. By applying it either to the cylinder, or outside of any piece of ordnance, angles of eleration or depression may be given to the 60th part of a degree, with less trouble than the common gunner’s quadrant, which only gives to the 4th part of a degree. 3. It will give the line of direction for laying either guns or mortars to an object above or below the horizon. 4. It will find the centre of metals of any piece of ordnance. 5. With it, a point may be found in the rear of a mortar-bed, in the vertical plane of the mortar’s axis; consequently a longer line of sight is given for directing them to the object than the usual way. 6. It answers all the purposes of a pair of callipers, with the advantage of knowing (to the 100th part of an inch) diameters, whether concave or convex, without the trouble of laying the claws upon a diagonal scale. 7. On the sides of the instrument are the following lines, viz. equal parts, solids, planes, and polygons, logarithms, tangents, versed sines, sines and numbers, plotting scales, and diagonal scales of inches for cutting fuses by. 8. In the lid of the instrument-case is a pendulum to vibrate half seconds, It is likewise of singular use in surveying; as, 1. It takes horizontal angles to the 60th part of a degree. 2. Vertical angles. 3. Levels. 4. Solves right-angled plane triangles. 5. Oblique-angled plane triangles. 6. Answers all the purposes of a protractor, with the advantage of laying down angles exactly as taken in the field. N. B. Captain Jordan's ingenious instrument answers nearly the same purposes.

Spirit-level. See Air Level.

By the term level is also to be understood the line of direction in which any massive weapon is aimed.

LEVELLER, (Nivelleur, Fr.) a term 409
not known in military phraseology, as far as it relates to rank and situation. See Levelling system.

Levelling; the finding a line parallel to the horizon at one or more stations, and so to determine the height of one place in regard to another.

A truly level surface is a segment of any spherical substance, which is concentric to the globe of the earth. A true line of level is an arch of a great circle which is imagined to be described upon a truly level surface.

The apparent level is a straight line drawn tangent to an arch or line of true level. Every point of the apparent level except the point of contact, is higher than the true level.

The common methods of levelling are sufficient for laying pavements of walks, for conveying water to small distances, for placing horizontal dials, or astronomical instruments; but in levelling the bottoms of canals or ditches in a fortification, which are to convey water to the distance of many miles, the difference between the apparent and true level must be taken into the account.

Dr. Halley suggests a method of levelling, which is performed wholly by the barometer, in which the mercury is found to be suspended to so much the less height, as the place is more remote from the centre of the earth. Hence it follows, that the different height of the mercury in two places gives the difference of level.

Mr. Derham, from some observations at the top and bottom of the monument in London, found that the mercury fell 1-10th of an inch at every 82 feet of perpendicular ascent, when the mercury was at 30 inches. Dr. Halley allows of 1-10th of an inch for every 30 yards; and considering how accurately barometers are now made, we think this method sufficiently exact to take levels for the conveyance of water, or any other military purposes, and indeed less liable to errors than the common levels. Mr. Derham also found a difference of 3 inches 8-10ths between the height of the mercury at the top and bottom of Snowdon-hill, in Wales.

For the common occasions of levelling, set a pole upright in a spring, pond, &c. and mark how many feet and inches are above water; then set up another pole, of equal length with the other, in the place to which the water is to come. Place the centre of a quadrant on the top of this last pole, the plummet hanging free; spy through the sights the top of the pole in the water, and if the thread cuts any degree of the quadrant, the water may be conveyed by a pipe laid in the earth. If you cannot see from one extreme to the other, the operation may be repeated.

Levelling staves, instruments used in levelling, that carry the marks to be observed, and at the same time measure the heights of those marks from the ground. These usually consist of two wooden square rulers that slide over one another, and are divided into feet, inches, &c.

Levelling has two distinct applications in the art of war, in the one case it implies the reduction of an uneven surface to that of a plane, so that the works of a fortification may be of a correspondent height or figure throughout. The other is the art of conveying water from one place to another; in this process, it is found necessary to make an allowance between the true and apparent level, or in other words, for the figure of the earth, for the true level is not a straight line, but a curve which falls below the straight line about 8 inches in a mile, 4 times 8 in two miles, 9 times 8 in 3 miles, 16 times 8 in 4 miles, always increasing with the square of the distance.

Levelling system, (système des niveleurs, Fr.) a term which since the commencement of the French revolution has been grossly misinterpreted, and cannot be found in any civilized country to answer any other purpose than that of delusion; such was the proposed agrarian system of the Romans; and such the absurd suggestion of the sanguinary Marat in the height of the French mania. The present government has, however, sufficiently proved the absurdity of its doctrine; which is to make all things common among men.

Lever, a balance which rests upon a certain determinate point, called a fulcrum.

Lever, in mechanics, an inductive line, rod, or beam, moveable about, or upon a fixed point, called the prop or fulcrum, upon one end of which is the weight.
weight to be raised, at the other end is
the power applied to raise it; as the
hand, &c.

Since the momentum of the weight
and power are as the quantities of mat-
ter in each, multiplied by their respec-
tive celerities; and the celerities are as
the distances from the center of motion,
and also as the spaces passed through
in a perpendicular direction in the same
time, it must follow, that there will be
an equilibrium between the weight and
power, when they are to each other re-
ciprocally as the distances from the cen-
tre, or as the celerities of the motions,
or as the perpendicular ascent or de-
scent in the same time; and this uni-
versally in all mechanical powers whatso-
ever, and which is therefore the funda-
mental principle of all mechanics. See
Mechanical Powers.

LEVFT, a lesson on the trumpet.

LEVIER, Fr. Lever. The French
writers having been more explicit on
this head than any of our lexicographers,
we shall extract the following passages
as conducive to general information.—
The lever or lever is an instrument
made of wood or iron, by whose means
the heaviest weights may be raised with
few hands. When the lever is made of
iron, it is called pinc or crow. The
lever may be considered as the first of
all machines. Wheels, pulleys, capstan,
&c. act only by the power it possesses.
The lever must be looked upon as a
straight line, which has three principal
points; namely, the one on which the
load is placed, and which is to be rais-
ed, the appui or rest which is the cen-
ter round which it turns, and which the
French mechanics call orgueil, and last-
ly, the human arm, which is the power
that puts the lever into motion. The
different arrangements or dispositions
which are given to these three points, or
rather the unequal distances at which
they are placed, occasion the force that
is collectively displayed.

Belidor makes the following remarks
on this useful machine. It is an inflex-
ible bar which must be considered as
having no weight in itself, upon which
three powers are made to act, in three
different points, in such a manner, that
the action of two powers must be di-
rectly opposed to the one that resists
them. The point where the opposing
power acts is called the point d'appui.

LEVIER, in artillery, a wedge.

LEVIER de pointage, Fr. a wedge to
assist in pointing pieces of ordnance.

LEVIERS de support, Fr. a wedge by
which cannon is raised to a certain line
of direction.

To LEVY, has three distinct military
acceptations, as to levy or raise an
army; to levy or make war; and, to levy
contributions.

LEVY, the levying or raising of troops,
by enregistering the names of men capa-
ble of bearing arms for the common de-
fence and safety of a country, has from
time immemorial been a leading princi-
ple among men.

There are indeed some people still ex-
isting, who indiscriminately go to war;
leaving, for the immediate security of
their huts or habitations, only their old
men, their wives and children.

Among the Romans, however, and in
some other civilized countries, it was a
prevailing maxim never to employ above
a certain proportion of matured popu-
lation, and that proportion consisted
uniformly of men who were expert at
arms. National assemblies were called
together, whenever the situation of the
country required, that the senate's de-
cree should be published and put into
effect.

The levying or raising of troops for
service was regulated in the following
manner, under two specific heads, called
ordinary and extraordinary levy. The
ordinary levy took place in consequence
of a decree from the senate, by which
all males of a certain age were called
out to do military service; the extraor-
dinary levy was enforced, when a defi-
ciency was found in the ordinary levy
to answer the immediate exigencies of
the state.

The extraordinary levy, which was
further distinguished by the word eva-
cation, (see escouti) was performed as
follows. A public orator mounted the
rostrum, and after having expatiated
upon the urgency of the case, and paid
a handsome tribute of commendation to
all who should voluntarily step forward
to defend their country, he entrusted
the conclusion of the business to two
superior officers who were to command
the new levies.

These officers instantly unfurled two
flags, and emphatically exclaimed, Let
all those brave men who have the safety
of the Republic at heart, flock to our standards! A red flag was the rallying mark for all who were to serve on foot, and a blue flag pointed out the rendezvous for cavalry. Every one was at liberty to choose the service he liked best.

With respect to the ordinary levy by which every citizen was liable to be called upon for personal service, it was conducted in the following manner.

All the different tribes into which the inhabitants of the country were divided, assembled in places marked out for that purpose, and as soon as a whole tribe, consisting of males only, had entered, the public crier called over, in a distinct and audible manner, the names of four persons, after which the first military tribune (from among those of that rank who were to command the intended legion) selected one out of the four, and had him enrolled.

The crier then called over the names of four others belonging to the same class, and the second tribune selected one from the four in the same manner as the first had done. This selection went on through the different classes, until the whole tribe was decimated, and another tribe was then subjected to the same rotation: Legions were formed out of these levies, and completed to so effective a strength, that three of them generally composed a Roman army. The Romans readily submitted to these calls of the state; and they did so the more cheerfully, because it was a fundamental rule amongst them, that no man could be provided for, in a military or civil way, unless he had served a prescribed number of years.

Kennett, in his Antiquities of Rome, gives the following account, which the reader will perceive differs in some particulars from the former.

"At the same time of the year as the consuls were declared elect or designed, they chose the military tribunes; fourteen out of the body of the Equites who had served in the army five years, and ten out of the commonality, such as had made ten campaigns. The former they called tribuni juniores, and the latter seniores.

The consuls having agreed on a levy (as, in the time of the common-wealth, they usually did every year,) they issued out an edict, commanding all persons who had reached the military age (about seventeen years) to appear (commonly) in the capitol or in the area before the capitol, as the most sacred and august place, on such a day. The people being come together, and the consuls who presided in the assembly having taken their seat, in the first place the four and twenty tribunes were disposed of according to the number of legions they designed to make up, which was generally four. The junior tribunes were assigned, four to the first legion, three to the second, and last. After this, every tribe, being called out by lot, was ordered to divide into their proper centuries; out of each century were soldiers cited by name, with respect to their estate and class; for which purpose, there were tables ready at hand, in which the name, age, and wealth of every person were exactly described. Four men, as much alike in all circumstances as could be pitched upon, being presented out of the century, first the tribunes of the first legion chose one, then the tribunes of the second another, the tribunes of the third legion a third man, and the remaining person fell to the tribunes of the fourth. Then four more were drawn out; and now the right of choosing first belonged to the tribunes of the second legion; in the next four to the tribunes of the third legion, then to the tribunes of the fourth legion, and so round; those tribunes choosing last the next time, who chose first the time before; the most equal and regular method imaginable.

Cicero has remarked a superstitious custom observed in these proceedings; that the first soldiers pitched upon should, for the omens's sake, be such as had fortunate names, as Salvius, Valerius, and the like. Cic. de Divinat. lib. 1

There were in those times, (as in the present with respect to the British militia) many legal excuses which might keep persons from the list; as, in case they were fifty years old, for then they could not be obliged to serve; or if they enjoyed any civil or sacred office, which they could not conveniently relinquish; or if they had already made twenty campaigns, which was the time required for every foot soldier; or if, upon account of extraordinary merit, they had been
by public authority, released from the
trouble of serving for such a time; or if
they were maimed in any part, and so
ought not to be admitted into the legi-
sions; as Suetonius tells us of a father
who cut off the thumbs of his two sons,
on purpose to keep them out of the
army (Sueton. August. chap. 24.) and
Valerius Maximus gives a relation of
the like nature. (Val. Max. lib. 6. cap. 3.)
Hence the Roman phrase politce trunci
signified cowards or poltroons, having
cut off their thumbs to avoid military
service.

Otherwise they were necessitated to
submit, and in case of a refusal, were
usually punished either with imprison-
ment, fine, or stripes, according to the
lenity or severity of the consul. And
therefore it seems strange, that Machia-
vel should particularly condemn the
Roman discipline, upon account of
forcing no one to the wars, when we
have in all parts of history, such large
intimations of a contrary practice. Nay,
we read too of the conquestores or im-
press-masters, who were commissioned
upon some occasions, to go about, and
compel men to the service of the state.

Valerius Maximus (lib. 6. chap. 3.)
gives one example of changing this cus-
tom of taking out every particular sol-
dier by the tribunes, for that of choosing
them by lot. And Appianus Alex-
andrinius (in Iberic.) acquaints us, that
in the Spanish war, managed by Lucul-
lus, upon complaint to the senate of
several unjust practices in the levies,
the fathers thought fit to choose all the
soldiers by lot. Yet the same author
assures us, that within five years time
the old custom returned of making the
levies in the manner already described.

However, upon any extraordinary oc-
casion of immediate service, they omit-
ted the common formalities, and with-
out much distinction, listed such as
they met with, and led them out on an
expedition. These they called Milites
B. 4.

The French followed the example of
the Romans with regard to the first
principles of levying men, which was
affected by a proclamation from the
court called the ban. This ban was ad-
ressed to the principal person belonging to
a province, who, in pursuance to its
instructions, assembled his vassals,
and got them fit and ready for imme-
diate service.

In England a similar rotation took
place; and the balloting for militia-men
still exhibits some remains of that feu-
dal system. But when regular armies
became necessary in Europe (necessary
only from the ambition of contiguous
and rival nations!) a different system
was adopted, and the natural strength
of the country was made a secondary
object. Disposable means of offence
and defence were resorted to by crowned
heads; and as war became a science,
permanent bodies of armed men were
kept on foot to answer the purposes of
prompt and vigorous decision.

Charles VIII. was the first monarch
among the French who dispensed with
the service of his noblemen, in them-
selves and vassals; these he replaced by
raising regular companies of gendarmes,
who were paid out of his privy purse;
in process of time cavalry and infantry
regiments, with appropriate trains of ar-
tillery, &c. were formed into military
establishments, which have continued
ever since.

During the existence of the old go-
vernment in France, it was customary
for the King to issue orders that a cer-
tain bounty should be offered to all re-
cruits who would enlist; and when re-
giments, in time of war, suffered mate-
rially, men were frequently drafted
out of the militia, to complete their
establishment.

With respect to the standing or per-
manent army of England, the first traces
of it are to be found during the reign of
Henry VII.; from that period until the
present time the military establishment
of Great Britain has been progressive.
Levies have been made in various ways,
upon various principles, and the system
itself has, during the last year, assumed
a more regular form than can be found
in the history of this country. England
however, has so far preserved its attach-
ment to a constitutional force, as never
to have witnessed a coercive draught
from the militia. Levies have been
made, and the line has been completed
from this nursery; but these levies have
uniformly answered the ends of go-
vernment, by voluntarily joining the
standard of invitation. We do not,
however, hesitate to repeat, (what is
stated in the Regimental Companion),
that
that the militia should be rendered sub-
servient to the line in the most unqua-
lified manner.

LEVEY, likewise means inlisting mo-
ney, as levy-money.

LIBRARY Regimental. A collection of
military books, charts, and plans, ne-
necessary to be studied by every of-
cer who wishes to be acquainted with his
profession. They are placed in boxes,
which being set one upon the other, in
a room or tent, and having their upper
lid taken off, present the appearance
of a book-case, and in a few minutes
each box can be separated from the
other, and the whole may be stowed
away with the rest of the baggage. A
day's pay from every officer yearly,
and a small present on every promotion
is sufficient for the establishment, and
the junior officer in quarters might be
librarian. None but military books
should be admitted, and the selection
of them should be left to those above
the rank of lieutenant.

General Wolfe having shewn some
general officers how expert his men were
at a new mode of attacking and retreat-
ing upon hills, stepped up to one of
them, and asked him what he thought
of it. I think, said he, I see something
here of the history of the Carduchi,
who harrassed Xenophon, and hung up
on his rear in his retreat over the moun-
tains. You are right, said Wolfe, I
had it thence: but our friends here are
surprised at what; I have shewn them,
because they have read nothing.

LICE, Fr. List for combats.

LICENCEMENT des troupes, Fr.
an order to go into winter quarters.

At the end of a campaign this generally
happened in France, when troops could
not any longer keep the field owing to
the severity of the weather. In former
times it was usual, during the continu-
ance of a war, for the French army to
retire into winter quarters, about the
latter end of October. But since the
revolution, hostilities have been carried
on at all seasons, and under the most dis-
heartening pressure of the atmosphere.

LICENCEMENT des équipages des vi-
gres, Fr. It was usual in the old French
army, for an order to be issued by which
the contractors and commissaries for the
time being were discharged at the close
of a campaign. The director general
of the stores always preserved this or-
der, as it formed the only final voucher,
upon which the contractors could re-
ceive any demand against government.
The greatest attention was paid to this
important branch of military economy;
and, if at the conclusion of a campaign,
it was found necessary to retain any part
of the establishment for the immediate
subsistence of the troops in winter
quarters, that part was minutely noticed
in the order.

LICENCIER, Fr. to discharge.

LIDE, Fr. a warlike machine, which
was formerly used to throw large stones
against a fortified place, or upon an
enemy.

To LIE, in a military acceptance of
the term, to be in quarters, in canton-
ments, or to be in camp: the 29th re-
giment of foot, for instance, lies encamped
between Richmond and Wind-
sor; or it lies at Windsor. The light
dragoons lie along the coast.

To LIE in ambush, to be posted in such
a manner as to be able to surprise your
enemy, should he presume to advance,
without having previously cleared the
woods, hedges, &c.

To LIE under cover, to be under the
protection of a battery, or to be shel-
tered by a wood, &c.

To LIE in wait, to take a position un-
observed by the enemy, and to remain
under arms, in expectation of suddenly
falling upon his flanks or rear.

To give the LIE. See DEMENTI, Fr.

LIEU, Fr. League. There are three
sorts of lieues or leagues in France, the
great, middling, and small. The great
French league contains three thousand
geometrical paces, or two thousand five
hundred toises; and the small league
two thousand geometrical paces, that
is, twice the extent of the Italian mile:
which is so called, because it contains
one thousand geometrical paces. Ac-
cording to an old existing regulation,
the leagues of France were directed to
contain two thousand two hundred toises,
and two thousand six hundred and forty
geometrical paces.

In LIEU, In the room, place, or
stead of.

LIEUTENANCY, (Lieutenence, Fr.)
the post, station, &c. of a lieutenant.

LIEUTENANT. This word is ori-
originally derived from the Latin legatus,
lucum tenens, and comes immediately
to us from the French lieu-tenant, sup-
plying
plying or holding the place of another. In a military sense it means the second person or officer in command. As lord lieutenant, one who represents the person of the prince, or others in authority; lieutenant-general, the next in command to a general; lieutenant-colonel the next to a colonel; captain-lieutenant, an intermediate rank; and lieutenant the next to a captain, in every company of both foot and horse, and who takes the command upon the death or absence of the superior officer. Fusilier corps, grenadiers, and light infantry, have second lieutenants and no ensigns.

Lieutenant of Artillery. Each company of artillery has 4; 1 first and 3 second lieutenants. The first lieutenant has the same detail of duty with the captain, because in his absence he commands the company; he is to see that the soldiers are clean and neat: that their clothes, arms, and accoutrements are in good and serviceable order; and to watch over every thing else which may contribute to their health. He must give attention to their being taught their exercise, see them punctually paid, their messes regularly kept, and visit them in the hospitals when sick. He must assist at all parades, &c. He ought to understand the doctrine of projectiles and the science of artillery, with the various effects of gunpowder, however managed or directed. He should likewise be able to construct and dispose batteries to the best advantage; to plant cannon, mortars, and howitzers, so as to produce the greatest annoyance to an enemy. He is to be well skilled in the attack and defence of fortified places, and to be conversant in arithmetic, mathematics, and mechanics, &c.

Second Lieutenant, in the artillery, is the same as an ensign in an infantry regiment, being the youngest commissioned officer in the company. It is his duty to assist the first lieutenant in the detail of the company. His other qualifications should be the same as those required in the first lieutenant.

Lieutenant of Engineers. See Engineers.

Lieutenant Colonel. See Colonel.

Lieutenant General. See General.

Lieutenant du Roi, Fr. During the monarchy of France there was a duty governor in every fortified place, or strong town, who commanded in the absence of the governor, and was a check upon his conduct when present. This person was called lieutenant du Roi.

Lieutenant Reduced, (Lieutenant Reformé, Fr.) he whose company or troop is broke or disbanded, but who continues on whole or half pay, and still preserves his right of seniority and rank in the army.

Lieutenant de la Colonelle, Fr. the second officer, or what we stile the captain lieutenant of the colonel's company of every infantry regiment was so called in France.

Lieutenants des Gardes Françaises et Suisses, Fr. lieutenants belonging to the French and Swiss guards. During the existence of the monarchy in France they bore the rank of lieutenant-colonel, and took precedence of all captains.

Lieutenants Provinciaux d'Artillerie, Fr. were certain officers belonging to the old French service, and immediately attached to the artillery, who bore the title or name of the particular province in which they were stationed. The majority of this description were employed in the ordnance department; another part superintended different artillery departments upon the frontiers. Some were excused from all duty on account of their age and seniority.

Several provincial lieutenants, who had military employments under the board of ordnance, received the rank of lieutenant general in the army from the king, and could rise to the most exalted stations in common with other officers.

Lieutenant Général, Fr. The title and rank of lieutenant general, was of a less confused nature in France under the old government of that country than it is with us. High officers of justice were distinguished by the name; and all governors of provinces, as far as their jurisdiction extended, together with the person who acted under them, were called lieutenants-généraux. There were likewise persons who bore the title of lieutenant-general of the kingdom at large. Every officer, moreover, that acted immediately under a general, and was next to him in rank, was stiled lieutenant-general. It is the same,
same, in this respect, amongst us. In both countries, however, (considering the subject as appertaining to a monarchical institution) the title of general was only ostensible and honorary, as his functions were delegated to him by his sovereign, the real general and head of the army. So that intrinsically a general can only be considered as lieutenant-general to the king; but a lieutenant-general who acts under him, must be viewed as holding a relative rank inferior to both. The words of the two commissions sufficiently explain our observation. They are as follow, for a lieutenant-general with the nominal rank of general:—*We have made and constituted N. our lieutenant-general,* &c. and for those acting under him:—*We have made and constituted N. one of our lieutenant-generals.* Which plainly indicates, that of the first class there can only be one who represents his sovereign; whereas there are, and may be many of the other description. Lieutenant-generals, in the French service, did not receive any pay, in consequence of the rank they bore, unless they actually commanded some part of the army, and received a commission from the king for that purpose. This commission was renewed annually, according to his Majesty's pleasure.

**Lieutenant-Général d'Artillerie.**

See *Lieutenant-general of the Ordnance.*

**Lieutenant-Général des armées Navales du Roi.** Fr. an officer in the old French service, belonging to the naval department. He took rank of all chefs d'escadre, or commodores, and issued orders through them to inferior officers.

**LIFE-GUARDS.**—See *Guards.*

**LIGE homme,** Fr. a person on whom the lord of the manor had more ascendency than over a common vassal.

**LIGHT BOBS,** a familiar term used for the light infantry.

**LIGHT HORSE.** All mounted soldiers, that are lightly armed and accounted for active and desultory service, may be considered under this term. Thus light dragoons, fencible cavalry, mounted yeomanry, &c. are, strictly speaking, light-horse.

The city *Light-horse* is a particular body of men, consisting chiefly of rich merchants belonging to the city, who first formed themselves into a corps in 1779. Great attention has been paid during the late and the present war to the discipline of these gentlemen. They have frequently been honoured with his Majesty's presence; and if their capability of service be viewed through the influence they possess from immense wealth and credit, aided by an esprit de corps, which makes them sacrifice private convenience for public duty, the city light horse must be allowed no inconsiderable weight in the scale of metropolitan defence. They are now called the Light Horse Volunteers.

**LIGHT INFANTRY,** a body of active, strong men, selected from the aggregate of battalion companies, and made up of the most promising recruits that are occasionally enlisted.

When the light infantry companies are in line with their battalions, they are to form and act in every respect as a company of the battalion; but when otherwise disposed of, they may loosen their files to six inches.

The open order of light infantry is usually two feet between each file.

The files may be extended from right, left, or center; in executing it, each front rank man must carefully take his distance from the man next to him on that side from which the extension is made: the rear rank men conform to the movement of their file-leaders.

When light infantry men fire in extended order, it is to be a standing rule, that the two men of the same file are never unloaded together; for which purpose as soon as the front rank man has fired, he is to slip round the left of the rear rank man, who will take a short pace forward, and put himself in the other's place, whom he is to protect while loading.

The extended order of light infantry varies according to circumstances and situations. They may sometimes loosen their files to three times the distance of open order. But the general rule is to allow convenient intervals for the rear rank men to slip by, and return after they have fired.

All movements of light infantry, except when firing, advancing, or retreating, are to be in quick time.

The officer commanding the company will
will be on the right, covered by a serjeant; the next on the left also covered by a serjeant, and the youngest officer in the rear. In extended order the post of the officers and serjeants is always in the rear at equal distances.

In marching by files the officer commanding leads: by divisions, each officer leads one. The supernumerary officer, if there be one, is in both cases with the officer commanding, ready to obey any directions he may receive from him.

The arms of light infantry in general will be carried sloped, and with the bayonets fixed. Flanking or advanced parties, however, or parties in particular situations, may carry them trailed, and without bayonets, for the purpose of taking a more cool and deliberate aim.

When the light infantry is ordered to cover the line to the front, the divisions will move from their inner flanks round the flanks of the battalions, and when at the distance of fifty paces, the leading flanks will wheel towards each other, in order to meet opposite the center of the battalion, opening their files gradually from the rear, so as to cover the whole extent of the battalion.

The files are not to wait for any word of command, but to halt and front themselves. In this position, and in all positions of extended order, the post of the officer commanding is in the rear of the center, and the movements are to be regulated by the company belonging to the battalion, which governs those of the line. For a fuller explanation of light company manoeuvres, see page 273 to page 281 of Infantry Regulations.

Light infantry men, like hussars, are frequently detached to act as scouts on the flanks, in the front, or with the rear guard of the body of troops to which they belong. They then acquire the appellation of skirmishers, and being previously told off for that specific duty, they advance and form in the front in rank entire; which is effected by each man from the rear rank placing himself on the left of his file leader. The rank entire may be resorted to for various purposes during the movements of one or more battalions, since it may serve not only to cover them from the enemy's observation, but in some cases, especially in foggy weather, will itself appear a larger body than it really is. Too much attention cannot be given to the organization of light troops on foot. They are very properly called the eyes of an army, and ought always to be considered as indispensably necessary.

LIGHT TROOPS, (troupes légères, Fr.) By light troops are generally meant all horse and foot which are accoutered for detached service.

LIGNE, Fr. See LINE.

LIGNE d'Eau, Fr. a term used in aquatics. It is the hundred and fortieth portion of an inch of water, and furnishes or supplies one hundred and four pints of water, Paris measure, in twenty-four hours.

LIGNES en forme de Crêmaillère, Fr. indented lines, or lines resembling the teeth of a saw, or pot-hook: they are connected with one another like crotchets; or united by small flanks comprising fourteen or fifteen toises each. M. de Clairac has given a particular account of their construction in his Ingénieur de Campagne. The effect, observes that writer, which is produced by the concentrated fire that may be poured from these lines, is perhaps unexampled. One advantage is certain, that of being able to increase your efforts of defence, in proportion as the enemy advances; since it must be evident, that constructed as the flanks are, and encasing one another, the execution becomes multiplied in every quarter. It may moreover be stated among other advantages, that as the salient points are double in number, and are flanked within half a distance of musket-shot, without stretching far into the country, they must, of course, be less exposed to the enemy's approaches. From the figure of these lines the troops are enabled to keep up an uninterrupted and regular direct fire; and it is the only construction from which an equal discharge of ordnance or musketry may be served in every quarter at once.

LIMBER, in artillery, a two-wheel carriage with shafts to fasten the trail of travelling carriages by means of a pintle or iron pin, when travelling, and taken off on the battery, or when placed in the park of artillery; which is called unlimbering the guns.

To LIMBER up, to make every thing ready in a gun-carriage, either for the purpose
LINCH-pin, in artillery, that which passes through the ends of the arms of an axle-tree, to keep the wheels or trucks from slipping off in travelling.

LINCH-clout, in artillery, the flat iron under the end of the arms of an axle-tree, to strengthen them, and to diminish the friction of the wheels.

LINDEN TREE, the wood used in artificial fireworks, &c.

LINE, in geometry, signifies length, without any supposed breadth or depth.

A straight or right line is the shortest way from one point to another. A curved or crooked line is that which deviates from the shortest way, and embraces a greater space between one point and another. A perpendicular line is a straight line, which falling upon another line does not incline either to one side or the other. Parallel lines are lines which are at equal distances from one another, in such a manner, that although they may be prolonged ad infinitum they never can meet.

Euclid's second book treats mostly of lines, and of the effects of their being divided, and again multiplied into one another.

Horizontal Line, (ligne horizontale, Fr.) is that which is spread upon the plane of the horizon; such, for instance, are those lines that may be supposed to form the level surface of a plain.

Incline Line, (ligne incliné, Fr.) is that line which leans or is raised obliquely upon the plane of the horizon, and which might resemble the sloping or declivity of a hillock.

Oblique Line, (ligne oblique, Fr.) a straight line which leans more to one side than another the instant it is brought into contact with any other line.

Line tangent, (ligne tangente, Fr.) a straight line, which, without intersecting it meets a curve at one point, and does not enter, but barely touches it.

Vertical Line, (ligne verticale, Fr.) a line which is raised perpendicularly above or below the horizon. Of this description are all lines that express height or depth.

The Line, (la ligne, Fr.) this term is frequently used to distinguish the regular army of Great Britain from other establishments of a less military nature. All numbered or marching regiments are 312 called
called the line. The guards are an exception to this rule. The marines, fencible, militia, volunteer, and yeomanry corps, together with the life-guards, do not come under the term. It is, however, a corruption and misapprehension of the word amongst us, since the true import of line in military matters, means that solid part of an army which is called the main body, and has a regular formation from right to left. Thus in the seven years war, when Prince Ferdinand commanded the allied army, the British troops under the Marquis of Granby did not belong to the line, because they were always detached and acted in front of the main body. Grenadiers and light infantry, when from their several corps, cannot be called the line, but the instant they are incorporated they become so. According to this explanation, and we think it a correct one, the word is generally misapplied amongst us, as it cannot strictly be used to distinguish any particular establishment from another. The French say troupes de ligne, which term corresponds with our expression, Army of the Line, or Regulars. Vaisseau de Ligne, Fr. line of battleship.

Line, or line of battle, (ligne, ou ordre de bataille, Fr.) is the arrangement or disposition of an army for battle: its front being extended along a straight line as far as the ground will permit, in order that the several corps of cavalry and infantry which compose it, may not be cut off or flanked by the enemy.

The Ottoman troops are generally drawn up on a curve line, or half-moon, for the purpose of surrounding their enemies by superior numbers. European armies are usually drawn up in three lines; the first being named the van, (avant-garde, Fr.) the second, main body, (corps de bataille, Fr.) and the third, which is always the weakest, is called the reserve, or rear-guard. (Corps de réserve, ou arrière-garde, Fr.) Each of these lines is so drawn up, that the wings or extremities are always composed of some squadrons of horse, whose intervals are likewise supported by infantry platoons. The battalions are posted in the center of each line; sometimes they are intermixed with squadrons of horse, when there is a considerable body of cavalry attached to the army.

The space of ground, which in each line separates the different corps from one another, is always equal in extent to the front that is occupied by them. These intervals are left in order to facilitate their several movements, and to enable them to charge the enemy without being exposed to confusion and disorder. It must be observed, as a general rule, that the intervals or spaces which are between each battalion and squadron belonging to the second line, should invariably correspond with the ground that is occupied by the battalions and squadrons, which constitute the first line; in order that the first line, on being forced to fall back, may find sufficient ground to rally upon, and not endanger the disposition of the second line, by precipitately crowding on it.

It is particularly specified in the Regulations published by authority, that all great bodies of troops are formed in one or more lines.

Each line is divided into right and left wings. Each wing is composed of one or more divisions. Each division is composed of one or more brigades. Each brigade is formed of two, three, or four battalions.

Battalions are formed in line at a distance of twelve paces from each other, and this interval is occupied by two cannon, which are attached to each battalion. There is no increased distance betwixt brigades, unless particular circumstances attend it. In exercise, should there be no cannon betwixt the battalions, the interval may be reduced to six paces.

Line, how regulated. Its regulating body in movement is, in general, the battalion of that flank which is nearest to, and is to preserve the appui, or which is to make the attack. There are very few cases in which the center ought to regulate, although the direct march of the line in front appears to be the easiest conducted by a battalion of the center. It is the flank, however, that must preserve the line of appui in all movements in front. If the line is thrown backward or forward, it is generally on a flank point.

It may not be superfluous to remark, that the term line, as expressing a military disposition for battle, was not known until the sixteenth century.—Before that period, when armies were ranged
ranged in order of battle upon three lines, the first line was called advanced guard, (avant garde,) the second, main body only, (corps de bataille,) and the third, rear guard, (arrière-garde.)—These terms are never used in modern times, except when an army is on its march. When drawn up for action, or in the field for review, lines are substituted.

Lines of support, are lines of attack, which are formed to support one another. Where there are several, the second should outflank the first, the third the second; the advanced one being thereby strengthened and supported on its outward wing.

Line of March, the regular and tactical succession of the component parts of an army that is put in motion.

Lines of March, are bodies of armed men marching on given points to arrive at any straight alignment on which they are to form. The general direction of such alignment is always determined before the troops enter it, and the point in that line at which their head is to arrive, must next be ascertained. See Infantry Regulations, page 293.

The line is said to be well dressed, when no part is out of the straight alignment. That this may be effected, at the word dress, which is given by the commander, it is immediately to commence from the center of each battalion, the men looking to their own colours, and the correcting officers lining them upon the colours of their next adjoining battalion.

Line-frings are executed separately and independently by each battalion.

Inversion of the line, in formation.

This is a manœuvre which ought only to be resorted to on the most urgent occasions, as it is prudent to avoid the inversion of all bodies in line. The inversion is effected by facing a battalion or line to the right about, instead of changing its position by a countermarch; sometimes, indeed, it may be necessary to form to a flank with its rear in front. The column with its right in front may arrive on the left of its ground, and be obliged immediately to form up and support that point, so that the right of the line will become the left. Part of a second line may double round on the extremity of a first line, thereby to outflank an enemy.

These, and various other movements, may be found necessary, and they can only be practised with safety and expedition by the inversion of the line. See Infantry Regulations, page 286.

Lines advancing to engage an enemy. (Lignes marchant à l ennemi, Fr.) According to Marshal Puységur, all lines should take the center for the regulating point of movement, and not the right, as many have maintained. He grounds his opinion upon a known fact, that the more extended a line is, the more difficult it must prove to march by the right. By making the center the directing portion of the line, more than half the difficulty is removed. To which it may be added, that the center is more easily discernible from the right and left, than the right is within the just observation of the left, or the left within that of the right.

When the line advances it must uniformly preserve a convexity from the center, so that when it halts, the right and left may have to dress up; but this convexity must be scarcely perceptible. Were the line to be concave on approaching the enemy, a necessity would occur of throwing the wings back, perhaps even of putting several corps to the right about; during which operation the whole army might be endangered.

When lines are marching forward they must be occasionally halted: in which cases the center halts first, and when the line is ordered to advance again, the center steps off, though in an almost imperceptible manner, before the right and left.

Each commanding officer must place himself in the center of that proportion of the line which he has under his immediate orders, unless he should be otherwise directed. The center is always the most convenient point, from whence every thing that passes on the right and left may be observed. When the line advances in charging order, he must march at the head of his battalion or squadron; the captains of troops or companies taking care, that he is followed with an equal cadenced step, and regulating their own movements by that of the divisions which are formed on their right and left.

The greater the extent of line proves, which is composed of several battalions and squadrons that advance forward with the
the same front, the more difficult will be the movement of the several bodies; but as we have already observed, a great part of this difficulty is overcome when the center is made the directing body. The right and left must be invariably governed by it.

Retiring Line, a body of armed men that has advanced against an opposing enemy in order of battle, withdrawing itself with regularity from the immediate scene of action. On this occasion it is of the greatest importance, that the line should be correctly dressed before it faces to the right about; and the battalions will prepare for the retreat in the manner prescribed for the single one by receiving the caution, that the line will retire. See page 243, Infantry Regulations.

To form the Line, in land tactics, is to arrange the troops in order of battle, or battle array.

To break the Line, to change the direction from that of a straight line, in order to obtain a cross fire.

To break the Line, (percer ou enfoncer la ligne, Fr.) to attack an opposing front, so as to throw it into confusion.

Turning out of the Line, in a military sense. The line turns out without arms whenever the general commanding in chief comes along the front of the camp.

When the line turns out, the private men are drawn up in a line with the bells-of-arms; the corporals on the right and left of their respective companies: the piquet forms behind the colours, with their accoutrements on, but without arms.

The serjeants draw up one pace in the front of the men, dividing themselves equally.

The officers draw up in ranks, according to their commissions, in the front of the colours; two ensigns taking hold of the colours.

The field officers advance before the captains.

The camp colours on the flanks of the parade are to be struck, and planted opposite to the bells-of-arms. Formerly the officer spontoons were planted between the colours, the serjeants pikes are now placed in their stead, and the drums piled up behind them; the halberts are to be planted between, and on each side the bells-of-arms, and the hatchets turned from the colours.

Full or close Lines, (lignes pleines, Fr.) Marshal Puysegur in his Art de la Guerre is a strong advocate for full or close lines, in his disposition of the order of battle, provided the ground will admit it. He proposes, in fact, that the battalions of infantry and the squadrons of horse should form one continuity of line, without leaving the least interval between them. Warnery, in his treatise on cavalry, differs materially from the French tactician. See page 38 on this subject.

Lines that are close and open, (lignes tant pleines que rouides, Fr.) When troops are drawn up in order of battle with intervals between the battalions and squadrons, the lines are said to be close and open.

Line, or Camp Courts Martial. These courts martial are not frequently resorted to, and differ from regimental ones, inasmuch as they are composed of the officers belonging to different corps, and the ratification of the sentence is vested in the general or commanding officer of the camp. So that no time is lost in waiting for the king’s pleasure, or for the commander in chief’s approbation, when he is delegated by him; nor has the colonel or commanding officer of the regiment to which the offender belongs, any power to interfere. The sentences of line or camp, field and garrison courts martial, are confined to corporal punishments, but they can neither affect life, nor occasion the loss of a limb. The proceedings are read by the adjutant of the day; the surgeon is from the regiment to which the prisoner belongs, and the punishment is inflicted in front of the piquet by the drummers of the different corps under the direction of the drum-major, who is from the regiment to which the adjutant of the day belongs. Field and drum-head courts martial, may be considered in the same light, when an army is on its march, with this difference, that the prisoner is tried either by officers belonging to his own corps, or by a mixed roster. A circle is formed at a short distance from the men under arms, and the sentence is written upon a drum-head; whence the appellation of drum-head courts martial is derived. When there are several
veral regiments present, the same forms are attended to in punishing prisoners as are observed in line or camp courts-martial; and when there is only one regiment, the examination and the punishment of the prisoner or prisoners take place within itself.

Lines, in fortification, bear several names and significations; such as,

- defence fichant
- defence raunt
- counter-vallation
- counter-approach
- defence prolonged

**Line of projectile.** See Projectiles.

**Line of the least resistance,** (ligne de moindre résistance, Fr.) that line, which being drawn from the center of the furnace or the chamber of a mine, takes a perpendicular direction towards the nearest superficial exterior.

**Line of fire,** (ligne de feu, Fr.) in fortification. This term admits of two distinct acceptations; first, when it is found necessary to give an idea of the manner in which a rampart, or an entrenchment overwhelsms and crosses any space of ground by the discharge of ordnance or musquetry, lines must be drawn to express the distances which have been traversed by the shot, &c. These lines are called lines of fire, being an abbreviation of those lines of direction which have been given to the shot.

In order to convey a more just and accurate conception of this species of line of fire, it is recommended to give a profile, which shall not only shew the curves of the trajectories, but likewise point out the intersections and impressions which have been made by such fire upon a rampart, entrenchment, ground, or fortification, of any description.

In the second place, all that extent of a rampart or entrenchment, from whence the shot of ordnance or musquetry is discharged, is understood to be a line of fire.

If, for instance, it were to be said that a reserve or oblique direction was taken against a long extent of rampart or entrenchment, by means of a jetée or any great work thrown up, so as to out-flank or take it in the rear, it might be concluded, that those points would be supplied with a long line of fire.

**Line of direction,** (Ligne de direction, Fr.) In mechanics any straight line drawn down which a heavy body descends. There are likewise lines of direction which relate to powers; they are then straight lines by means of which a power draws or urges on a weight for the purpose of supporting or moving it.

**Capital Line of the bastion,** (Ligne capital du bastion, Fr.) a line which is drawn from the center angle of a bastion to its flanked angle. In regular fortification this line cuts the bastion in two equal parts.

**Lines of intrenchment,** (Lignes re-
trenchées, Fr.) all lines which are drawn in front of a camp, &c. to secure it from insult or surprize are so called. Whenever an army is not sufficiently strong to run the hazard of being attacked, the general who commands it must have the precaution to dig a ditch in front measuring three toises at least in breadth, and two in depth. He must likewise throw up a parapet with redans, or have it flanked at intermediate distances by small bastions two toises thick, made of strong close earth, and get it covered and supported by fascines, with a banquette behind sufficiently high to cover the soldiers tents. If water can be got into the ditch from a neighbouring stream or rivulet, an additional advantage will be derived from that accession. When the lines are constructed for any space of time, it will then be proper to make a covertway in the usual manner.

Other lines are likewise constructed for the purpose of communicating with different quarters; great care must be taken lest any of them be exposed to the enemy’s enfilade. To prevent this they must be supported by redouts, or by works belonging to the neighbouring forts; for the enemy might otherwise make good his ground within them, and use them as a trench.

If an army is so weak as to be within lines, you take care to have communications between the villages, and small parties of light horse patrolling towards the enemy, and to have videttes and sentries posted so near one another, that you may have intelligence of all their transactions.

Line in fencing, that part of the body opposite to the enemy, wherein the shoulders, the right arm, and the sword, should always be found; and wherein are also to be placed the two feet at the distance of 18 inches from each other. In which sense, a man is said to be in his line, or to go out of his line, &c.

Line, also denotes a French measure, containing 1-19th part of an inch. It is of late frequently made use of in calculations.

To Line, from the French aligner, is to dress any given body of men, so that every individual part shall be so disposed as to form collectively a straight continuity of points from center to flanks.

To Line men. Officers, and non-commissioned officers, are said to line the men belonging to their several battalions, divisions, or companies, when they arrive at their dressing points, and receive the word dress from the commander of the whole.

When a single battalion halts, it is dressed or lined on its right center company, and must, of course, be in a straight line. When several battalions dress from the center of each on its next colour, the general line will be straight, provided all the colours have halted regularly in a line. On these occasions every thing will depend upon the two center dressers of each battalion. See Regulations, page 341.

To Line a Coast. To line a coast well under the immediate pressure of invasion, requires not only great ability and exertion in the commanding officer of the particular district against which an insult may be offered, but it is moreover necessary, that every individual officer in the different corps should minutely attend to the particular spot on which he may be stationed. The English coast, especially where there are bays, is almost always intersected by narrow passes through the rocks or sandhills. On this account, when any body of men receives orders to line a specified extent of ground, the officers who are entrusted with the several parts of a battalion or brigade, should take care to make the most of their men, and to extend their files in such a manner, as not only to present an imposing front from the crown of the hill, but to be able, at a moment’s warning, to carry their whole strength to prevent the enemy from getting upon the flanks by suddenly rushing up the gap. Much coolness is required on these occasions.

To Line hedges, &c. to plant troops, artillery, or small arms, along them under their cover, to fire upon an enemy that advances openly, or to defend them from the horse, &c.

To Line a street or road, is to draw up any number of men on each side of the street or road, and to face them inwards. This is frequently practised on days of ceremony, when some distinguished person is received with military honours on his way through places where troops are stationed. The
The road from Colchester to Lexden-heath was lined in this manner to receive the Duke and Duchess of Wirtemburg on their departure from England, in 1797. On this occasion the artillery fired a salute, the cavalry headed the infantry regiments, and each of the latter (facing inwards) presented arms successively as the Duke and Duchess passed.

To line, in fortification, is nothing more than to environ a rampart, parapet, or ditch, &c. with a wall of masonry or earth.

Linge et chaussure du soldat, Fr. necessaries belonging to a soldier. During the monarchy of France, a sol, or one English half-penny per day, was added to the pay of each serjeant, and about six deniers, or three English farthings, to that of each corporal, anspes-sade or lance-corpsal, grenadier, private soldier and drummer, to enable them to keep up a certain list of necessaries. On any deficiency being discovered, it was in the power of the commanding officer of the regiment to reduce the soldier’s subsistence to four sols, or two-pence English per day, until the full complement was made up.

Lingerer, (longis, Fr.) one who pretends to be indisposed, in order to avoid his tour of duty—a skulker. Hence the term malingerer, or a soldier who avoids duty in a disreputable manner.

To link together, to tie together. Cavalry horses are frequently linked together when it is found necessary for the men to dismount. When the word of command link your horses is given, the right hand files are to move up into the intervals, slip their bradoons, and dress by their right, standing in front of their own horses’ heads; the left files slipping the bradoons in their hands at the same time, and stepping to the front of their horses’ heads. As soon as up and dressed, the whole advance their left feet by a motion from the right, and by another motion from the right, the whole go to the left about together, and link; as soon as done linking, the left hand man of each rank falls back two paces from his horse, and the whole dress well to him, with the musquet in the trailing position. But before they do this, they must put their belts and plates in order.

It ought to be recollected, that when the right hand files come up, they must take care not to bring their horses past the others; and, in order to dress with the left files, they must slip the bradoon in the left hand, leaving the horse in his place in the rank.

When dragoons are ordered to dismount, and are to mount again immediately, without moving from their horses, the word of command unlink your horses is made use of; in which case the dragoon drops his musquet or carbine, which is then in the trailing position, on his left arm, and unlinks: as soon as that is done, he takes his musquet in his left hand, the horse in the right, by the right bradoon-rein, waiting for the word prepare to mount.

LINKS, in the art of war, are distinct reins, or thongs of leather used by the cavalry to link their horses together, when they dismount, that they may not disperse. Every tenth man is generally left to take care of them.

LINS-pins. See LINCHPINS.

LINSTOCK. (Boute-feu, Fr.) In gunnery, a short staff of wood, about three feet long, having at one end a piece of iron divided into two branches, each of which has a notch to hold a lighted match, and a screw to fasten it there; the other end being shod with iron to stick in the ground.

Lis, Fr. A warlike machine was formerly so called: it consisted of a piece of wood or stake, about the size of the human body, which was made smaller at the top than at the bottom, and resembled a lilly not yet blown. Several of these were tied together with osier or willow twigs, and were used for the security of a camp. They were not unlike the palisades of the present day.

Fleur de Lis, (Luce, Fr.) a flower borne in the ancient arms of France, and adopted by our kings until the late union with Ireland. The Electoral Cap, as emblematic of Hanover, and the shamrock for Ireland, have been substituted in their stead.

Fleur-de-Lis, during the French monarchy, signified also a mark of infancy, which was made with a hot iron, upon the back of a malefactor.

Lisse, Fr. any smooth and unornamented piece in architecture is so called by the French.

LISSOIRE, Fr. from liser to smooth.

SK This
This word was particularly applied in France, to an operation which gunpowder went through, in order to make coarse grains smooth and round. This was effected by tying several barrels together, and by means of a mill, turning them round, so as to occasion considerable friction within.

LISTS, in a military sense, a place inclosed, in which combats are fought.

To enter in the Lists, is to contend with a person.

To List soldiers, § to retain and enroll To inlist, to soldiers, either as volunteers, or by a kind of compulsion.

LISTING. Persons listed are to be carried within four days, but not sooner than twenty-four hours, after they have enlisted, before the next justice of peace of any county, riding, city, or place, or chief magistrate of any city or town corporate (not being an officer in the army); and if, before such justice or magistrate, they dissent from such listing, and return the listing money, and also 20 shillings in lieu of all charges expended on them, they are to be discharged.

But such persons, refusing or neglecting to return and pay such money within 24 hours, shall be deemed as duly listed, as if they had assented thereto before the proper magistrate; and they will, in that case, be obliged to take the oath, or, upon refusal, they shall be confined by the officer who listed them, till they do take it.

Persons, owning before the proper magistrate, that they voluntarily listed themselves, are obliged to take the oath, or suffer confinement by the officer who listed them, till they do take it.

The magistrate is obliged, in both cases, to certify, that such persons are duly listed; setting forth their birth, age, and calling, if known; and that the 2d and 6th sections of the Articles of War against mutiny and desertion were read to them, and that they had taken the oath.

Officers offending herein are to be cashiered, and displaced from their office; to be disabled from holding any post, civil or military; and to forfeit 100l.

Persons receiving inlisting money from any officer, knowing him to be such, and afterwards absconding, and refusing to go before a magistrate to declare their assent or dissent, are deemed to be inlisted to all intents and purposes, and may be proceeded against as if they had taken the oath. See Attestation.

Lit de Camp, Fr. a camp bed, which takes to pieces, and is portable. The French frequently call it lit briâ€​, or a bed taken to pieces. The Turks never use these beds: they always carry mattresses, which they spread upon sofas when they halt at night.

Litter, a sort of hurdle bed, on which wounded officers or men are carried off the field.

Little fortification. The first division of the first system of M. de Vauban, and is so called when the exterior side of a fortification does not exceed 175 toises, or 350 yards. It is used in the construction of citadels, small forts, horn, and crown works.

Livery. This word is only known in military matters by its prohibition. It is particularly specified in the Articles of War, that if any officer shall presume to muster any person as a soldier, who is at other times accustomed to wear a livery, or who does not actually do his duty as a soldier, he shall be deemed guilty of having made a false muster, and shall suffer accordingly. See Section IV. Art. V.

Livre, a French money of account, consisting of 20 sols, about 18d. English; each sol containing 12 deniers. The livre is of two kinds, Tournois and Parisis.

Livres Tournois contains 20 sols Tournois, and each sol 12 deniers Tournois.

Livres Parisis, is 12 sols Parisis, being worth 12 deniers Parisis, or 15 deniers Tournois; so that a livre Parisis is worth 25 sols Tournois. The word Parisis is used in opposition to Tournois, because of the rate of money, which was one-fourth higher at Paris than at Tours.

Livre bataille, Fr. To deliver, give or join battle.

Livre assaut, Fr. To storm.

Livre une ville au pillage, Fr. to give a town up to plunder.

LOAD, a word of command given, when men are to charge their guns or muskets.

Lochaber-
LOCHASLER AXE, a tremendous Scotch weapon, now used by none but the town guard of Edinburgh; one of which is to be seen among the small armoury in the tower of London.

LOCKS, in gunnery, are of various sorts; common for lockers in travelling carriages, or for boxes containing shot, powder or cartridges. Also locks for fire-arms, being that part of the musket, by which fire is struck and the powder inflamed.

LOCK-STEP. This step was first introduced into the British service by the late Lord Heathfield, when he commanded the garrison at Gibraltar; and is the same that General Salderon (from whose works all our regulations have been almost literally selected) calls the deploy step. This step consists in the heel of one man being brought nearly in contact with the joint of the great toe of another, so that when men step off together, they constantly preserve the same distance. The lock or deploy step is always practised when a battalion marches in file or close column; and the great advantage to be derived from it, is that the last file gains ground at the same time that the front advances.

To LOCK, is to fasten one or more of the wheels of a carriage from going round, in going down a hill, &c.

To LOCK up, to take the closest possible order in line or in file. The expression is derived from the lock-step.

Lock up! a word of command which is frequently used in the British service, to direct soldiers to take or preserve the closest possible order, especially in filemarching.

LOCKER hinges, serve to fasten the cover of the lockers in travelling carriages.

LOCKING plates, in artillery, are thin flat pieces of iron, nailed on the sides of a field carriage, where the wheels touch it in turning, to prevent the wearing the wood in those places. See Carriage.

LOCKSPIT, in field fortification, a small cut or trench made with a spade, about a foot wide, to mark out the first lines of a work.

To LODGE ARMS. A word of command which is used on guards and pickets. When a guard has closed its ranks, and the men are to place their arms in front of the guard-house or quarter-guard, according to circumstances, the commanding officer gives the words port arms, to the right, or right about, (as the case may be) face. Lodge Arms.

LODGING-MONEY. When a regiment is quartered in a town, and there are not sufficient accommodations to answer the required number of billets, an allowance is made to the officers according to rank. The gross amount is charged in the paymaster's abstract. For particulars, see Military Finance.

LODGINGS. Officers billeted in the suburbs of Edinburgh, pay for their lodging, but no where else in Scotland.

LODMENT, in military business, is a work made by the besiegers in some part of a fortification, after the besieged have been driven out, for the purpose of maintaining it, and to be covered from the enemy's fire. It also means possession of an enemy's work.

When a lodgment is to be effected on the glacis, covert-way, or in a breach, there must be a great provision made of fascines, sand bags, gabions, wool packs, &c. in the trenches; and during the action, the pioneers (under the direction of an engineer) with fascines, sand bags, &c. should be making the lodgment, in order to form a covering, while the grenadiers are storming the covert way, &c.

LOGARITHMS, the indexes of the ratios of numbers, one to another.

LOGEMENT, Fr. means generally any place occupied by military men, for the time being, whether they be quartered upon the inhabitants of a town, or be distributed in barracks. When applied to soldiers that have taken the field, it is comprehended under the several heads of huts, tents, &c.

Logement d'une attaque, Fr. See Lodgment in Fortification.

SE LOGER, Fr. to take up one's quarters. It likewise signifies to take a position in the neighbourhood of an enemy's camp; or to make a lodgment in the outworks of a besieged place.

LOGIS, Fr. Quarters.

Murguer les Logis, Fr. to mark the officers' rooms according to their respective ranks.

SK 2 LONDON,
LONDON, the capital of the British empire, and the emporium of the world.

London, City of, exempt from the billeting of soldiers by the 31st section of the mutiny act.

LONDON Military District. The bounds or extent of a military command, in and about the capital of Great Britain. It is commanded at present by one general, one lieutenant-general, six major generals, three brigadier-generals, with a proportionate staff: the whole being subject to the commander in chief.

London Militia, two regiments called the East and West London Militia, were raised during the late war, for the immediate security of the city and its environs. The officers are appointed by the lieutenants commissioned for the militia of the city.

Long Boat, the largest boat belonging to a ship: it serves to bring goods, provisions, &c. to or from the ship, to land men, to weigh the anchor, &c.

Le long de la Côte, Fr. Along the coast.

Tout du long de l'année, Fr. all the year round.

Long à la guerre, Fr. an expression used in the French service, to express a circuitous march. It also signifies to leave a considerable opening between the ranks, and is the same as faire long bois.

Prendre le plus long, Fr. to go the furthest way about, as l'armée fut obligée de prendre le plus long pour éviter les défils; the army was under the necessity of going the furthest way about in order to avoid the defiles.

LONGER, Fr. a French military phrase. Longuer la rivière. To move up or down the river. It is frequently found necessary to attack an enemy's post in order to have a free passage on the river, pour longuer la rivière.

Longer le bois, Fr. to march by the side of a wood.

Longer l'ennemi, Fr. to follow the movements of an enemy, so as to prevent his crossing a river; or to march upon his flank, in front or rear, that you may defeat his plans, or attack him with advantage.

Faire une longue marche, Fr. to make a long march.

Épée de longueur, Fr. a sword of a proper length to serve as a weapon of defence. This term is used to distinguish it from the short swords, which are worn for mere dress or parade.

Longs côtés, Fr. those sides are so called, which belong to places that are irregularly fortified, and contain indiscriminately eighty toises and upwards. In which cases they are usually strengthened by a flat bastion in the center, or by several flat bastions, which are constructed, according to the extent of the sides, at intermediate distances.

LONGIMETRY, (Longimétrie, Fr.) the art of measuring lands and distances, whether the extent or space be accessible as in a road, or inaccessible as in a river or branch of the sea.

LONGITUDE of the earth, denotes its extent from west to east, according to the direction of the equator.

LONGITUDE of a place, in geography, its distance from some first meridian, or an arch of the equator intercepted between the meridian of the place, and the first meridian. See Geography.

LONGITUDE of motion, according to some philosophers, is the distance which the center of any moving body runs through, as it moves on in a right line. See Motion.

LONGRINIS, Fr. pieces of wood or branches, which are laid along the extent of a sluice, and make part of its grating.

To LOOK, a word frequently used in the British service, to express the good or bad appearance of a corps, &c. viz. such a regiment looks well or ill under arms.

To look at, to go down the front of a regiment, &c. without requiring that the troops should be put through the different evolutions. A General officer frequently looks at a regiment in this manner. Sometimes indeed the expression bears a more extensive meaning: it is usual, for instance, to say—It would be ridiculous to think of looking at a strong place for the purpose of attacking it, without having sufficient force to carry its works.

To be looked at, in a military sense, to be distantly observed by an enemy who has a design of attacking you; or to be seen by a General officer, whose duty is to enforce any established sys-
LOT

tem. The latter must be considered as a mere cursory inspection. It is common to say: We are to be seen or looked at, but not regularly reviewed.

LOOP, in a ship-carriage, a ring made of iron, fastened one on the front of a fore axle-tree, and two on each side, through which the ropes or tackle pass, whereby the guns are moved backwards and forwards on board of ships. LOOP, a small iron ring or staple, by which the barrel of a gun is affixed to the stock.

LOOP is likewise used to signify an ornamental part of a regimental hat. Every officer in the British service, when dressed in his uniform, is directed to wear a hat, the loop of which is made of scaled silver or gold, if in the cavalry; and of gold lace if in the infantry. General officers wear the scaled loop. LOOP-holes, (Crénaux, Fr.) in fortification, are small holes in the walls of a castle or fort, through which the garrison may fire. In field fortification, loop-holes are frequently resorted to.

To LOOSEN, to separate, to make less coherent. In a military sense it implies to open ranks or files from close order. In marching by files, the officers and non-commissioned officers should be very attentive to their men, especially when any particular manœuvre requires a compact and solid movement. To loosen is, in fact, to lose that firm continuity of line, or perpendicular adhesion, which constitutes the true basis of military operations. The lock-step was introduced for the purpose of countering the mischievous effects of loose marching.

LOT, Indian term for plunder or pilage.

LOOTICS, Ind. a term in India to express a body of irregular horsemen, who plunder and lay waste the country, and harass the enemy in their march. They may be compared to the Hulans of Europe, and other free-booters.

LOYTYWALLOW, Ind. a term of the same import as Lootics.

To LOT for Men, a phrase peculiar to military arrangements. When recruits join, they should be allotted for with the strictest impartiality. If some troops or companies should be less effective than others, they must be first completed to the strength of other troops or companies, and then the whole must lot equally.

LOUIS, or Knight of St. Louis, the name of a military order in France, instituted by Louis XIV. in 1693. Their collars are of a flame-colour, and pass from left to right: the king is always grand master.

LOUIS d'OR, a French coin first struck in the reign of Louis XIII. in 1640; but laid aside since the revolution. Its original value about eighteen shillings.

LOUP, Fr. literally signifies a wolf. Trou de LOUP, Fr. See WOLF-HOLE.

Loup des anciens was an iron instrument, made in the shape of a teneaille, by means of which they grappled the battering rams, and broke them in the middle.

LOYAL, true to the king or state. Hence, during the last war a regiment of these were formed, called Loyal American.

LOYALISTS. During the last war, several American loyalists served in the British army; and at the conclusion of it many came over to this country, and received compensations for the losses they had sustained. The allowances made on this occasion were not, however, confined to those that had served: several families had their cases taken into consideration, and were provided for by the British government. These compensations did not however give any right to a military man to avail himself of the allowance on the score of half-pay.

LUMIERE, Fr. vent; touch-hole; aperture.

Lumiere des pièces d'artillerie, des armes à feu, et de la plupart des artifices, Fr. the vent, or aperture through which fire is communicated to cannon, firearms, and to almost every species of artificial fire-works. In the making of cannon, it is of the utmost consequence to pay minute attention to the vent or touch-hole. It is in this part that pieces of ordnance are generally found defective, from the vent being too much widened by repeated firing, and the explosion of the gunpowder being necessarily weakened.

LUNETTE d'approche, Fr. a telescope. The French sometimes call them Lunettes de Galilée, from the perspective
tive glass or telescope having been invented by Galileo.

**Lunette à facettes**, Fr. a multiplying glass.

**Lunette polyèdre**, Fr. a magnifying glass.

**Lunette à puce**, Fr. a microscope.

**Lunettes**, in fortification, are works made on both sides of the ravelin: one of their faces is perpendicular to half or two thirds of the faces of the ravelin; and the other nearly so to those of the bastions.

**Lunettes**, are also works made beyond the second ditch, opposite to the places of arms; they differ from the ravelins only in their situation. See FORTIFICATION.

**LUNETTONS**, are a smaller sort of **lunettes**.

**Lunger-Conna**, a poor-house or hospital is so called in India.

**Lunt**, the matchcord with which cannon, &c. are fired.

**Lunulae**, (Lunules, Fr.) in geometry a half moon or crescent, which is made by the arcs of two intersecting circles. If you inscribe a triangle-rectangle within a half circle, the diameter of which becomes the hypotenuse; and if upon each side that compresses the right angle, as its diameter, you describe a half circle, the space, in shape of a half moon, closed in by the circumference of each of these two circles, and by a part of the circumference of the great half circle, will form the figure called Lunula.

**Lutte**, Fr. struggle. An exercise of the body, which consists in a full exertion of all its muscular powers, to overcome another body, that resists with equal force and pertinacity. This sort of exercise was much encouraged among the ancients. The druggists or lutteurs, were distinguished by the name of athletes.

**Mener les choses de haste** Lutte, Fr. to carry things by force, or with a high hand.

**Lutter**, Fr. to struggle with; as **lutter contre la fortune**, to struggle with adverse fortune.

**Lunie Balt**, the Indian name for Thursday.

**Lye**, Fr. Spanish trefoil, called likewise in English Lucerne. A species of hay, which is cultivated for the subsistence of horses. It bears a violet coloured flower.

**Lycanians**, (Lycaniens, Fr.) a militia that was formerly raised in Slavonia, the troops of which resemble the Pandours and Warasdins. It derives its name from being quartered in the neighbourhood of the lordship of Lyka.

**Lying** to be actually stationed or quartered in a given place.

**In-lying**. This term is peculiarly applicable to pickets. A picket is said to be an In-lying Picket when it is confined within the immediate lines of entrenchments belonging to a camp, or within the walls of a garrisoned town.

**Out-lying Picket**, is that which does duty without the limits of a camp or garrisoned town; that is, beyond the immediate sentries belonging to either. Those pickets are likewise called In-line and Out-line Pickets.

**Out-lyers**, the same as faggots. The term Out-lyers, was, however, peculiarly understood among the guards; and consisted of a certain number of men from each company, who were permitted to work on condition that the whole of their pay was left in the hands of the captain, for the time they were so employed. This sum the officer appropriated to his own use, and was thereby enabled not only to increase his pay, but to keep a handsome table whenever he mounted guard. During the winter months, the money arising from Out-lyers amounted to a considerable sum. This was allowed as a sort of compensation for the expense the captain incurred by the dinner he gave to his subalterns; and for his contribution to the support of a regimental hospital. The custom is now abolished, as a table is kept by the king, and copiously paid for out of the civil list. The following anecdote, which is related to have occurred in the company that once belonged to General Gansell (whom Junius notices in his letters) will shew the absurdity of the old custom, and the wisdom of its abolition: A general muster being ordered, it was remarked, that a soldier dressed in new regimentals, and perfectly unknown to every man in the company, stood to have his name called over: on being asked to whose company he belonged, he replied, to General Gansell's: (it must be here observed, that the
MAC

the General had quitted the guards some time. Who is the present captain? was the next question, or who are the other officers? To which he briefly replied, I only know the pay-serjeant. The fact was, that he had been some years in the guards, and had constantly been an out-lyer.

MAC

MAALER, Ind. A certificate which is attested by the principal inhabitants of a town or village.

MACE. A heavy blunt weapon, having a metal head; a club.

MACHICOLATIONS, MACHICOLIUS, or Masse-coulis, Fr. In ancient, and sometimes in modern fortification, that upper part of the wall which is sustained by brackets or corbels, juts out, and overlooks the gate or ditch.

When a place is besieged, detached parties of the garrison may be posted in the several machicoulises. Through the intervals of the corbels, or supporting brackets, they may easily observe every thing that passes at the foot of the wall; and if the besiegers should be hardy enough to penetrate as far, they may easily overwhelm them by throwing down large stones, melted lead, combustible materials, hand-grenades or bombs. The besieged likewise let down large weights fastened to ropes or chains, by which they were retracted after they had taken effect. These brackets or supporters, which in ancient fortification were of a slight construction, might be made of solid materials. The machicoulis, in fact, is susceptible of great improvement; and in many instances might be adopted in order to defend the lower parts of angular forts or turrets.

MACHINES. Machines, Fr.

MACHINES used in War by the Antients. (MACHINES MILITAIRES DES ANCIENS.) Every species of instrument or machine, which was employed before the invention of fire-arms, for the purpose of demolishing the fortifications of an enemy, or of rendering them accessible to the besieger, came under the denomination of machine. For a full and elaborate explanation of the different machines that were adopted by the ancients, we refer our military readers to the second volume of the Recueil Alphabétique, page 73.

INFERNAL MACHINES, (MACHINES INFERNALES, Fr.) Although the first idea of these machines has been attributed to France, the invention, nevertheless, is by no means new. Frederic Jambelli, an Italian engineer, was the first that used them, when Alexander of Parma besieged Antwerp. The Prince of Orange likewise had recourse to the destructive effects of an infernal machine, in order to bombard Havre-de-Grace, and to set it on fire. The Dutch and English in conjunction, attempted to destroy St. Malo by the same means. The first instance, however, upon record, in which the French made use of this machine, was when Lewis the XIVth ordered a vessel carrying an enormous shell, full of every species of combustible matter, to be dispatched to Algiers, for the purpose of demolishing its harbour. This probably suggested to other nations the adoption of fire-ships, and other destructive machines, which have frequently been used against maritime places.

The author of OEuvres Militaires, tom. xxii. page 222, speaking of the infernal machines, observes, that if he were to be in a situation which required the use of so dreadful an explosion, especially to destroy a bridge, he would prefer having the machine made simply with different strong pieces of wood joined

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joined together, so as to be in the shape of an egg, or of a cone reversed. The whole must then be made compact with cords twisted round it. This method, in his opinion, is not only the best, but can be executed in the most easy and expeditious manner. He further adds, that in order to burn and blow up wooden bridges, and even to destroy such as are constructed upon arches, several sorts of barges or boats might be used, which should be filled with fireworks, bombs, petards, &c. It would likewise be extremely easy to construct these machines upon floating rafters, carrying several thousand pounds weight of gunpowder, which might be confined within strong pieces of wood, put together in the manner already described.

These machines should be piled one above the other, and long iron bars must be thrown across the floats, or be fixed like masts, so that when the whole of the combustible materials is beneath the center of the bridge, the rafters may be stopped. Great care must be taken to dispose the matches in such a manner, that no fire may be communicated to the gunpowder before the machine reaches the exact spot which is to be destroyed.

The infernal machine which was used at Boulogne in 1804, is described as follows:

This machine appears to be as simple in its construction as it is calculated to be effectual in its operations. It is composed of two stout planks seventeen feet long, which form its sides, and are distant from each other about seven feet. These planks are connected by transverse timbers, screwed to the planks, so as to keep the whole firm and compact and to prevent the danger of their being separated at sea. Of these transverse timbers two are at the fore extremity, and three behind. This may be called the frame or hull of the machine, the remainder of the work being either for the stowage of the combustible matter, or for the accommodation of the seamen, who row the machine. Along the transverse timbers at both extremities are laid parallel to the sides, five longitudinal bars of nearly the same strength as the transverse timbers, which form a kind of grate, on which the coffers containing the combustible matter are placed. The grate behind is double the size of the one before, on the principle of giving facility to the motion of the whole by making the machine lighter at the head. In the centre, between the planks forming the sides from the inner extremity of the grate behind, to the outer extremity of the grate before, there is fixed a plank somewhat broader than the side planks, which is well secured to them by three stout transverse timbers, which pass under this center plank to prevent its giving way to pressure. In this plank two triangular apertures are cut for the men who row, to dispose of the lower extremities whilst they ply the machine. Their seats, however, are so contrived, that each man's pressure is directly over that part of the plank which is supported by the transverse timbers. The seats lie nearer to the head than to the hind part of the machine, perhaps to be some counterpoise for the greater weight of the combustible matter behind. Near each seat are fastened by rings to the sides two oars, one on each side, and each man plies a pair. When the machine is worked to its destination, the men set combustibles in a train for explosion, and abandon their posts. The whole is so regulated as to the weight of the materials, that the machine floats, or more properly moves under the surface of the water, so that little more than the heads of the men are extant. This secures the men and the machine from the fire of the enemy, and as the oars must consequently be applied under water, there is less danger of their being discovered by their noise on their approach.

MACHINES, in general, whatever hath force sufficient to move or stop the motion of a heavy body.

MACHINES, are either simple or compound: the simple ones are the seven mechanical powers, viz. lever, balance, pulley, axis and wheel, screw, and inclined planes. See MECHANICAL POWERS.

If the given power is not able to overcome the given resistance when directly applied, that is, when the power applied is less than the weight or resistance given; then the thing is to be performed by the help of a machine, made with levers, wheels, pulleys, screws, &c. so adjusted,
justed, that when the weight and power are put in motion on the machine, the velocity of the power may be at least so much greater than that of the weight, as the weight and friction of the machine taken together, is greater than the power; for on this principle depends the mechanism or contrivance of all mechanical engines used to draw or raise heavy bodies, or overcome any other force; the whole design of these being to give such a velocity to the power, in respect of the weight, as that the momentum of the power may exceed the momentum of the weight: for if machines are so contrived, that the velocity of the agent and resistant are reciprocally as their forces, the agent will just sustain the resistant, but with a greater degree of velocity will overcome it. So that if the excess of motion or velocity in the power is so great as to overcome all that resistance which commonly arises from the friction or attrition of contiguous bodies, as they slide by one another, or from the cohesion of bodies that are to be separated, or from the weights of bodies that are to be raised; the excess of the force remaining, after all these resistances are overcome, will produce an acceleration of motion thereto, as well in the parts of the machine, as in the resisting body.

Compound Machines, are formed by various combinations, and serve for different purposes; in all which the same general law takes place, viz. that the power and weight sustain each other, when they are in the inverse proportion of the velocities they would have in the directions wherein they act, if they were put in motion. Now to apply this law to any compound machine, there are four things to be considered: 1. the moving power, or the force that puts the machine in motion; which may be either men or other animals, weights, springs, the wind, a stream of water, &c. 2. The velocity of this power, or the space it moves over in a given time. 3. The resistance or quantity of weight to be removed. 4. The velocity of this weight, or the space it moves over in the same given time.

The two first of these quantities are always in the reciprocal proportion of the two last; that is, the product of the first two must always be equal to that of the last: hence, three of these quantities being given, it is easy to find the fourth; for example, if the quantity of the power be 4, its velocity 15, and the velocity of the weight 2, then the resistance, or quantity of the weight will be equal to

$$\frac{4 \times 15}{2} = 30.$$  

The following rules will direct the mechanic how he may contrive his machine, that it may answer the intended purpose to the best advantage.

1. Having assigned the proportion of your power, and the weight to be raised, the next thing is to consider how to combine levers, wheels, pulleys, &c. so that working together they may be able to give a velocity to the power, which shall be to that of the weight something greater than in the proportion of the weight to the power. This done, you must estimate your quantity of friction; and if the velocity of the power be to that of the weight still in a greater proportion than the weight and friction taken together are to the power; then your machine will be able to raise the weight. And note, this proportion must be so much greater, as you would have your engine work faster.

1. But the proportion of the velocity of the power and weight must not be made too great; for it is a fault to give a machine too much power, as well as too little; for if the power can raise the weight and overcome the resistance, and the engine perform its proper effect in a convenient time, and work well, it is sufficient for the end proposed: and it is in vain to make additions to the engine to increase the power any further; for that would not only be a needless expense, but the engine would lose time in working.

3. As to the power applied to work the engine, it may either be a living power, as men, horses, &c. or an artificial power, as a spring, &c. or a natural power, as wind, water, fire, weights, &c.

When the quantity of the power is known, it matters not, as to the effect, what kind of a power it is; for the same quantity of any sort will produce the same effect; and different sorts of powers may be applied in an equal quantity a great variety of ways.

The most easy power applied to a machine
chine is weight, if it be capable of effecting the thing designed. If not, then wind, water, &c. if that can be conveniently had, and without much expense.

A spring is also a convenient moving power for several machines: but it never acts equally as the weight does; but is stronger when much bent, than when but a little bent, and that in proportion to the bending, or the distance it is forced to; but springs grow weaker by often bending, or remaining long bent: yet they recover part of their strength by lying unbent.

The natural powers, wind and water, may be applied to vast advantage in working great engines, when managed with skill and judgment.—The due application of these has much abridged the labours of men; for there is scarce any labour to be performed, but an ingenious artificer can tell how to apply these powers to execute his design, and answer his purpose; for any constant motion being given, it may, by due application, be made to produce any other motions we desire. Therefore these powers are the most easy and useful, and of the greatest benefit to mankind. Besides they cost nothing, and do not require any repetition or renewing, like a weight or a spring, which require to be wound up. When these cannot be had, or cannot serve our end, we have recourse to some living power, as men, horses, &c.

4. Men may apply their strength several ways in working a machine. A man of ordinary strength, turning a roller by the handle, can act for a whole day against a resistance equal to 30lb. weight; and if he works ten hours in a day, he will raise a weight 30lb. ¾ feet in a second; or if the weight be greater, he will raise it so much less in proportion.

But a man may act, for a small time, against a resistance of 50lb. or more.

If two men work at a windlass or roller, they can more easily draw up 70lb. than one man 30lb. provided the elbow of one of the handles, be at right angles to that of the other: and with a fly or heavy wheel applied to it, a man may do 1-3d part more work; and for a little while act with a force, or overcome a continual resistance of 80lb.

7. As and work a whole day when the resistance is but 40lb.

Men used to carrying, such as porters, will carry some 150lb. others 200lb. or 250lb. according to their strength.

A man can draw but about 70 or 80lb. horizontally; for he can apply but half his weight.

If the weight of a man be 140lb. he can act with no greater force in thrusting horizontally at the height of his shoulders than 27lb.

A horse draws to greatest advantage, when the line of direction is a little elevated above the horizon, and the power acts against his breast: and can draw 200lb. for eight hours in a day, at two miles and a half an hour. If he draws 240lb. he can work but six hours, and not quite so fast; and, in both cases, if he carries some weight he will draw better than if he carried none. And this is the weight a horse is supposed to be able to draw over a pulley out of a well. In a cart a horse may draw 1000lb.—

The most force a horse can exert is when he draws something above a horizontal position.

The worst way of applying the strength of a horse is, to make him draw or carry up a hill: and three men with 100lb. on their backs, will climb up a steep hill faster than a horse with 300lb.

A round walk for a horse to draw in at a mill, &c. should not be less than 40 feet diameter.

5. Every machine should be made of as few parts, and those as simple as possible, to answer its purpose; not only because the expense of making and repairing will be less, but it will also be less liable to be put out of order.

6. If a weight is to be raised but a very little way, the lever is the most simple, easy, and ready machine; or, if the weight is very great, the common screw is most proper; but if the weight is to be raised a great way, the wheel and axle is a proper power, but blocks and pulleys render the labour still more easy: the same may be done by the perpetual screw.

Great wheels, to be wrought by men or cattle, are of most use and convenience when their axles are perpendicular to the horizon; but if by water, &c. then it is best to have their axles horizontal.
7. As to the combination of simple machines to make a compound one, though the lever when simple cannot raise a weight to any great height, and in this case is but of little service; yet it is of great use when compounded with others. Thus the spokes of a great wheel are all levers perpetually acting; and a beam fixed to the axis to draw the wheel about by men or horses, is a lever. The lever also may be combined with the screw, but not conveniently with pulleys or with the wedge. The wheel and axle is combined to great advantage with pulleys; but the perpetual screw, with the wheel, is very serviceable. The wedge cannot be combined with any other mechanical power; and it only performs its effect by percussion; but this force of percussion may be increased by engines.

Pulleys may be combined with pulleys, and wheels with wheels. Therefore, if any single wheel would be too large, and take up too much room, it may be divided into two or three more wheels and trundles, or wheels and pinions, as in clock work, so as to have the same power, and perform the same effect.

In wheels with teeth, the number of teeth that play together in two wheels, should be prime to each other, that the same teeth may not meet at every revolution; for when different teeth meet, they by degrees wear themselves into a proper figure: therefore they should so be contrived that the same teeth meet as seldom as possible.

8. The strength of every part of the machine should be made proportional to the stress it is to bear: and therefore let every lever be made so much stronger, as its length and the weight it is to support are greater; and let its strength diminish proportionally from the fulcrum, or point where the greatest stress is, to each end. The axes of wheels and pulleys must be so much stronger, as they are to bear greater weight. The teeth of wheels, and the wheels themselves, which act with greater force, must be proportionally stronger; and in any combination of wheels and axes, make their strength diminish gradually from the weight to the power, so that the strength of every part be reciprocally as its velocity. The strength of ropes must be according to their tension; that is, as the squares of their diameters: and, in general, whatever parts a machine is composed of, the strength of every particular part of it must be adjusted to the stress upon the whole; therefore in square beams the cubes of the diameters must be made proportional to the stress they bear: and let no part be stronger or bigger than is necessary for the stress upon it; not only for the ease and well-going of the machine, but for diminishing the friction; for all superfluous matter in any part of it is a dead weight upon the machine, and serves only to impede its motion; hence he is the most perfect mechanic, who not only adjusts the strength to the stress, but who also contrives all the parts to last equally well, so that the whole machine may fall together.

9. To have the friction as little as possible, the machine should be made of the fewest and simplest parts. The diameters of the wheels and pulleys should be large, and the diameters of the arbors or spindles they run on, as small as can be consistent with their strength. All ropes and cords must be as pliable as possible, and for that end rubbed with tar or grease; the teeth of wheels must be made to fit and fill up the openings, and cut into the form of epicycloids. All the axles, where the motion is, and all teeth where they work, and all parts that in working rub upon one another, must be made smooth, and when the machine goes, must be oiled or greased.

10. When any motion is to be long continued, contrive the power to move or act always one way, if it can be done, for this is better and easier performed than when the motion is interrupted, and the power is forced to move first one way, and then another; because every change of motion requires a new additional force to effect it. Besides, a body in motion cannot suddenly receive a contrary motion, without great violence: and the moving any part of the machine contrary ways by turns, with sudden jerks, tends only to shake the machine to pieces.

11. In a machine that moves always one way, endeavour to have the motion uniform.

12. But when the nature of the thing requires
requires that a motion is to be suddenly communicated to a body, or suddenly stopped: to prevent any damage or violence to the engine by a sudden jolt, let the force act against some spring, or beam of wood, which may supply the place of a spring.

13. In regard to the size of the machine, let it be made as large as it can conveniently; the greater the machine, the more exact it will work, and perform all its motions the better; for there will always be some errors in the making, as well as in the materials, and consequently in the working of the machine. The resistance of the medium in some machines has a sensible effect; but all these mechanical errors bear a less proportion in the motion of great machines than in that of little ones; being nearly reciprocally as their diameters, supposing they are made of the same matter, and with the same accuracy, and are equally well finished.

14. For engines that go by water, it is necessary to measure the velocity and force of the water. To get the velocity, drop in pieces of sticks, &c. and observe how far they are carried in a second, or any given time.

But if it flows through a hole in a reservoir, or standing receptable of water, the velocity will be found from the depth of the whole below the surface.

Thus let \( \varepsilon = 16 \frac{2}{3} \); \( v \) = velocity of the fluid per second; \( B \) = the area of the hole; \( H \) = the height of the water; all in feet. Then the velocity of \( v = \sqrt{2sH} \); and its force = the weight of the quantity \( \frac{v^2}{2s} B \) or \( HB \) of water; or

\[
\frac{621}{112} HB \text{ hundred weight: because a cubic foot} = 621 \text{ lb. avoirdupois. Also a hoghead is about 8 \frac{1}{2} \text{ feet}, or 531 lb. and a ton is 4 hogheads.}
\]

When you have but a small quantity of water, you must contrive it to fall as high as you can, to have the greater velocity, and consequently more force upon the engine.

15. If water is to be conveyed through pipes to a great distance, and the descent be but small, much larger pipes must be used, because the water will come slow.

Water should not be driven through pipes faster than four feet per second, by reason of the friction of the tubes; nor should it be too much wire-drawn, that is, squeezed through smaller pipes, for that creates a resistance, as water-way is less in narrow pipes.

16. When any thing is to be performed by a water-wheel, moved by the water running under it and striking the paddles or ladle-boards, the channel it moves in ought to be something wider than the hole of the adjuitage, and so close to the floats on every side as to let little or no water pass; and when past the wheel, to open a little, that the water may spread. It is of no advantage to have a great number of floats or paddles; for those past the perpendicular are resisted by the back water, and those before it are struck obliquely. The greatest effect that such a wheel can perform, in communicating any motion, is when the paddles of the wheel move with one-third the velocity of the water; in which case, the force upon the paddle is four-ninths only; supposing the absolute force of the water against the paddle, when the wheel stands still, to be 1: so that the utmost motion which the wheel can generate, is but 4-27th of that which the force of the water against the paddles at rest would produce.

Where a great power is required, it is, in general, obtained from steam with more certainty and less expense, upon the whole, than from any of the preceding modes.

MACHINER, Fr. to plot; to conspire; to enter into secret cabals.

MACHINISTE, Fr. an engine-maker; one who assists the natural strength of man by the inventions of art. A person of this description must be well versed in mathematics, and be thoroughly versed in the knowledge of propellents and powers of resistance.

MACHRONTICOS, an extensive wall, such as was built round Athens, &c. There were two large piers erected at each end, with arched galleries under for a garrison of soldiers.

MADRASS. Fort St. George. A town and fort on the Coromandel coast, in the East Indies, belonging to the English. The town is called Madras by the inhabitants, but by the natives, Chilapatam. It is divided into two towns, the one called the White, and the
the other the Black Town; the former being inhabited by Europeans, and the latter by Gentooes. The diamond mines are only a week's journey from this place. The town is governed by a mayor and aldermen, with other officers. It is 68 miles north of Pondicherry, lat. 13, 5, N. long. 80, 34, E. It may not be irrelevant to state, that the establishments belonging to Great Britain, in the kingdom of Indostan, are divided into three governments, independent of each other. Bombay commands the factories on the western side of the peninsula, commonly called the Malabar coast; together with those in Persia: the establishments and possessions on the eastern or Coromandel coast, are under the government of Madras; and those in Bengal depend on Calcutta.

MADRİERS, are long planks of broad wood, used for supporting the earth in mining, carrying on a sap, making coffers, caponiers, galleries, and various other purposes at a siege; also to cover the mouths of petards after they are loaded, and are fixed with the petards to the gates or other places designed to be forced open. When the planks are not strong enough, they are doubled with plates of iron.

MAGAZIN, Fr. magazine.

Petit-MAGAZIN, Fr. This was a sort of intermediate building, called entrepot, where stores, provisions, &c. to answer daily consumption were deposited.

MAGAZIN d'approvisionnement, Fr. magazine of stores.

MAGAZIN d'artillerie, Fr. A powder-MAGAZIN, Fr. magazine.

MAGAZINS généraux de guerre, Fr. all sorts of buildings in which military stores are placed.

MAGAZINE, a place in which stores are kept, or arms, ammunition, provisions, &c. Every fortified town ought to be furnished with a large magazine, which should contain stores of all kinds, sufficient to enable the garrison and inhabitants to hold out a long siege, and in which smiths, carpenters, wheelwrights, bakers, &c. may be employed in making every thing belonging to the artillery, as carriages, waggons, &c.

Powder-MAGAZINE, is that place where the powder is kept in very large quantities. Authors differ greatly both in regard to situation and construction; but all agree, that they ought to be arched, and bomb-proof. In fortifications they are frequently placed in the rampart; but of late they have been built in different parts of the town. The first powder magazines were made with gothic arches; but M. Vauban, finding them too weak, constructed them in a semicircular form, whose dimensions are, 60 feet long, within; 25 broad; the foundations are eight or nine feet thick, and eight feet high from the foundation to the spring of the arch; the floor is 3 feet from the ground, which keeps it from dampness.

One of our engineers of great experience some time since, had observed, that after the centers of semicircular arches are struck, they settle at the crown and rise up at the hances, even with a straight horizontal extasodos, and still much more so in powder magazines, whose outside at top is formed like the roof of a house, by two inclined planes joining in an angle over the top of the arch, to give a proper descent to the rain; which effects are exactly what might be expected agreeable to the true theory of arches. Now, as this shrinking of the arches must be attended with very ill consequences, by breaking the texture of the cement, after it has been in some degree dried, and also by opening the joints of the voussoirs, at one end, so a remedy is provided for this inconvenience, with regard to bridges, by the arch of equilibration in Mr. Hutton's book on bridges; but as the ill effect is much greater in powder magazines, the same ingenious gentleman proposed to find an arch of equilibration for them also, and to construct it when the span is 20 feet, the pitch or height 10, (which are the same dimensions as the semicircle) the inclined exterior walls at top forming an angle of 113 degrees, and the height of their angular point above the top of the arch, equal to seven feet: this very curious question was answered in 1773 by the Rev. Mr. Wildbore, to be found in Mr. Hutton's Miscellanea Mathematica.

Artillery-MAGAZINE, in a siege, the magazine is made about 25 or 30 yards behind the battery, towards the parallels, and at least 3 feet under ground, to hold the powder, loaded shells, portfires, &c. Its
Its sides and roof must be well secured with boards, to prevent the earth from falling in; a door is made to it, and a double trench or passage is sunk from the magazine to the battery, one to go in and the other to come out at, to prevent confusion. Sometimes traverses are made in the passages to prevent ricochet shot from plunging into them.

MAGNA CHARTA, the great charter of liberties granted to the people of England in the 9th year of Henry the Third, and confirmed by Edward the First. It is so called on account of the excellence of the laws therein contained; or according to some writers, because another lesser charter, called Charter de Foresta, was established with it; or because it contained more than any other charter, &c., or in regard of the remarkable solemnity in the denouncing excommunications against the infringers of it.

MAGNANIMOUS, (Magnanime, Fr.) great in sentiment; elevated in mind; brave. When a general, during a long course of campaigns and victories, has proved himself just, benevolent, and humane; he will then deserve the appellation of magnanimous, and will, in fact, be a real hero.

MAGNITUDE, or quantity, any thing locally continued, or that has several dimensions. Its origin is a point, which, though void of parts, yet its flux forms a line, the flux of that a surface, and of that a body, &c.

MAHEUTRE, an old French term signifying soldat de la ligne, a regular soldier, or soldier belonging to the army of the line.

MAHONNE, Fr. a species of galleys or double galley which the Turks use. The Venetian galleasses are larger and stronger built.

MAHARRATTA Empire. As every thing which relates to this country must be extremely interesting to every British officer, since it may be his lot to serve in that quarter of the globe; we have extracted the following geographical account of it from the last volume of the Annual Asiatic Register.

The Empire of the Maharrattas comprehends all the western provinces of the Deccan which lie between the rivers Nartudda and Krisna; the province of Berar in the interior; that of Cuttack on the eastern coast of the peninsula; and the whole of the western Hindostan, excepting Moultan, the Punjab, and Sirhind. These extensive territories are bounded on the north by the mountains of Lewalic, which separate them from Sirnayar and Cashmir; on the north-east by Rohilcund and Oude; on the east by the British provinces of Benares, Behar, Bengal, part of Orissa, the Bay of Bengal, and the northern Sircars; on the South by the dominions of the Subahdar of the Deccan, the rivers Krisna and Tumbudra; on the west by that part of the Indian Ocean which divides India from Africa; and on the north-west by the sandy deserts of Moultan, the river Sursootee, and the province of Sirhind. The greatest length of the Maharatta dominions, from Delhi in the Northern, to Tumbudra in the Southern extremity, is 970 British miles; and the extreme breadth, from east to west, where they stretch across the peninsula, from the Bay of Bengal to the Gulph of Cambey is 900 British miles. This immense tract of country contains the provinces of Delhi, Agra, Ajmere, Malwa, Gujarat, Condeis, Baglana, Vasiapur, the Konkar, Berar, Cuttack, and part of Dowlatabad. Of these provinces Delhi, Agra, part of Malwa, Gujarat, Baglana, and Vasiapur, are highly fertile and populous; yielding abundance of the finest grain, thronged with towns and villages, and enriched by a busy internal commerce. The other provinces of the empire are not less productive, but much less disposed, by nature, for cultivation and improvement. Lofty ridges of mountains and vast sterile vales, sometimes covered with wood, form the most prominent features of their local scenery. They are consequently thinly inhabited; but the inhabitants, partaking of the nature of the soil, are hardy, robust, and intrepid. The whole population of the Maharatta empire may be computed at about forty millions. The population is composed of different nations and of various tribes, of whom nine-tenths are Hindus, and the rest Mussulmans. The nation from which the empire derived its origin and takes its name, occupies the province of
of Baglana, the northern part of Vissiapur, and the mountainous districts of Dowlatabad and Berar.

MAHRATTA tribes. In the last volume of the Asiatic Annual Register we find the following account of these tribes.—The Mahrratta tribes were first formed into a nation between the years 1660 and 1670, by Levajee, a man of an enterprising and aspiring mind, who was a descendant of the Rajahs of Chittore, the most ancient of the Hindu princes in the Deccan. The father of this celebrated chief was a general in the service of the Mussulman prince Ibrahim Adil Shah, sovereign of Bijapur, from whom he had obtained, in perpetual sovereignty, the principality of Sattarah, besides a valuable jaghir in the Carnatic.

MAHRATTAS, Ind. descendants of a pastoral people who formerly inhabited one of the grand divisions of ancient Hindustan, described by the Hindu geographers, and called in Puranas, Maharasstra; by which name its inhabitants are likewise designated. The ancient Maharasstras, like the Tartar hordes, united the business of war and plunder to the occupation of shepherds; and the modern Mahrattas, though in some respects more civilized, still inherit the warlike and predatory spirit of their ancestors. This spirit (we quote from the editor of the Asiatic Register), directed by the talents of some distinguished chieftains, has, in the course of one hundred and sixty years, raised them from the obscurity of free-booters to be one of the most powerful nations in Asia.

Were it not for a manifest disunion among the Mahrratta princes, their collective military strength and resources would be extremely formidable.

The efficient force of their combined armies amounts to 210,000 cavalry and 96,000 infantry; of this force the whole of the infantry, and about three-fourths of the cavalry, are kept in a constant state of readiness to march against an enemy. The infantry is chiefly officered by European adventurers; and in the service of Scindiah, the battalions are accoutred, formed, and brigaded, nearly in the same manner as the native regiments in the British Indian army. To the different bodies of infantry there are attached very large trains of artillery, well appointed and served; and, at the commencement of the late war, the pieces of ordnance attached to Scindiah's brigades amounted to 464.

The cavalry is divided into four distinct classes, namely, the body guards of the princes; the troops furnished by the Sillodars; the volunteers, who find their own horses, arms, and accoutrements; and the Pindarens or Marauders, who serve without pay, and subsist entirely by plunder. This last class, however, is composed of so licentious and ungovernable a rabble, that it is not now employed in the armies of the principal chieftains. None of the classes, except the body guards, are under any regular discipline; the troopers are not enlisted for any stated period; and, except mounting the piquet guards in camp, the cavalry do no duty but in the day of battle. These irregularities, together with the circumstance of the whole of the cavalry being very badly paid, encourage the native predatory disposition of the Mahratta people, and obstruct their advancement in civil life, as well as in military discipline. Their horses, which are partly reared in their own provinces, and partly brought from Candahar and Tibet, are remarkable for their hardiness, activity, and speed; and there are no people in the world who are more skilful in the breeding of that animal, or who attend to it with such unremitting industry. The Mahrattas are thus accustomed, from their infancy, to the use and management of horses; and hence arises that extraordinary dexterity in horsemanship, which their troopers so often display.

We refer our readers to an interesting paper on the military institutions of the Mahrattas in the Asiatic Annual Register, vol. I. Miscellaneous Tracts, p. 121. and for farther particulars respecting the Mahrattas in general, to the introduction of the last volume published in 1804.

MAIDEN, an edged instrument used at Edinburgh in former times for the decapitation of criminals. The original invention is by some attributed to an inhabitant of Halifax, in Yorkshire. The guillotine, so called from a French physician
sician of that name, and by which the unfortunate Louis the Sixteenth was executed, January 21st, 1793, owes its origin to the Maiden.

MAJESTAS, a Latin word, from whence are derived Majesté, Fr. and Majesty. It was originally used among the Romans to signify the power which was vested in the Roman people, when they had the exclusive privilege of making laws, creating their chief magistrates, and of determining upon Peace or war. Hence also our antiquated term majesty or sovereignty of the people, signifying that right of electing their representatives which Englishmen possess.

MAIL, primarily denotes the holes or meshes in a net; it likewise signifies a round iron ring. Hence

Coat of MAIL, a coat of armour or steel net-work, anciently worn for defence.

MAILLET, Fr. a mallet. The French formerly made use of this instrument as an offensive weapon in their engagements.

In 1351 the mallet was used at the famous battle des Trente (of thirty) which derived its name from the number of combatants that fought on each side.

This extraordinary combat holds a distinguished place in the history of Brittany, and was entered into by the partisans of Charles of Blois, and the King of France on one side, and by the Count Montfort and the King of England on the other.

Under the reign of Charles VI. a Parisian mob forced the arsenal, took out a large quantity of mallets, with which they armed themselves for the purpose of murdering the custom-house officers. The persons who assembled on this occasion were afterwards called Mailloits.

In the days of Louis XII. the English archers carried mallets as offensive weapons.

MAILLOTIN, Fr. an old French term; which signified, an ancient weapon that was used to attack men who wore helmets and cuirasses. A faction in France was distinguished by the appellation of Mailloits.

MAILSOU Maillets, Fr. See MAILLET.

MAIN-BATTLE. See BATTLE-ARRAY.

MAI五-BODY of the army, the body of troops that march between the ad-

vance and rear-guards. In a camp, that part of the army encamped between the right and left wings.

MAIN-GUARD, or grand-guard, a body of horse posted before a camp for the security of an army. In garrison, it is a guard generally mounted by a subaltern officer and about 24 men. See GUARD.

MAIN-Guard. The French observed the following general maxims, with respect to their grandes-gardes or main-guards. In the first place, every main-guard on foot or horseback, must be so posted as to remain secure of not being surprised and carried off, or easily forced to abandon its position. In order to accomplish these two objects, it must constantly be within the reach of the different piquets; and, if necessary, those piquets should be readily supported by the army itself.

MAIN, Fr. hand.

MAIN armée, Fr. armed force.—Entrer à main armée dans un pays, is to enter into a country with armed men.

Coup de MAIN, Fr. a bold action; the sudden execution of any military enterprise.

Venir aux MAINS, Fr. to come to close action.

Avoir les armes bien belles à la MAIN, Fr. an expression used in fencing, signifying, that the person who handles the sword or foil does it gracefully.

Mettre l'épée à la MAIN, Fr. to draw one's sword, either for the purpose of falling in, giving a word of command, (when troops are under arms,) or of fighting a duel.

Faire MAIN-basse, Fr. to put to the sword; to give no quarter.

MAINTAIN, when any body of men defend a place or post, against the attacks of an adverse party, they are said to maintain it.

MAJOIT, a superior officer in the army, whose functions vary according to the nature of the service on which he is employed.

MAJOR of a regiment of foot, the next officer to the lieutenant-colonel, generally promoted from the eldest captain: he is to take care that the regiment be well exercised, to see it march in good order, and to rally it in case of being broke in action: he is the only officer among the infantry that is allowed to be
be on horseback in time of action, that he may the more readily execute the colonel’s orders.

The Major of a regiment of horse, as well as foot, ought to be a man of honour, integrity, understanding, courage, activity, experience, and address: he should be master of arithmetic, and keep a detail of the regiment in every particular: he should be skilled in horsemanship, and ever attentive to his business: one of his principal functions is, to keep an exact roster of the officers for duty: he should have a perfect knowledge in all the military evolutions, as he is obliged by his post to instruct others, &c.

Town-Major, the third officer in order in a garrison, and next to the deputy-governor. He should understand fortification, and has a particular charge of the guards, rounds, patroles, and sentinels.

Brigade-Major, is a particular officer appointed for that purpose, only in camp, quarters, or barracks: he goes every day to head-quarters to receive orders from the adjutant-general: from thence he goes and gives the orders, at the place appointed for that purpose, to the different majors or adjutants of the regiments which compose his brigade, and regulates with them the number of officers and men which each are to furnish for the duty of the army; taking care to keep an exact roster, that one may not give more than another, and that each march in their tour: in short, the major of brigade is charged with the particular detail in his own brigade, in much the same way as the adjutant-general is charged with the general detail of the duty of the army. He sounds every morning to the adjutant-general an exact return, by battalion and company, of the men of his brigade missing at the retreat, or a report expressing that none are absent; he also mentions the officers absent with or without leave.

As all orders pass through the hands of the majors of brigade, they have infinite occasions of making known their talents and exactness.

Major of artillery, is also the next officer to the lieutenant-colonel. His post is very laborious, as the whole detail of the corps particularly rests with him; and for this reason all the non-commissioned officers are subordinate to him, as his title of serjeant-major imports: in this quality they must render him an exact account of every thing which comes to their knowledge, either regarding the duty or wants of the artillery and soldiers. He should possess a perfect knowledge of the power of artillery, together with all its evolutions. In the field he goes daily to receive orders from the brigade-major, and communicates them with the parole to his superiors, and then dictates them to the adjutant. He should be a very good mathematician, and be well acquainted with every thing belonging to the train of artillery, &c.

Major of engineers, commonly with us called sub-director, should be very well skilled in military architecture, fortification, gunnery, and mining. He should know how to fortify the field, to attack and defend all sorts of posts, and to conduct the works in a siege, &c. See Engineer.

Aid-Major, is on sundry occasions appointed to act as major, who has a pre-eminence above others of the same denomination. Our horse and foot-guards have their guidons, or second and third majors.

Serjeant-Major, is a non-commissioned officer, of great merit and capacity, subordinate to the adjutant, as he is to the major. See Serjeant.

Drum-Major, is not only the first drummer in the regiment, but has the same authority over his drummers as the corporal has over his squad. He instructs them in their different beats; is daily at orders with the serjeants, to know the number of drummers for duty. He marches at their head when they beat in a body. In the day of battle, or at exercise, he must be very attentive to the orders given him, that he may regulate his beats according to the movements ordered.

Fife-Major, is he that plays the best on that instrument, and has the same authority over the fifers as the drum-major has over the drummers. He teaches them their duty, and appoints them for guards, &c.

Major-General. See General.

Major, Fr. The French considered this term, in a military sense, under the following heads:—
MAJOR-Général d'une Armée, Fr. Major-General generally so called, which see.

MAJOR-Général de l'Infanterie Française, Fr. Major-General of the French infantry. This appointment was made under Francis I in 1515.

MAJOR-Général des Dragons, Fr. a major-general of dragons. His functions were similar to those exercised by the Maréchal-général des logis de la Cavalerie; and nearly the same as those of the major-general of infantry.

MAJOR de Brigade, Fr. Brigade-major.

MAJOR d'un Régiment de Cavalerie, Fr. major of a regiment of cavalry.

MAJOR d'un Régiment d'Infanterie, Fr. major of a regiment of infantry. Under the old government of France all majors of infantry regiments were stiled sergent-majors, or serjeant-majors in their commissions. They were not permitted to have any company of their own: because it was reasonably judged, that their own interest might render them more partial to that company, and the service be thereby injured.

MAJOR d'une place de guerre, Fr. town-major.

MAJOR des quatre compagnies des Gardes du Corps, Fr. a rank which was exclusively given to an officer belonging to the old French guards. This was an appointment of considerable trust under the old government of France. He was lieutenant in each of the companies, and had the right of seniority over all lieutenants younger than himself in date of commission.

MAJOR sur un vaisseau de guerre, Fr. An officer on board a king's ship, whose duty it was to see the guard regularly mounted, and the sentries posted.

État-Major, Fr. a comprehensive French term, in which is included every thing that can be conveyed under the word Staff, as applicable to the British service. In a very recent publication, intituled, Manuel des Adjutans-Généraux et leurs Adjoints, the particular duties of the État-Major are accurately explained.

MAJOR-Dôme, Fr. an officer belonging to the gallies, who has the chief superintendence of provisions.

MAJORITY, the office, charge, or appointment of a regimental major.

MAIRES, Fr. Under the old government of France the person so called was invested with the first dignity of the kingdom. Charles Martel, of whom so much is said in the history of the French kings, was MAIRE of the palace. He was, in fact, Grand Master of the king's household, and had an entire control over the officers belonging to that establishment. The appellation of MAIRE du Palais, or Major of the Palace, was given in lieu of MAITRE du Palais, or Master of the Palace. This name was borrowed from the Roman Emperors, who had each a grand master of the palace: Du Tillet, a French author, in page 13 of his book, pretends that the word is derived from Mer, which signifies Prefect. At first he had only the care and superintendence of the king's household, so that his functions were nearly similar to those that were exercised by the grand master of the king's household previous to the revolution. During the reign of Clotaire the Second, the power of the MAIRES increased very considerably.—Their influence grew greater through the weakness and effeminacy of the last kings of the second race; so much so, that they maintained an uncontrolled power over the royal expenditure, and had the sole management of the king's affairs. Pepin added the dignity and functions of MAIRE to the royal prerogative; but he did not suppose them wholly. He merely limited his functions to what they were originally; which however were soon restored; in consequence of the fall and extinction of the second race. As the MAIRES possessed an unlimited control over the finances and judicature of the country, and moreover the entire management of the war department, they found little difficulty in assuming a superiority over all the officers belonging to the crown.—They took precedence of all dukes and counts who were the governors of provinces; on which account they were called Ducs des Ducs, or Dukes of France. Hugh Capet was Duke of France at the time he proclaimed himself king of the country; but the kings belonging to the third race, being convinced, that the authority which was thus
thus vested in one person, must eventually prove extremely dangerous, abolished the office of Maire du Palais, or Duke of France. They divided the functions; and created the four great officers that were immediately attached to the crown. The command and superintendance of the army were entrusted to the constable; the administration of civil justice was vested in the chancellor; the management of the finances was given to the grand treasurer, and the care of the king’s household devolved upon the seneschal, who was afterwards stiled grand master.

MAISON-du-Roi, Fr. the king’s household. Certain select bodies of troops were so called during the Monarchy of France, and consisted of the gardes du corps, or body guards; the gendarmes, chevaux ligeurs, or light horse; musqueuaires, or musqueteers; la gendarmerie, grenadiers à cheval, or horse grenadiers; the regiments belonging to the French and Swiss guards, and the cent Suisses, or hundred Swiss guards. The Maison-du-Roi, or King’s household, was not considered as a separate establishment from the rest of the army, until the reign of Louis XIV. This establishment was successively formed by different kings out of militia companies, which they took into their body-guard.

MAISON Meurtre, Fr. this term was formerly given to casemates.

MAITRE, Fr. this word (which signifies, in a literal sense, master or superior,) was formerly attached to every trooper belonging to the heavy French cavalry. Among the Romans, the term magister (master) was used to mark out different officers who held situations of trust. Hence the Dictator was called Magister Populi, the master or leader of the people. The Romans likewise applied the word to the leading officers of their infantry.

MAITRE des armes, Fr. master at arms. An officer, during the existence of the Grecian empire, who took precedence of the Maître de la milice, or master in the militia.

MAITRE d’armes, Fr. a term in general use among the French, signifying a fencing-master. Every regiment has a maître d’armes attached to it.

MAITRISE, Fr. a place of rank and dignity; as la Grande Maitrise de Malte, the situation of Grand Master of Malta.

MAITRISER, Fr. to overcome; to get the better.

MAITRISER les Événemens, Fr. to get the better of apparent obstacles, by anticipating events.

MAKE Ready, a word of command in the firing, on which the soldier brings his piece to the recove, at the same time cocking it ready for firing.

MAL d’armée, Fr. a sort of contagious disorder which sometimes rages in an army, and is occasioned by too much fatigue, or by bad food.

MAL-de-Mer, Fr. sea-sickness.

MAL-de-Terre, Fr. the scurry is so called by the French.

MALABAR GUNS, Ind. heavy pieces of ordnance, which are made in the Malabar country, and are formed by means of iron bars joined together. They are very long, and extremely unwieldy.

MALADES, Fr. the sick.

Soldats-MALADES, Fr. soldiers on the sick list.

MALANDRINS, Fr. a set of free-booters, who, under the reign of Charles V. infested France. During the last century these plunderers made their appearance twice in considerable bodies. They consisted chiefly of discharged soldiers, who formed themselves into marauding parties, and pillaged with impunity all the travellers they met. Abbé de Choisi relates, that it was extremely hazardous to oppose them in their first onset. These pillagers, whom the inhabitants called Malandrins, assembled in different cantons, chose their own leaders, and observed a sort of discipline in their depredations. They usually contrived to station themselves in such a manner, that it was impossible to attack them.

They plundered or destroyed many places and buildings through which they passed, and paid no regard to church or state. Their principal and most notorious leaders were, the Chevalier de Vert, brother to the Count D’Auxerre, Hughes de Caurelée, Mathieu de Gournar, Hughes de Varennes, Gauthier Huct, and Robert Lescot, who all belonged to some order of knighthood. Bertrand du Guesclin cleared the country of these dangerous and unprincipled
men, by leading them into Spain under a pretence of fighting the Moors, when in reality his object was to attack Peter the cruel. See French Hist. de Charles V. liv. 1. page 86.

MALINGERER, (from the French) one who feigns illness to avoid his duty. MALINGRE, Fr. peaking, sickly. MAIL. See MAUL.

MALLET, a wooden hammer, to drive the pegs into the ground, by which a tent is fastened; it is likewise used on various other occasions, especially in fortification and artillery.

MALLEABLE, in the art of founding, a property of metals, whereby they are capable of being extended under the hammer.

MALTA, the strongest place in the Mediterranean, taken by the French troops during the late war, from the Knights of that order, and since retaken by the British. The island of Malta may be considered as a key to the Levant. See Military orders.

MAMMILLARIA, (Mammelière, Fr.) a word corrupted from the Latin, signifying a sort of armour, or that part of armour which formerly covered the chest and uipples. Étienne de la Fontaine, who was silver-smith to the French court, mentions, among other articles, two sets of Mammelières, in an account which was delivered in the year 1352.

MAMALUKES, (Mammelus, Fr.) Some writers assert, that they were Turkish and Circassian slaves, originally purchased from the wandering Tartars by Meliasahel, and amounting in number, to one thousand men. They were trained and disciplined to war, and some were raised to the first places of trust and empire. Other writers say, that the Mamalukes were generally chosen out of Christian slaves, and may be considered in the same light as the Turkish Janizaries are: others again assert, that they originally came from Circassia, and attracted public notice by their valour, &c. in 869. See D’Herculot, page 545. The Mamalukes made a considerable figure during the late war, especially in their contest against Bonaparte, for the defence of Egypt. They afterwards joined the French, and formed a considerable part of their cavalry.

MAN, to man the works, is to post the soldiers on the lines so as to be ready for their defence, &c. In the plural number it means soldiers, as an army consisting of 12,000 men.

Flank-front-rank-MAN. Each soldier upon the right and left extremity of the first line or rank of any given body of troops is so called.

Flank-rear-rank-MAN. Each soldier upon the right and left extremity of the last line or rank of any given body of troops.

When a company or battalion is drawn up three deep, the two men who stand at the extremities of the center line may be called flank-center-rank-men.

MAN, Isle of, the mutiny act extends thither in many instances. See Sect. 78.

MANCELLE, Fr. a small chain which is fixed to the collars of carriage or dray horses, and which terminates in a large iron ring, that is attached to the shaft. It likewise means the ring itself.

MANCHIE d’un Bataillon, Fr. literally means the sleeve of a battalion. This word originally signified any small body consisting of 40 or 60 men, which were drawn out of the main-body of a battalion, and were posted by file on the corners or angles of the same battalion.

At present the word manches means the wings of a battalion, the center of which was composed of pikemen, whilst pikes were in use. Thus there were right and left wings, which were again divided into half-wings, quarter-wings, and half-quarter wings.

Any battalion may defile or break off by wings, half-wings, or by the other proportions.

The term manche, or wing, was undoubtedly adopted for the express purpose of distinguishing several small corps, which, though at times connected and standing together, could suddenly detach themselves, and act against the enemy without occasioning the most trifling fluctuation or movement in the main-body. The Greeks and Romans must have had a term synonymous to manche, in order to shew the several little portions into which the phalanx of the former, and the legion of the latter, were at times divided, when there was occasion for either to manoeuvre upon
upon the same principles that we do by wings.

_Gardes de la Manche,_ Fr. men belonging to the old French body guards, who on particular occasions, as at the Royal Chapel, &c. stood on each side of the king, dressed in hoquetons, and armed with pertuisanes or lances.

_La Manche_, Fr. the channel.

_La Manche Britannique_, Fr. the British channel.

_La Manche de Bristol_, Fr. the Bristol channel.

_Manche d'outil_, Fr. the handle of any utensil.

MANDARIN, a name which the Portuguese originally gave to the Chinese nobility. According to a French author, the Mandarins are divided into nine orders, each having a peculiar mark of distinction to ascertain its rank.

_Civil Mandarins._ (Mandarins lettrés, Fr.) these were able and scientific men who had the management of the different branches belonging to civil government.

_Military Mandarins._ (Mandarins militaires, Fr.) a certain proportion of the body of mandarins is selected by the Emperor of China, to superintend and command the militia of the country; these are called military mandarins.

The mandarins are considered as noblemen, but their rank is not hereditary. Every mandarin undergoes a severe and close examination respecting his natural and acquired talents, before he receives a civil or military appointment; and there are public schools or seminaries to which the natives of the empire may repair to obtain the requisite qualifications for such important and honourable stations.

MANDILION, (Mandille, Fr.) the soldier's coat is so called by the Italians. It does not, however, bear that meaning either amongst us or among the French; Mandilion and Mandille signifying a footman's great coat.

MANDRIN, Fr. a small bowl or wooden cylinder which is used in making up cartridges.

MANEGE, in horsemanship, the exercise of riding the great horse, or the ground set apart for that purpose; which is sometimes covered, for continuing the exercise in bad weather; and sometimes open, in order to give more liberty and freedom both to the horseman and horse.

MANGAN, Fr. This word is sometimes written MANGON, (see Gun), a warlike machine which was formerly used. The term itself, indeed, was generally adopted to signify any species of warlike machine. But it more particularly meant the largest and most powerful machine that could be used for warlike purposes; whether it was practised to throw enormous stones against besieged places, or to cast javelins, &c. It was likewise called balista, from the Greek, tormentum from the Latin & torquendo; and sometimes petraria, because stones weighing upwards of three hundred and sixty pounds, were thrown from it. This machine answered the double purpose of defending or attacking fortified places, and it was sometimes used at sea. According to a French writer, one of these machines may still be seen at Basle.

MANGANELLE, Fr. See MANGONNEAU.

MANGONNEAU, Fr. a word originally derived from the Greek, which, according to Potter, seems to signify any engine designed to cast missive weapons. With respect to that particular engine, which the French have called mangan, manganelle, and mangonneau, our ingenious countryman observes, there is not any proper term, he knows of, for that famous engine, out of which stones, of a size not less than mill-stones, were thrown with such violence, as to dash whole houses in pieces at a blow. It was called indeed by the Romans, balista; but this name though of Grecian original, appears not to have been used in Greece; this engine, however, was known there, and was the same with that used by the Romans, the force of which is thus expressed by Lucan:—

_At saxum quoties ingentes verberis ictus
Excititur, quavis rupes, quam vertice montis
Aequales impulsus ventorum adjutis vetustis;
Frangit cumca ruentia, nec tantum corpora pressa
Examinat totos cum sanguine dissipat artus._

MANIE, Fr. madness; excessive fondness. This word has been used by the French, to express an attachment to national manners, &c. Hence, Ang-
Ouvrez le bassinet.—Open pan.
Fermez le bassinet.—Shut pan.
Port arms is not practised among the French. When a guard is dismissed, instead of porting arms, the soldier receives the following word of command, *haut les armes!* which is somewhat similar to recover arms.

MANIEMENT des armes, Fr. the platoon exercise is also so called in the French service, and is distinguished from their manual by the additional caution of charge en douze temps, or prime and load in twelve motions.

Charges vos armes.—Prime and load.
Ouvrez le bassinet.—Open pan.
Prenez la cartouche.—Handle cartridge.
Amorcez.—Prime.
Fermez le bassinet.—Shut pan.
L’arme a gauche.—Cast about.
Cartouche dans le canon.—Load.
Tirez la baguette.—Draw ramrod.
Bourez.—Ram down cartridge.
Remettez la baguette.—Return ramrod.
Portez vos armes.—Shoulder arms.

FIRING AFTER THE MANUAL.

Apprenez vos armes.—Make ready.
Joute.—Present.
Feu.—Fire.
Chargez.—Prime and load.
Le chien au repos.—Half-cock firelock.
Portez vos armes.—Carry arms.
Présentez vos armes.—Present arms.
Portez vos armes.—Shoulder arms.
Reposez vous sur vos armes.—Order arms.
Termez.—Stand at ease.

INSPECTION D’ARMES.—INSPECTION OF ARMS.

Baïonnette au canon.—Fix bayonet.
Baguette dans le canon.—Spring ramrod.

In the British service the ramrod is ramed down the barrel without any further word of command.

Vos armes à terre.—Ground arms.
Relevez vos armes.—Take up arms.
Portez vos armes.—Shoulder arms.
L’arme au bras.—Support arms.
Portez vos armes.—Carry arms.
Présentez la baïonnette. Charge bayonet.
Portez vos armes.—Shoulder arms.

The other words of command which do not belong to the manual, but are occasionally practised, consist of

Baïonnette au canon.—Fix bayonet.
Tirez la baguette.—Draw ramrod.
Baguette dans le canon.—Spring ramrod.
L’arme à volonté.—Slope arms.
L’arme au bras gauche.—Secure arms.
Armes au jusseau.—Pile arms.
Repos.—Stand at ease.
Portez les armes comme sergent.—Advance arms.
Remettez la baguette.—Return ramrod.
Remettez la baïonnette.—Return or unfix bayonet.
This has been adopted since the revolution.

Portes vos armes.—Carry arms.
Charge précipitée.—Prime and load in four motions.
 Charges vos armes.—Load.
Deux.—Go.
Trois.—Go.
Quatre.—Go.

Charge à volonté.—Independent or running fire.
Charge à volonté.—Independent firing.
 Charges vos armes.—Prime and load.

PLATOON FIRING.

Peloton.—Toon.
Armes.—Ready.
Feu.—Fire.

Charges.—Prime and load.
Roulement.—Roll.
Fin de Roulement.—Cease to roll.
Feu a volonté.—Independent firing.
Peloton.—Toon.
Armes.—Ready.

Commences le feu.—Commence firing.
Roulement.—Roll.

It is here necessary to explain to the English reader, that the words of command Roulement and Fin de Roulement, are only used in the drill, or when there is not any drum to beat the prescribed roll.

MANIER, Fr. to handle. This word is generally used among the French in a military sense, whenever they speak of portable fire-arms, &c.

Manier les armes, Fr. to handle the fire-lock, or handle arms.

Manier la hallebarde, Fr. to handle, or salute with the halbert.

Manier le spmonton, Fr. to handle, or salute with the spmonton.

Manier l'épée, Fr. to be a swordsman, or to handle the sword.

Manier le drapeau, Fr. to furl or unfurl the colours.

Manier l'épée à deux mains, Fr. to be able to use your sword with either hand.

MANIFESTO (manifeste, Fr.) a public declaration which is made by a prince or state, containing its reasons for entering into a war. The formality of a manifesto has been considerably reduced in modern times. Among the ancients, on the contrary, it was particularly attended to. Potter, in his Grecian Antiquities, observes, that invasions with-

out notice, were looked upon rather as robberies than lawful wars, as designed rather to spoil and make a prey of persons innocent and unprovided, than to repair any losses or damages sustained, which, for aught the invaders knew, might have been satisfied for an easier way. It is therefore no wonder, what Polybius (lib. iv.) relates of the Ætolians, that they were held for the common out-laws and robbers of Greece, it being their manner to strike without warning, and to make war without any previous and public declaration, whenever they had an opportunity of enriching themselves with the spoil and booty of their neighbours. Yet there want not instances of wars begun without previous notice, even by nations of better repute for justice and humanity: but this was only done upon provocations so great and exasperating, that no recompence was thought sufficient to atone for them: whence it came to pass, that such wars were of all others the most bloody and pernicious, and fought with excess of rage and fury; the contesting parties being resolved to extirpate each other, if possible, out of the world.

Before the Grecians engaged themselves in war, it was usual to publish a declaration of the injuries they had received, and to demand satisfaction by ambassadors: for however prepared, or excellently skilled they were in the affairs of war, yet peace, if to be procured upon honourable terms, was thought more eligible: which custom was observed even in the most early ages, as appears from the story of Tydeus, whom Polynices sent to compose matters with his brother Eteocles, King of Thebes, before he proceeded to invest that city, as we are informed by Statius, (Thbaid. lib. ii. v. 368.) and several others. See Potter, p. 64 and 65.

The Romans, on the other hand, used an abundance of superstitious in entering upon any hostility, or closing in any league or confederacy; the public ministers who performed the ceremonial part of both these, were the Feciales, or heralds. The ceremonies were of this nature: When any neighbouring state had given sufficient reason for the senate to suspect a design of breaking with them; or had offered any violence or injustice to the subjects of Rome, which
which was enough to give them the re-
pute of enemies; one of the faciales,
chosen out of the college upon this oc-
casion, and habited in the vest belong-
ing to his order, together with his other 
ensigns and habiliments, set forward for
the enemy's country. As soon as he
reached the confines, he pronounced a
formal declaration of the cause of his
arrival, calling all the gods to witness,
and imprecating the divine vengeance
on himself and his country, if his rea-
sons were not just. When he came to
the chief city of the enemy, he again re-
peated the same declaration, with some
addition, and with all desired satisfac-
tion. If they delivered into his power the au-
thors of the injury, or gave hostages for
security, he returned satisfied to Rome;
if otherwise, they desired time to con-
sider; he went away for ten days, and
then came again to hear their resolu-
tion; and this he did, in some cases, three
times: but, if nothing was done
towards an accommodation in about
thirty days, he declared that the Ro-
mans would endeavour to assert their
right by their arms. After this, the he-
erald was obliged to return, and to make
a true report of his embassy before the
senate, assuring them of the legality of
the war, which they were now consult-
ing to undertake; and was then again
dispersed to perform the last part of
the ceremony, which was to throw a
spear into, or towards the enemy's coun-
try, in token of defiance, and as a
summons to war, pronouncing at the
same time a set form of words to the
like purpose. Kennett's Roman Anti-
quities, book iv. page 229.

MANIGLIONS, the two handles on
the back of a piece of ordnance. See
Cannon.

MANiple. See MANIPULUS.
MANIPULARIS, (manipulaire, Fr.)
from MANIPLE, a handful or bottle of
straw. The chief officer in a part of
the Roman infantry called Manipulus,
was so called.

MANIPULE, Fr. See MANIPULUS.
MANIPULE Pyrotechnique, Fr. a cer-
tain quantity of iron or brass petards,
which may be thrown by the hand upon
an enemy. These petards and the me-
thod of making them are particularly de-
scribed by Casimi in his work on artil-
lery. See PETARDS.

MANIPULUS, (manipule, Fr.) a small
body of infantry, originally so called
among the Romans during the reign of
Romulus.

It consisted of one hundred men, and
in the days of the Consuls and first Ca-
sars, of two hundred. Three Manipuli
constituted a Roman cohort. Each
Manipulus was commanded by two offi-
cers called centurions, one of whom ac-
et as lieutenant to the other. A centu-
rium among the Romans, may be con-
sidered in the same light, as we view a
captain of a company in modern service.
Every Manipulus made two centuries or
Ordines. This, however, cannot be
said to have been the uniform estab-
ishment or formation of the Manipulus;
for according to Varro and Vegetius, it
was the smallest body of men employed
in the Roman armies, and composed the
tenth part of a century. Spartan in his
life of Sexennius Niger, says it consist-
ed only of ten soldiers. We have al-
ready observed, that it takes its name
from Manipulus, which signifies a hand-
ful of straw; the latter having been
fixed to a long pole to serve as a rally-
ing signal, before the eagles were adopt-
ed. This circumstance has given rise to
the modern expression, a handful of
men, une poignée de gens. Vegetius, on
the other hand, says it comes from
manus, which signifies a small body of
handful of men collected together, and
following the same standard: and Mo-
destus as well as Varro, state it to have
been so called, because, when they went
into action, they took one another by
the hand, or fought all together. A
French writer conceives, that Manipu-
lus may be considered as one of those
parts of a modern battalion, which are
distributed in different rooms, &c. and
which is called une chambrée, or a com-
pany that messes together.

According to some writers, the hand-
ful of straw seems to have been suc-
cceeded by a small flag of cloth, to which
latter the term manipulus was also
applied.

MANOEUVRE, (Manoeuvre, Fr.)
manoeuvres of war consist chiefly in ha-
bilitating the soldier to a variety of
evolutions, to accustom him to different
movements, and to render his mind fa-
miliar with the nature of every prin-
ple of offensive or defensive operation.
The regular manœuvres which are ordered to be practised throughout the British army, at review, are nineteen: they are detailed in the Rules and Regulations for the Formations, Field Exercise, and Movements of his Majesty's Forces, with appropriate references to the several sections of that work, which elucidate the mode of performing them.

The word manœuvre is frequently used in the French artillery to express the method with which a piece of ordnance or mortar is raised and placed upon its carriage by several hands, assisted by the crab or any other machine. In a general acceptance of the term, manœuvre means that mechanical process by which any weight is lifted.

To manœuvre, is to manage any body or armed force in such a manner as to derive sudden and unexpected advantages before the enemy, from a superior talent in military movements. It consists in distributing equal motion to every part of a body of troops, to enable the whole to form, or change their position, in the most expeditious and appropriate method, to answer the purposes required of a battalion, brigade, or line of cavalry, infantry, or artillery. It has always been lamented, that men have been brought on service without being acquainted with the uses of the different manœuvres they have been practising; for having no ideas of any thing but the uniformity of the parade, they instantly fall into disorder and confusion when they lose the step, or see a deviation from the straight lines they have been accustomed to at exercise. It is a pity to see so much attention confined to show, and so little given to instruct the troops in what may be of use to them on real service.

No manœuvre should be executed in the presence of an enemy, unless protected by some division of the troops.

Grand Manœuvre de guerre, Fr. this expression is peculiarly French, and may be said to signify the dispositions of war upon a large scale. According to Marshal Saxe these dispositions consist chiefly in drawing troops up in such a manner, that the cavalry and infantry may support each other; but he objects to that arrangement by which companies or platoons of infantry are intermixed with squadrons of horse; for, as

he justly observes, if the latter should be beaten, the foot soldiers must unavoidably be thrown into confusion by the enemy's cavalry, and be cut to pieces. For further particulars on this important article, see Saxe's Reueries, where he treats of La Grande Manœuvre de Guerre, and the Supplement to them by Baron d'Espagnac, page 69.

Warlike Manœuvres, (manoeuvres de guerre, Fr.) warlike manœuvres, or the different exercises, &c. by which men are taught the military profession; these exercises, from the earliest periods of history, have been infinitely diversified. Vegetius, an ancient writer, remarks, that the Romans, in order to secure their raw troops to the fatigues of war, had specific regulations drawn up, by which every recruit was regularly practised in martial exercises. These regulations were originally formed during the existence of their republic, and were afterwards confirmed by the emperors Augustus and Adrian.

It was particularly ordained, that the cavalry as well as the infantry should be walked out (être mener à la promenade) three times every month. The foot were obliged to go ten miles beyond the lines of their encampment. On these occasions they were regularly drawn up. But their movements both in going and returning were frequently altered; being sometimes obliged to march at a moderate rate, and at others to increase their pace, and run. The same regulation held good with respect to the cavalry, which was armed and divided into certain proportions called Turmae. The troops on horseback went the same distance, and practiced different evolutions on the road. Sometimes advancing to attack, and at others suddenly wheeling round, to return to the charge with greater impetuousity. These exercises were not, however, confined to open roads, or a level country: both horse and foot were frequently ordered to make their way through intricate passes, over craggy hills, &c. and to accustom themselves to every possible obstacle that might occur in military movements.

This species of manœuvre or practising exercise, has not obtained in modern times. It is now thought sufficient to teach a raw recruit the use of the fire-lock.
lock, and to make him master of a certain number of movements, by the knowledge of which he may be able to make part of a well disciplined corps. How to march against and attack an enemy, or to meet his attack with skill and steadiness; these principally constitute the system of modern manoeuvres, and are better understood by the name of evolutions. In the British service there is a specific number of manoeuvres or evolutions to which every regiment must conform, and with the particular practice of which every officer and soldier must be made intimately acquainted. As these are detailed in the General Rules and Regulations, published by authority, we shall content ourselves with referring to them.

MANCEUVRE, Fr. to manoeuvre. This verb, in the French language, may be applied two ways; as, Manceuvre les voiles, to manage the sails and tackle of a vessel.

MANCEUVRER des Trupes, to make soldiers go through their different manoeuvres. Ces troupes ont bien manœuvré, those soldiers have ably manoeuvred.

Bien ou mal MANCEUVRE, Fr. signifies to manoeuvre well or ill; as, un tel général ou officier a bien manœuvré à tel passage, à tel endroit, such a general manoeuvred well at such a passage or quarter; mais un tel à mal manœuvré à la defense ou à l’attaque de tel poste, but such an officer manoeuvred extremely ill in his defence or attack of such a post. The word manoeuvre is originally derived from the Latin Manus Opus.

MANCEUVRIER, Fr. any officer who is perfectly acquainted with the art of manoeuvring.

MANCEUVRIER is also applied to a troop or company, and even to a whole army, whose evolutions are done with correctness.

MANCEUVRIER, Fr. a sea phrase, which is frequently used among the French, to signify that an officer not only understands all the different words of command, but can thoroughly manoeuvre his ship. It is common to say, il est un des meilleurs manœuvriers qui soient sur mer, he is one of the ablest sea officers in the service.

MANQUER, Fr. to miss; to be deficient in any thing; as manquer à sa parole, to break one's parole.

Une arme à feu MANQUE, Fr. a firearm, or musket misses fire.

MANQUER de munition, Fr. to be in want of stores and ammunition.

'MANQUER de cœur, Fr. to be irresolute; to want courage.

MANQUER de 'foi, Fr. to break one's word; to be guilty of a breach of faith.

MANQUER une occasion, Fr. to let slip an opportunity.

MANQUER belle, Fr. to escape narrowly.

MANTEAU, Fr. This word, which literally signifies a cloak, is frequently used among the French to express the covering that hussars or light infantry troops carry for the double purpose of shielding their bodies from the inclemencies of the weather in outposts, &c. and for spreading over their heads, by means of poles, when they occasionally halt, and take a position.

MANTEAU d'armes, Fr. a piece of ticking made in the form of a cone, with which a stand of arms is secured against the rain. This case is sometimes made with straw, or the branches of trees.

MANTEAU d’honneur, Fr. In the days of chivalry the Manteau d'honneur, or robe of honour, was the greatest ornament that could be worn, by a knight, when he was not armed. It was of a bright scarlet dye, very long, and lined with crimson. When any gentleman was knighted he received this robe of honour from the king himself.

Garder les Manteaux, Fr. a figurative expression used among the French to signify a bye-stander.—It is more immediately applicable to seconds in a duel.

MANTELETS, in a military sense, are either single or double, composed of great planks of wood, of about 5 feet high, and 3 inches thick. The single ones are sometimes covered with tin, made musket-proof, which the pioneers generally roll before them, being fixed upon wheels, to cover them from the enemy's fire, in opening the trenches, or carrying on the sap, &c. The double ones form an angle, and stand square, making two fronts, which cover both the front and flank of the sappers, &c. when at work: these have double planks, with earth rammed in between them: they are 5 feet high and 3 in breadth, and
and are sometimes covered with plates of iron. They may with propriety be called a moving parapet, having a shaft to guide them by.

MANTONET, Fr. a small piece of wood or iron, which is notched, for the purpose of hanging any thing upon it. The pegs in soldiers rooms are sometimes so called.

MANUAL.—In a general acceptation of the word, means any thing done by the hand.

MANUAL exercise, a regulated method which officers and soldiers are taught, for the purpose of rendering them familiar with the musquet, and of adapting their persons to military movements under arms. This exercise has lately undergone some alteration: the words of command are—Secure arms—Shoulder arms—Order arms—Fix bayonets—Shoulder arms—Present arms—Shoulder arms—Port arms—Charge bayonets—Shoulder arms—Advance arms—Shoulder arms—Support arms—Carry arms; which being severally explained under their alphabetical arrangement, it is unnecessary here to trouble the reader with further detail.

MANUBALISTE, Fr. from the Latin, manubalista. A cross bow.

MANUFACTURES d'armes, Fr. places appropriated for the manufacturing of arms. During the old government of France, three places were appropriated for the manufacturing of arms; one at Maubeuge, one at Charleville and Nourzou, and the third at St. Etienne en Foret. These were called Royal manufactories of arms for public service. A director-general superintended the whole, to whom every person concerned in the undertaking was subject, and who was himself subordinate to those artillery inspectors and comptrollers, that were severally appointed by the grand master of the ordnance and the secretary at war.

MAP, in a military and geographical sense, is a plane figure, representing the surface of the earth, or a part thereof, according to the laws of perspective; distinguishing the situation of cities, mountains, rivers, roads, &c.

In maps these three things are essentially necessary. 1. That all places have the same situation and distance from the great circles therein, as on the globe, to shew their parallels, longitudes, zones, climates, and celestial appearances. 2. That their magnitudes be proportionable to the real magnitudes on the globes. 3. That all places have the same situation, bearing, and distance, as on the earth itself.

MAPS are either universal, which exhibit the whole surface of the earth; or partial, which exhibit some particular part thereof: each kind is called geographical or land maps, in contradistinction to hydrographical or sea maps, representing the seas, and sea-coasts, properly called charts.

As a map is a representation of some part of the surface of the earth delineated upon a plane, the earth, being round, no part of the spherical surface of it can be accurately exhibited upon a plane; and therefore some have proposed globular maps. For this purpose a plate of brass might be hammered, or at a less expense a piece of paste-board might be formed into a segment of a sphere, and covered on its convex side with a map projected in the same manner as the papers of the common globe are. A map made in this method would show every thing in the same manner, as it would be seen upon a globe of the same diameter, with the sphere upon the segment of which it was delineated: and, indeed, maps of this sort would in effect be segments of such a globe; but they are not in common use.

The ancients described all parts of the known earth in one general map. In this view one of them compares the shape of the earth to the leather of a sling, whose length exceeds its breadth: the length of the then known parts of the earth from east to west was considerably greater than from north to south; for which reason, the former of these was called the longitude, and the other the latitude.

The modern general maps are such as give us a view of an entire hemisphere, or half of the globe; and are projected upon the plane of some great circle, which terminates the projected hemisphere, and divides it from the other half of the globe, at the equator, the meridian, or horizon of some place. From the circle the projection is denominated, and said to be equatorial, meridional, or horizontal.

Particular maps are such as exhibit
According to strict orthography, we ought to write merodeurs, and not marauders. The truth is, these partisans took their name from a Comte de Merode, a brutal and licentious officer in these wars, who was killed in a drunken quarrel by John de Wert. From this man's practice, a plunderer and a ra- visher was surnamed merodista, by the Spanish and Italian soldiers, who served then under the emperor: from whence came the French word Marauder, which the Marischal de Luxembourg always spelt Marodeur. Réflexions Militaires et Politiques de Santa Cruz. Tom. iii.

This word is, however, to be found in Gombauld, a French writer of high fashion in his time; who was near 30 years old before Gustavus was born; whose chief patron (except Madame de Rambouillet,) Henry the Fourth, and Marie de Medici, died before Gustavus was king; and who was near sixty before Gustavus went to war!

The word in Gombauld (as it is also in Molière) is maraud (now more usually marauder) to express the perpetrator of the act; the man who goes à la maraude, viz.

Voyant la splendeur, non commune,
Dont ce Maraud est rezé,
Qui ne dirait, que la Fortune
Vient faire enragier la Vertu!

Hearing what wealth, wealth hardly heard!

This vile Marauder dares to steal,
One almost thinks Chance thus has err'd,
That Virtue's temper she might feel!

On the other hand, it is asserted by a correspondent that the word has been long since traced to Maroud which in Hebrew also expresses a man guilty of fraud and rapine. From thence it has pased, with deflections, not very violent in language, through the Greek and Latin.

The word is not in Johnson, though it might have indulged him in his fine manner, as a moralist, and as an antagallican too, on the horrible enormity of a marauder; for which we have no word but what we must borrow from the Frenchman or the Jew. marauder, Fr. the act of marauding. This word specifically means the theft or depredation which a soldier commits against the peasantry of the country. MARAIS, Fr. a marsh. This species of soil affords great defence and security to any strong fort, which is surrounded by it.

To Marauder, to plunder. This word, by respectable authority, suggested to have been derived from a proper name. We read in Gustavus Adolphus, that one Merode, a bold and enterprising Spanish partisan of some distinction, was in the habits of making depredations and incursions, at the head of a party, which disregarded the common laws and regulations of war. He afterwards fell a victim to his own rashness. In confirmation of this opinion, Harte, in his history of the life of Gustavus Adolphus, makes the following observations: vide page 70, vol. ii.
country, and for which offence he is punished with death in all foreign services.

Aller en Marauder, to go out marauding.

Marauder, (maraudeur, Fr.) a marauder. This term is not strictly English. Its signification, however, is generally the same in all services. Any soldier that steals out of camp, armed or unarmed, for the purpose of pillaging the country, is a marauder, and is liable, upon conviction, to be punished with death, or such other punishment as by a general court-martial shall be awarded.

Marauding, in a military sense, the act of plundering, which is generally committed by a party of soldiers, who, without any order, go into the neighbouring houses or villages, when the army is either in camp or in garrison, to pilfer and destroy, &c. Marauders are a disgrace to the camp, to the military profession, and deserve no better quarters from their officers than they give to poor peasants, &c. The crime of marauding is indeed provided against by Sect. xiv. Article xviii. of the Articles of War.

Marc, Fr. a weight equal to eight ounces. In France, it is usual for silversmiths and jewellers, to take a marc at that standard, but when articles of greater bulk and grosser quality than those they deal in, are brought to the scale, the marc contains 16 ounces to the pound. All stores and ammunition were appreciated by this measure.

A March, (une marche, Fr.) is the moving of a body of men from one place to another. Care must be taken in marching troops, that they are not liable to be flanked or intercepted; for of all operations none is more difficult, because they must not only be directed to the objects they have in view, but according to the movements the enemy may have made.

Of all the mechanical parts of war, none is more essential than that of marching. It may be justly called the key which leads to all important motions and manoeuvres of an army; for they depend entirely on this point. A man can be attacked in four different ways; in the front, on both flanks, and in the rear: but he can defend himself, and annoy the enemy, only when placed with his face towards him. Hence it follows, that the general object of marching is reduced to three points only; to march forwards, and on both sides, because it is impossible to do it for any time backwards, and by that means face the enemy wherever he presents himself. The different steps to be made use of are three: slow, quick, and oblique. The first is proper in advancing, when at a considerable distance from the enemy, and when the ground is unequal, that the line may not be broken, and that a regular fire may be kept up without intermission. The second is chiefly necessary, when you want to anticipate the enemy in occupying some post, in passing a defile, and, above all, in attacking an intrenchment, to avoid being a long while exposed to the fire of the artillery and small arms, &c. The third step is of infinite consequence, both in the infantry and cavalry; columns may be opened and formed into lines, and, vice versa, lines into columns, by this kind of step, in a lesser space, and consequently in less time, than by any other method whatsoever. In coming out of a defile, you may instantly form the line without presenting the flank to the enemy. The line may be formed though ever so near to the enemy, with safety, because you face him, and can with ease and safety protect and cover the motion of the troops, while they are coming out of the defiles and forming. The same thing may be equally executed, when a column is to be formed, in order to advance or retreat; which is a point of infinite consequence, and should be established as an axiom.

The order of march of the troops must be so disposed, that each should arrive at their rendezvous, if possible on the same day. The quarter-master-general, or his deputy, with an able engineer, should sufficiently reconnoitre the country, to obtain a perfect knowledge both of that and of the enemy, before he forms his routes.

Before a march, the army generally receives several days bread. The quarter-masters, camp-colour-men, and pioners, parade according to orders, and march immediately after, commanded by the quarter-master-general, or his deputy. They are to clear the roads, level the
the ways, make preparations for the
march of the army, &c. The general,
for instance, beats at 2, the assembly, at
3, and the army to march in 30 minutes
after. Upon beating the general, the
village and general officer’s guards,
quarter and rear-guard, join their re-
spective corps; and the army pack up
their baggage. Upon beating the assem-
bly, the tents are to be struck, and sent
with the baggage to the place appoint-
et, &c.

The companies draw up in their sev-
eral streets, and the rolls are called. At
the time appointed, the drummers are to
beat a march, and fifers play at the head
of the line; upon which the companies
march out from their several streets,
form battalions as they advance to the
head of the line, and then halt.

The several battalions will be formed
into columns by the adjutant-general,
and the order of march, &c. be given to
the general officers who lead the col-
umns.

The cavalry generally march by regi-
ments or squadrons. The heavy artil-
lerists always keep the great roads, in the
center of the columns, escorted by a
strong party of infantry and cavalry.—
The field-pieces move with the col-
umns.

Each soldier generally marches with
60 rounds of powder and ball, and three
good flints; one of which is to be fixed
in the cock of his firelock. The routes
must be so formed, that no column may
cross another on the march.

MARCH! (marche, Fr.) as a word of
command, whenever it is given singly,
invariably denotes that ordinary time is
to be taken; when the quick march is
meant, that word will precede the other.
The word march, marks the beginning
of movements from the halt; but it is
not given when the body is in previous
motion. It should be sharp, clear, and
distinct.

In MARCHING, every soldier must be
well balanced on his limbs: his arms
and hands, without stiffness, must be
kept steady by his sides, and not suffer-
ed to vibrate. He must not be allowed
to stoop forward, still less to lean back.
His body must be kept square to the
front, and thrown rather more forward
in marching than when halted, that it
may accompany the movement of the
leg and thigh: the ham must be stretch-
ed, but without stiffening the knee: the
toe a little pointed, and kept near the
ground, so that the shoe-soles may not
be visible to a person in front; the head
to be kept well up, straight to the front,
and the eyes not suffered to be cast
down: the foot, without being drawn
back, must be placed flat on the ground.
Page 6, Sect. 5, Rules and Regulations.

With deference to the prevailing
mode of drilling, we cannot help ob-
erving, that the object so generally re-
commended, of keeping the body erect,
and the legs well stretched and pointed,
would be effectually gained, were re-
cruits, when they are first placed under
the moulding hand of the drill serjeant,
taught and gradually accustomed to step
well out from the baunches. This meth-
ods is invariably practised among the
French, who are unquestionably not
only the best dancers, but the most ex-
pert movers on foot in the world.

Quick-MARCH, a movement by which
troops advance at the rate of 108 steps
in the minute, each of 30 inches, making
270 feet in a minute.

Quick-MARCH, as a word of command,
signifies, that the troops should move in
quick time.

Slow-MARCH, a movement by which
troops advance at the rate of 75 steps
in the minute.

In order to teach a recruit the just
length of pace, accurate distances must
be marked out on the ground, along
which he should be practised.

Wheeling-MARCH, or quickest time, is
120 steps of 30 inches each, or 300 feet
in the minute.

This is the most rapid movement by
which men under arms, or otherwise
when formed, go from line into column,
or come from column into line. The
regulation prescribes 120 steps of 30
inches each, or 300 feet in the minute.
This is applied chiefly to the purpose of
wheeling, and is the rate at which all
bodies accomplish their wheels, the out-
ward file stepping 33 inches, whether
the wheel be from line into column,
during the march in column, or from
column into line. In this time also
should divisions double and move up,
when passing obstacles in line; or when
in the column of march, the front of
divisions is increased or diminished.

A March, (la marche, Fr.) a certain
line
tune or concord of notes, which is adapted to the movement of any particular body of troops, as the grenadier's march, the march of the Marsellos, la marche des Janissaires, the march of the Janissaries.

Marching to the front or rear. As this is confessedly one of the most difficult operations in military movements, we shall extract from pages 34 and 35, of the Rules and Regulations, as published by authority, the first principles by which men are taught to march together, referring the reader, at the same time, to page 24 for a more minute instruction as far as it regards the individual.

The person instructing a platoon will, before he puts it in motion to front or rear, indicate which flank is to direct, by giving the word Eyes Right! or Eyes Left! and then March. Should the right be the directing flank, the commander of the platoon himself will fix on objects to march upon, in a line truly perpendicular to the front of the platoon; and when the left flank is ordered to direct, he and his covering serjeant will shift to the left of the front rank, and take such objects to march upon.

The conductor of the platoon, before the word March is given, will endeavour to remark some distant object on the ground, in his own front, and perpendicular to the directing flank, he will then observe some nearer and intermediate point, in the same line, such as a stone, tuft, &c. these he will move upon with accuracy, and as he approaches the nearest of these points, he must from time to time chase fresh ones, in the original direction, which he will by these means preserve, never having fewer than two such points to move upon. If no object in the true line can be ascertained, his own squareness of person must determine the direction of the march.

The same observations hold good in all movements to front or rear, or from either flank; and the only way to execute them with accuracy, is for the leader to look out for small intermediate points of march. See page 87, Part III. of Rules and Regulations.

March of a battalion in File, is to advance from the right, left, or center of any given number of men, for the purposes of countermarching, or of closing, or opening an interval in line. On these occasions the whole step off together, at the word March, and halt at the word halt. At the word front, the whole front, and the officers and serjeants resume their several posts in line. Whenever more than one company march in file, the officers are out of the ranks during the march, on the left of the leading file, when the right is in front, and on the right when the left is in front. They are of use in preserving the line and step, as the rear officer necessarily keeps the pace, and marches on the exact perpendicular line of his coverer. When a company is marched off singly, or files into or out of column, the officer is invariably to be in front. It sometimes happens, that a battalion standing in narrow ground, may be obliged to form open column from its leading flank, either before or behind that flank, before or behind its other flank; or, before or behind any central part of the line.

To March in File before the Right Flank. When the right platoon or company has moved on, the rest of the battalion face to the right, and march in file; the divisions then successively front, following each other, and taking the leading one for their regulating company.

To March in File behind the Right Flank. The whole face to the right, and March by word of command; at which instant the right division countermarches to the rear, fronts, and moves forward; whilst every other division successively moves on in the same manner (having previously countermarched) and continues till the whole is in column.

To March before any central Point or the Left Flank. The battalion makes a successive countermarch, from the right flank towards the left, and when the right division is arrived at the point from whence it is to advance in column, it again countermarches to its right, a space equal to its front, then faces, moves on, and is thus successively followed by part of the battalion. The other part of the battalion, beyond the point of advancing, faces inwards, when necessary makes a progressive march in file, and then fronts. Each division belongs-
belonging to this part of the battalion follows successively till the whole stand in column.

To March by Files behind the Center or Left Flank. The right proportion of the battalion countermarches from the right by files successively by the rear, and the other proportion of the battalion, according to circumstances makes a progressive march by files from its right to the central point, and there begins to countermarch; at that point the leading or head division fronts into column, and moves on, each successive division doing the same. When the left of a battalion is to be in front, the same operations take place by an inverse march of the several divisions.

This method, however, of marching by files into open column, should be resorted to as little as possible, and never when it can be conveniently avoided. The formation of open column from battalion and line is better done by the wheelings of companies, subdivisions, or sections. See page 123 Infantry Regulations.

To March up in charging order, is to advance towards the enemy’s line with a quick but firm and steady pace, till you get within a few paces of the opposing body, when an increased rapidity must be given to the whole, so that the men may be said to run; but the officers on this occasion must be particularly attentive to their several divisions, keeping them well dressed to their centre, and thereby preventing dangerous openings, and consequent confusion. The French call this the pas de Charge, which see under PAS.

Points of March, are two objects which ought always to be prepared for the direction of any considerable body, every leader of which who moves directly forward in front, must take care to conduct it in a line perpendicular to that front. But should a leader either in file or front, have only one marked point of march ascertained to him, he will himself instantly look out for his small intermediate points.

To March in file to a flank, is to reduce a line by marching out from its several divisions towards a given flank, there to remain in close or open column, of brigades, regiments, grand divisions, companies, &c. According to the regulations, nothing is more essential in all deployments into line, and in the internal movements of the divisions of the battalion, than the accuracy of the march in file. After facing, and at the word march, the whole are directed to step off at the same instant, each man replacing, or rather overstepping the foot of his preceding comrade; that is, the right foot of the second man comes within the left foot of the first, and thus of every one, more or less overlapping, according to the closeness, or openness of the files and the length of step. The front rank will march straight along the given line, each soldier of that rank must look along the necks of those before him, and never to right or left. The center and rear-ranks must look to, and regulate themselves by their leaders of the front rank, and always dress in their file. Although file-marching is generally made in quick time, it must also be practised in ordinary time. See General Regulations, part 1st, page 27.

March of a battalion in line, is a regular continuity of files advancing forward in two or three ranks, each rear file preserving a perpendicular direction to its leader, and the ranks being kept parallel to each other at given distances; so that the whole line shall continue straight, without being deformed by a concavity or convexity of figure. In the last printed regulations, it has been observed, that the march of the battalion in line, either to front or rear, being the most important and most difficult of all movements, every exertion of the commanding officer, and every attention of officers and men, become peculiarly necessary to attain this end. The great and indispensable requisites of this operation are, that the direction of the march be perpendicular to the front of the battalion as then standing; that the shoulders and body of each individual be perfectly square, that the files touch lightly, and finally, that an accurate equality of cadence and length of step be given by the advanced serjeants, whom the battalion in every respect must cover, and which equality of cadence and length of step every individual must follow and comply with. If these essential rules are not observed, its direction will be lost, the different parts will open and attempt to close, and by so doing, a float-
a floating of the whole will ensue, and disorder will arise at a time when the remedy is so difficult, and perfect order so imperiously wanted.

In order to ensure these essential requisites, and to produce perfect correctness, two or more directing serjeants must be trained to this peculiar object, on whose exactness of cadence, regularity of step, squareness of body, and precision of movement, the greatest dependance can be placed. The habitual post of the two directing serjeants in the battalion, is to be in the center of the battalion, betwixt the colours. One of them is posted in the front-rank, and one in the rear, that they thereby may be ready to move out when the battalion is to march; another also covers them in the supernumerary rank.

Whenever the battalion is formed in line and halted, the front-directing serjeant, after having placed himself perfectly and squarely in the rank, must instantly cast his eyes down the centre of his body, from the junction of his two heels, and by repeated trials endeavour to take up and prolong a line perpendicular to himself, and to the battalion; for this purpose he is by no means to begin with looking out for a distant object, but if such by chance should present itself in the prolongation of the line, extending from his own person, he may remark it. He is therefore rather to observe and take up any accidental small point on the ground, within 100 or 150 paces. Intermediate ones cannot be wanting, nor the renewal of such as he afterwards successively approaches to in his march. In this manner he is prepared, subject to the future correction of the commanding officer, to conduct the march.

To March forward or advance in line, when the battalion has been halted and correctly dressed, is to step off, according to any given word of command, in quick or ordinary time, and to march over a perpendicular line of direction, without deviating to the right or left, or unnecessarily opening or closing during the movement. According to the last printed regulations, the commanding officer having previously placed himself 10 or 12 paces behind the exact line of the directing serjeant, will, if such site could be depended on, as standing truly perpendicular to the battalion, (and great care must be taken to place it so,) remark the line of its prolongation, and thereby ascertain the direction in which it should march; but, as such precision cannot be relied on, he will, from his own eye, and from having the square of the battalion before him, with promptitude make such correction, and observe such object to the right or left, as may appear to him the true one; and in doing this, he will not at once look out for a distant object, but will hit on it, by prolonging the line from the person of the directing serjeant to the front; or he will order the covering serjeant to run out 20 paces, and will place him in the line in which he thinks the battalion ought to advance. The directing serjeant then takes his direction along the line which passes from himself, betwixt the heels of the advanced serjeant, and preserves such line in advancing, by constantly keeping his object in view.

When the commanding officer gives the caution (the battalion will advance) the front directing serjeant moves out 6 accurate and exact paces in ordinary time, halts; the two other serjeants, who were behind him, move up on each side of him, and an officer from the rear, replaces in the front rank, the leading serjeant. The center serjeant, in moving out, marches and halts on his own observed points, and the two other serjeants dress and square themselves exactly by him. If the commanding officer is satisfied, that the center serjeant has moved out in the true direction, he will intimate as much; if he thinks he has swerved to right or left, he will direct him to bring up the shoulder on that side, the smallest degree possible, in order thereby to change his direction, and to take new points on the ground, towards the opposite hand. The line of direction being thus ascertained, at the word march, the whole battalion instantly step off, and without turning the head, eyes are glanced towards the colours in the front-rank; the replacing officer betwixt the colours, preserves, during the movement, his exact distance of 6 paces from the advanced serjeant, and is the guide of the battalion. The center advanced serjeant is answerable for the direction, and the equal cadence
and length of step; to these objects he alone attends, while the other two, scrupulously conforming to his position, maintain their parallelism to the front of the battalion, and thereby present an object, to which it ought to move square: they are not to suffer any other considerations to distract their attention. They must notice and conform to the direction of the commander only, and if any small alteration in their position be ordered, that alteration must be gradually and coolly made.

These are the essential points, which the leading serjeants must be rendered perfect in, and to which every commanding officer will pay the most minute attention. With respect to the officers in the ranks, they can only be observant of their own personal exactness of march, and must consider themselves, as forming part with the aggregate of the men, subject to the same principles of movement, and in no shape or sense independent of them. They are not to attempt to dress their companies by looking along the front, or by calling to the individuals who compose it. By so doing, they must naturally destroy the exact parallelism of the rank they stand in, and by degrees, effectually derange the march: the care of correcting any errors in the front line, belongs to the officers in the rear.

Well-trained soldiers, indeed, know the remedy that is required, and will gradually apply it.

The colours, as far as their natural weight and casualties of the weather will admit, must be carried uniformly and upright, thereby to facilitate the moving and dressing of the line. But it frequently happens in windy weather, and in movement over rough ground, that very little dependence can be placed on the officer who carries them, for a true direction, or an equal and cadenced step. On these occasions, and indeed on all others, the men must on no account turn their heads to the colours. They must, on the contrary, keep their shoulders square to the front, and depend principally on the light touch of the elbow, together with an occasional glance of the eye, and the accuracy of step, for their dressing. On the light touch of the elbow, and a regular cadenced step, the chief dependance must be placed: for if the men be often permitted to glance at the center, they will, by so doing, insensibly contract that habit, abandon the touch of the elbow, shorten or perhaps lose the cadenced step, and, in proportion as the files which are removed from the center adopt that method, the line itself will gradually assume a concave form, by the flanks bending inwards. This fault, as General Dundas has judiciously remarked, would originate in the principle, and not in the soldier.

When any wavering or fluctuation in the march, is produced by an inequality of step, the major and adjutant, who from their situation are particularly calculated to correct the irregularity, will immediately apprise the companies in fault, and coolly caution the others that are well in their true line, not to participate of the error.

When a company has lost the step, (a circumstance which frequently happens) the supernumerary officer of that company must watch a seasonable moment to suggest a change of step, in which operation, he will be assisted by the supernumerary serjeants. For it must be an invariable rule among officers in the ranks, never to deviate from their own perpendicular line of march, to correct the errors of their several companies. That business belongs entirely to the major and adjutant, who are occasionally assisted by the supernumeraries, in the manner just mentioned.

It very often happens, that a central division, by bulging out, may make a flank of a battalion appear to have lost ground, when the fault in reality arises from that division either stepping out too far, or from it being warped towards the colours, and thereby preventing the flank from being seen. All changes and corrections that are judged necessary to be made in any part of a battalion, during its march in line, must be effected gradually. Any abrupt alteration would unavoidably produce a waving, which must be felt in every part. The mounted officers only, with the imperceptible aid of the supernumeraries, can alone point out and correct such faults.

The flanks are not, on any account, to be kept back; much less are they to
be advanced before the center, since in either case, the distance of files must be lost, and the battalion will not be covering its true ground. The commanding officer of every battalion will easily perceive this defect, by casting his eye along the line, which must soon acquire a concave or convex shape, unless the beginning of each inaccuracy be studiously attended to, by the necessary officers. The two officers who are on the two flanks of the battalion, being unconfined by the ranks, and not liable to be influenced by any floating that may arise, by preserving an accurate step, and having a general attention to the colours, and to the proper line which the battalion should be in, with respect to the advanced directors, will very much contribute towards preserving the flanks in their due position. When either of them observes that a line, drawn from himself, through the center of the battalion, passes considerably before the other flank, he may conclude, that he is himself too much retired; when such line passes behind that flank, he may be certain that he is too much advanced; he will, therefore, regulate himself accordingly.

When the battalion in march is convex, the wings must gain the straight line of the center, by bringing up the outward shoulder; and it must be strongly impressed upon the soldier's mind, that in all situations of movement, by advancing or keeping back the shoulder as ordered, the most defective dressing will be gradually and smoothly remedied; whereas sudden jerks and quick alterations break the line, and eventually produce disorder.

It must be generally remarked, that the rear ranks which were closed up before the march began, are to move at the lock step, and not be allowed to open during the march. The correct movement of the battalion depends much on their close order.

In the march in line, arms are always to be carried shouldered. Supported arms are only allowed, when the battalion is halted, or advancing in column; but if this indulgence were allowed in line, when the most perfect precision is required, the distance of files would not be preserved, and slovenliness, inaccuracy, and disorder, must inevitably take place.

To change direction on the center in March, is to correct any floating of the line, occasioned by the opening or closing of the flanks, by ordering the directing serjeant right shoulder forward, if the opening is on the left of the battalion, or left shoulder forward, if the opening is on the right. At this command, the serjeant making an almost imperceptible change of his position, (by bringing up one shoulder) and of his points, and the colours in the battalion, when they have advanced 6 paces to his ground, conforming to it, the whole will, by degrees, gain a new direction. Every change of direction made in this manner, must produce a kind of wheel of the battalion, on its center, one wing gradually giving back, and the other as gradually advancing, an attention which the commander must be careful to see observed.

When a regiment has marched in perfect order, arrives on its ground, and receives the word halt, the step which is then taken is finished, and the whole halt. Eyes are cast to the center, and the commanding officer places himself close to the rear rank, in order to see whether the battalion be sufficiently dressed, and in a direction perfectly parallel to the one it quitted. No preparatory caution is to be used before halting. At the word halt, the whole halt firmly, or, as the French term it, à plumé.

When the battalion is advancing in line for any considerable distance, or moving up in parade, the music may be allowed at intervals, to play for a few seconds only, and the drums in two divisions to roll, but the wind instruments are alone permitted to play. When the line is retiring, the music are never to play. See Infantry Regulations, page 220 to 226.

To march by any one face, the square or oblong having previously been formed by the 4th, 5th, and 6th companies of a regular battalion standing fast. Under these circumstances, the side which is to lead is announced; the colours move up behind its center; the opposite side faces about: and the two flank-sides wheel up by sub-divisions, so as to stand each in open column. The square marches, two sides in line, and by their center; and two sides in open column, which cover, and dress to their inward flank.
flanks on which they wheeled up, carefully preserving their distances. The square halts, and when ordered to front square, the sub-divisions in column immediately wheel back, and form their sides, and the side which faced about again faces outwards.

To March by the right front angle.—When the perfect square is to march by one of its angles, in the direction of its diagonal, a caution is given by which angle the movement is to be made, and the two sides that form it stand fast, while the other two sides face about. The whole then, by sub-divisions, wheel up one-eighth of a circle, two sides to the right, and two sides to the left, and are thus parallel to each other, and perpendicular to the direction in which they are to move, the pivot-flanks being in this manner placed on the sides of the square. Each side being thus in echelon, and the colours behind the leading angle, the whole are put in march, carefully preserving the distances they wheeled at, and from the flanks to which they wheeled.

When the oblong marches by one of its angles, its sub-divisions perform the same operation of wheeling up, each the eighth of the circle; but its direction of march will not be in the diagonal of the oblong, but in that of a square, viz. of the line which equally bisects the right angle. It will be remembered, that the angular march of the square or oblong, may be made in any other direction, to the right or left of the above one; but in such case, the sub-divisions of the two opposite sides, will have to wheeled up more than the eighth of the circle, in order to stand as before, perpendicular to the new direction. The sum of these two wheels will always amount to that of a quarter circle, and their difference will vary as the new line departs, more or less, from the equal bisecting line; this will be known by first wheeling up the two angular divisions, till they stand perpendicular with the new direction, and then ordering all the others to conform accordingly. This movement is very difficult in the execution, and cannot be made with any degree of accuracy, unless the perpendicular situation of the division is correctly attained, and carefully preserved. See Rules and Regulations for the Infantry, page 247 and 248.

To March in open ground, so as to be prepared against the attack of cavalry.—In order to execute this movement, with some degree of security, one or more battalions may move in column of companies at quarter distances, one named company in the center of each being ordered to keep an additional distance of 3 files; in which shape a battalion is easily managed, or directed upon any point. When the column halts, and is ordered to form the square, the first company falls back to the second, the last company closes up to the one before it: the whole companies make an interval of 3 paces in their center, by their sub-divisions taking each one pace to the flanks; 2 officers with their sergeants, place themselves in each of their front and rear intervals; two officers, with their sergeants, also take post in rear of each flank of the company, from which the additional interval has been kept; and a sergeant takes the place of each flank front rank man of the first division, and of each flank rear rank man of the last division; all other officers, sergeants, the 4 displaced men, &c. assemble in the center of the companies, which are to form the flank faces. Those last named companies having been told off, each in 4 sections, wheel up by sections, 2 to the right, and 2 to the left; (the 2 rear companies at the same time closing up, and facing outwards), the inner sections then close forward to their front ones, which dress up with the extremities of the front and rear companies, and 4 files on each flank of the second companies, from the front and from the rear, face outwards! The whole thus stand faced outwards and formed 6 deep, with two officers and their sergeants in the middle of each face, to command it; all the other officers, as well as sergeants, &c. are in the void space in the center, and the files of the officers in the faces, may be completed from sergeants, &c. in the interior, in such manner as the commandant may direct. The mounted field-officers must pass into the center of the column, by the rear face, if necessary, opening from its center 2 paces and again closing in.

When ordered, the 2 first ranks all round the column, will kneel and slope their bayonets, the 2 next ranks will
MARCH

In marches made parallel to, or with a view of gaining the enemy's flank, divisions must preserve their wheeling distances, and the column must cover the same length of ground which it would occupy in line of battle; in marches directly perpendicular to the enemy's position, the column must be closed up to half or quarter distance, in order to move in as compact a body as possible.

The pivot files must attend to preserve their distances exactly, each following precisely the path pointed out by the one before him; and keeping the regular marching step, by which means, upon a signal being given, the division is in a moment in order. The leader of this pivot file may be occasionally changed.

At the head of every column, whether composed of infantry or cavalry, a well-instructed non-commissioned officer must march. He must carefully keep the regular step of the slow march, to which the troops are drilled, and upon this man the regular pace of the column will depend; by this method two essential points are ensured; one, that every column moves in exactly the same time, and of course enables the officer commanding to calculate the march with certainty; another, that it ensures the troops not being over hurried, which they are more especially liable to be when cavalry leads the column; two non-commissioned officers should be appointed for this purpose, who must relieve each other.

At the head of every column of march, there must be a considerable number of pioneers to clear the route.

Guns or carriages breaking down and disabled, are immediately to be removed out of the line of march, so as not to interrupt its progress.

Officers are most positively enjoined at all times to remain with their divisions, whether marching or halted.

The commanding officers of regiments must pay the greatest attention to their corps while passing a defile, and proper officers should be left to assist in this most essential part of the conduct of marches.

It is a standing rule in column, that every regiment should march with the same front, that the regiment does which precedes it.

No alteration should be made in the

MARCH

fire standing, and all the others will remain in reserve; the file coverers behind each officer of the sides will give back, and enable him to stand in the third rank.

MARCH resumed under the same circumstances. On receiving the cautionary word of command, the several sections that had closed up, fall to their distances; the sections then wheel back into column; the officers, serjeants, &c. take their places on the flanks; and when the column is again put in motion, the companies that closed up, successively take their proper distances.

It will be remembered, that unless the companies are above 16 file, they cannot be divided into 4 sections; (so that in this case, a section may consist of 4 file or eight men, although it is expressly said, page 33, that a section should never be less than 5 files or 10 men,) if therefore they are under 16 file, and told off in 3 sections, the column will march at the distance of a section; and in forming the square, the 2 outward sections will wheel up, but the 3d one will stand fast, and afterwards, by dividing itself to right and left, will form a 4th rank to the others; in resuming column, the outward sections wheel back, and the rear of the center sections easily recover their places: as to all other circumstances, they remain the same.—


The March, when applied to the movement of an army, consists in its arrangement with respect to the number and composition of columns, the precautions to be taken, the posts to be seized upon to cover it, &c. which arrangement must depend upon circumstances. The following general rules have been published by authority:

The routes must be constantly opened to the width of 60 feet.

If the march be through an open country, without defiles, the cavalry march by divisions of squadrons, and the infantry by Platoons or half companies.

In an inclosed country, or such as is intersected by hollow ways, or other defiles, the march must be by sections of 6 or more files in the infantry, and ranks by threes or by twos in the cavalry, and the artillery must move in a single file, because the frequent breaking off and forming up again, retards the march, and fatigues the troops.
circumstance of the march, which is to be taken up from the regiment in front, until arrived exactly upon the same ground upon which that regiment made the alteration.

No officer must ride between the divisions on a march, except General and Staff officers, the execution of whose duty renders it necessary for them to pass in all directions.

When a battalion passes a defile, and there is no room for the officers to ride on the flanks of their divisions, half of those who are mounted pass at the head of the battalion, and half in the rear.

All breakings-off to enter a defile, and all formations again when passed through it, must be done extremely quick, by the parts that double, or that form up.

A sufficient number of faithful and intelligent guides must always be ready to march at the head of the battalions and columns.

March of the line, in a collective sense of the word, is a military movement, executed upon established principles, governed by local circumstances, and influenced by the nature of the service for which it is performed. After a General has obtained an accurate knowledge of the country through which his army is to move, his next care must be the arrangement of all its different component parts, with which he will form his column of route.

March of the Column of Route. The following extracts out of the last printed Regulations, comprehend the most important observations relative to the column of route, which being composed of the different divisions of the battalion, is the foundation of all great distant movements, and even of evolutions and manoeuvres. It is in that order that the battalion should at any time be permitted to move; that the columns of an army should perform their marches; that an enemy should be approached; and that safety can be ensured to the troops in their transitions from one point to another. All marches are therefore made in column of divisions of the line, and never on a less front than 6 files where the formation is 3 deep, or 4 files where it is 2 deep, nor does any advantage arise from such column, if it is an equal column, exceeding 10 or 10 file in

front, where a considerable space is to be gone over.

At no time whatever ought a column of manoeuvre or of route to occupy a greater extent of ground in marching than what is equal to its front when in order of battle; no situation can require it as an advantage. Therefore, the marching of great bodies in file, where improper extension is unavoidable, must be looked upon as an unmilitary practice, and ought only to be had recourse to when unavoidably necessary. Where woods, inclosures, and bad or narrow routes absolutely require a march in file, there is no remedy for the delay in forming, and man may be obliged to come up after man; but these circumstances, which should be regarded as exceptions from the primary and desired order of march on a greater front, should tend the more to enforce the great principle of preventing improper distances, and of getting out of so weak a situation as soon as the nature of the ground will allow of the front of the march being increased.

In common route marching, the battalion or more considerable column may be carried on at a natural pace of about 75 steps in a minute, or near two miles and an half in an hour: the attention of the soldier is allowed to be relaxed, he moves without the restraint of caution of step, or carried arms; rear ranks are opened to one or two paces; files are loosened but never confounded; in no situation is the ordered distance between divisions ever to be increased, and the proper flank officers and under officers remain answerable for them.

If the column is halted, the whole must be put in march at the same time. The movement of the head division must be steady and equal; the descending of heights must not be hurried, that the part of the column ascending may properly keep up. Alterations occasioned by the windings of the route are executed without losing distance. Soldiers are not to break to avoid mud or small spots of water. The pivots must trace out such a path for themselves as will best avoid small obstructions, and the men of the divisions will open from, and not press upon their pivots. When platoon officers are permitted to be mounted, each will remain on the flank of his division watching over its exactness, and that the proper
proper distance of march is kept by the flank pivot under the officer appointed to preserve it.

Where the arrival of a column at a given point is to be perfectly punctual, in that case the distance being known, the head must move at an equal cadenced step, and the rear must conform; and a person, expressly appointed, will, at the head of the column, take such step as the nature of the route shall permit the column to comply with.

Nothing so much fatigues troops in a considerable column, and is more to be avoided than an inequality of march.—One great reason is, that the rear of the column frequently and unnecessarily deviates from the line which its head traces out; and in endeavouring to regain that line, and their first distances, the divisions must of course run or stop, and again take up their march. It is unnecessary to attempt the same scrupulous observances in common route marching, as when going to enter into the alignment; but even a general attention to this circumstance will in that case prevent unnecessary winding in the march, which tends to prolong it, and to harass the soldier.

When the probable required formation of the line will be to a flank, then the column of march is an open one, and except the cannon, no impediment or circumstance whatever must be allowed between the divisions or in the intervals of battalions. When cannon can possibly move on the flank of the battalion, they ought, and mounted officers or bat-horses must not be permitted betwixt the divisions. If the probable formation may be to the front, then distances are more closed up, and bat-horses, &c. may be allowed betwixt the brigades of a column, but not betwixt the battalions of a brigade.

It is always time well employed to halt the head of a considerable column, and enlarge an opening, or repair a bad step in the road, rather than to diminish the front, or lengthen out the line of march. No individual is to presume to march on a less front than what the leader of the column directs, and all doublings must therefore come from the head only. The preservation of the original front of march, on all occasions, is a point of the highest consequence, and it is a most meritorious service in any officer to prevent all unnecessary doublings, or to correct them as soon as made; no advantage can arrive from them, and therefore each commanding officer, when he arrives near the cause, should be assured that it is necessary before he permits his battalion so to double; on all occasions he should continue his march on the greatest front, that, without crowding, the road or overtures will allow, although the regiments or divisions before him may be marching on a narrower front.

All openings made for the march of a column should be sufficient for the greatest front on which it is to march, they should be all of the same width, otherwise each smaller one becomes a defile.

At all points of increasing or diminishing the front of the march, an intelligent officer, per battalion or brigade, should be stationed to see that it is performed with celerity; and the commandant of a considerable column should have constant reports and inspections made that the column is moving with proper regularity; he should have officers in advance to apprise him of difficulties to be avoided, or obstacles to be passed, and should himself apply every proper means to obviate such as may occur in the march.—(And at no time are such helps more necessary than when regiments are acting in line on broken ground, and when their movements are combined with those of others.)—When the column arrives near its object of formation or manoeuvre, the strictest attention of officers and men is to be resumed, and each individual is to be at his post.

The great principle on all occasions of diminishing or increasing the front of the column in march is, that such part as doubles or forms up shall slacken or quicken its pace, as is necessary to conform to the part which has no such operation to perform, but which continues its uniform march, without the least alteration, as if no such process was going on; and if this is observed, distances can never be lost, or the column lengthened out.—Unless the unremitting attention and intelligence of officers commanding battalions and their divisions are given to this object, disorder
disorder and constant stops and runs take place in the column; the soldier is improperly and unnecessarily harassed; disease soon gains ground in a corps thus ill conducted, which is not to be depended on in any combined arrangement, is unequal to any effort when its exertion may be required, and is soon ruined from a neglect of the first and most important of military duties. The most important exercise that troops can attend to is the march in column of route. No calculation can be made on columns which do not move with an ascertained regularity, and great fatigue arises to the soldier. A General cannot depend on execution, and therefore can make no combination of time or distance in the arrival of columns at their several points. In many situations an improper extended column will be liable to be beat in detail, and before it can be formed. Troops that are seldom assembled for the manoeuvres of war, can hardly feel the necessity of the modes in which a considerable body of infantry must march and move.

The distance of columns from each other, during a march, depends on the circumstances of ground, and the object of that march, with regard to future formations. The more columns in which a considerable corps marches, the less extent in depth will it take up, the less frequent will be its halts, and the more speedily can it form in order of battle to the front.

On the combinations of march, and on their execution by the component parts of the body, does the success of every military operation or enterprise depend. To fulfill the intentions of the chief every concurrent exertion of the subordinate officer is required, and the best calculated dispositions, founded on local knowledge, must fail, if there is a want of that punctuality of execution which every General must trust to, and has a right to expect from the leaders of his columns.

The composition of the columns of an army must always depend on the nature of the country and the objects of the movement. Marches made parallel to the front of the enemy will generally be performed by the lines on which the army is encamped, each marching by its flank, and occupying, when in march, the same extent of ground as when formed in line. Marches made perpendicular to the front of the enemy, either advancing or retiring, will be covered by strong van or rear guards. The columns will be formed of considerable divisions of the army, each generally composed both of cavalry and infantry: they will move at half or quarter distance, and the nature of the country will determine which arm precedes.

During a march to the front, the separation of the heads of the columns must unavoidably be considerable; but, when they approach the enemy, they must be so regulated and directed as to be able to occupy the intermediate spaces, if required to form in line. Some one column must determine the relative situation of the others, and divisions must be more closed up than in a march to a flank, and in proportion as they draw near to the enemy must exactness and attention increase. The General, in consequence of the observations he has made, will determine on his disposition: the columns which are now probably halted and collected will be subdivided and multiplied; each body will be directed on its point of formation, and the component parts of each will, in due time, disengage from the general column, and form in line.

The safety of marches to the rear must depend on particular dispositions, on strong covering or rear guards, and on the judicious choice of such posts as will check the pursuit of the enemy. In these marches to front or rear, the divisions of the second line generally follow or lead those of the first, and all their formations are relative thereto. The heavy artillery and carriages of an army form a particular object of every march, and must be directed according to circumstances of the day. The safety of the march, by the arrangement of detachments and posts to cover the front, rear, or flanks of the columns, depends also on many local and temporary reasons, but are an essential part of the general disposition. See pages 367 to 374, of general Rules and Regulations.

March-in-line. According to the last printed Regulations, the march-in-line must be uniformly steady, without floating, opening, or closing.

March-in-file, must be close, firm, and without lengthening out.
To March past, is to advance in open or close column, in ordinary or quick time, with a firm and steady step, erect person, the eye glanced towards the reviewing general.

The ordered or cadenced March.—The prescribed movement in military tactics. It is observed in the Regulations printed by authority, see page 78, that all military movements are intended to be made with the greatest quickness consistent with order, regularity, and without hurry or fatigue to the troops. The uniformity of position, and the cadence and length of step, produce that equality and freedom of march, on which every thing depends, and to which the soldier must be carefully trained, nor suffered to join the battalion, until he be thoroughly perfected in this most essential duty. Many different times of march must not be required of the soldier—These three must suffice:

Ordinary time, 75 steps in the minute—Quick time, 108 in the minute—Wheeling or quickest time, 120 in the minute.

In order to accustom soldiers to accurate movements, plummets, which vibrate the required times of march in a minute, have been recommended: musket-balls suspended by a string which is not subject to stretch, and on which are marked the different required lengths, will answer the above purpose. The length of the plummet is to be measured from the point of suspension, to the center of the ball.

The several lengths are:

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<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Steps in hun.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Ordinary</td>
<td>75 24 96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quick</td>
<td>108 12 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quickest</td>
<td>120 9 80</td>
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Marching by Files, is to march with the narrowest front, except that of rank entire or Indian file, which bodies of men are susceptible of.

The strictest observance of all the rules for marching, is particularly necessary in marching by files, which is first to be taught at the ordinary time, or 75 steps in the minute, and afterwards in quick time or 108 steps in the minute.

In file-marching, particularly at the drill, the whole of a company or squad, having been previously faced, are immediately to step off together, gaining at the very first step 30 inches.

The first adoption of file-marching has been attributed to the Prussians, and the advocates for what is called the Ordre mince des Prussiens, the thin or narrow order, have in contradistinction named the ordre profond, the deep order, or column, the French order. According to a very ingenious and lively writer, who has had frequent occasions to see the practice of both orders, the ordre mince, or file-marching, may be very useful during a march, but the deep order or column ought only to be depended upon in manœuvring before an enemy.

To March according to time and measure, (marcher en cadence, Fr.) Marshal Saxe, in page 23, art. 6, of the folio edition of his Reueries or Memoires sur l'Art de la Guerre, is of opinion, that marching to time and measure, constitutes one of the essential requisites in war; he calls it indeed the principal one to be observed by troops who are going into action. By marching according to time and measure, we understand that regular movement of a large body of men whose steps are cadenced and uniformly the same, and which are kept so by the artificial aid of music.

The Marshal observes, that although military men will enter into much desultory conversation respecting the tactic, (la tactique) of the ancients, they seldom or ever understand the real definition of the word. It is, in fact, so much corrupted in modern times, that what really conveyed no more than a regular principle in marching, has since been made to signify the exercise and evolutions of troops. All the world know how to beat a march, without comprehending the real object, and half the world imagine, that the noise of a drum or sife is nothing more than military parade.

It is ridiculous to suppose, that martial sounds and military music, were first invented for the sole purpose of confounding each other on the day of battle. Let us indulge a better opinion of the good understanding of the ancients, particularly of the Romans, and endeavour to prove, that regularity in marching, (which depends wholly upon the cadenced step,) is the ground-work of military operations, and that nothing is more simple because it corresponds with 3 P nature.
nature. This was, in fact, the military step which the Romans brought to so great a perfection, and which has since been so closely followed by the Prussians. It was upon this principle that marches were first devised, and that the drum was adopted to second the purposes. This is literally nothing more than a certain beat or tact, as the Marshal expresses it, and which is evidently derived from the Roman word tactum, touch, and by means of which men may be taught to move in quick or slow time. As long as this principle can be followed up, the rear will never lag behind, soldiers will preserve the same step, and march with the same foot; the wheelings will be made uniformly together, without confusion or delay; and the men will be less fatigued than if they were suffered to march or wheel at random. Every person of the least reflexion or observation, will be convinced of the truth of this last remark. Let one man, for instance, be ordered to dance two hours, without the assistance of any sort of musical instrument, and let another, with the same bodily powers and activity, go through the same operation, during double the time, accompanied by music, and let it then be determined which of the two has been most fatigued. It will evidently appear that the former has: for it is an unquestionable fact, that sounds of concord and harmony have a wonderful secret influence over the human frame, and that they render the exercises and functions of the body extremely easy. It is well known, that when the camel drivers wish to make their camels get on, they never flog or strike them with sticks, but sing, whistle, or repeat some humorous song.

Should it be asked, what sort of music is best adopted to the human organs in military movements? It may safely be replied, all those simple tunes which can be played by the fife and drum; I shall perhaps be told, (observes the Marshal) that many men have no ear for music; this I deny, as far as the observation regards marching, which is a movement so easy to the human frame, that it comes, as it were, naturally to man. I have often remarked, that when the long roll has beat, the men in repairing to their several parades, have insensibly preserved the regular step, without knowing that they did so: nature, in fact, and instinct go together. If marching according to time and measure be considered in a mere superficial manner, the cadence step will undoubtedly appear of little importance; but if it be considered as an essential requisite to quicken or slacken the movement of troops who are going into action, it must be found an important object. No evolution, in fact, can be well done at close order without its assistance. The military step of the Romans was the cadenced or measured movement, and they were thereby enabled to march with ease upwards of 24 miles in five hours. This, however, would be looked upon as great exertion, if not fatigue, among modern troops, although it constituted a principal part of the Roman exercise. Hence some opinion may be formed of the attention which they paid to that species of training, by which men were habituated to long marches; and this they accomplished by means of the tact, or cadenced movement.

In order to prove the validity of our observations, let us, for a moment, imagine a thing which is scarcely possible to be accomplished by troops that do not march according to time and measure. Let us, suppose, that two battalions, advancing to attack one another, should march up without floating, overlapping, or breaking in the least; under these circumstances, which would obtain the superiority? the one that should imprudently have commenced firing, or that which should have reserved its fire? Every intelligent and able officer will instantly determine in favour of the latter; and his decision would unquestionably be correct; for the former, besides being disheartened by seeing men advance against them with a reserved fire, would necessarily be retarded in their march in order to prime and load; and it must be evident to every man, that their antagonists would completely overthwart by advancing with a rapid and cadenced step.

This was the plain and effectual method of the Romans. It may, perhaps, be said, that their ignorance of the use of gunpowder alters the case with respect to our manner of fighting. Let it, however, be recollected, that they fought with missile weapons, which did full as much
much mischief as our fire-arms can produce. Gunpowder, in fact, is not so destructive as most people are apt to imagine. Few men are killed in regular fought actions, by the two armies engaging with musquetry only. Marshal Saxe does not scruple to assert, that it is impossible for a battalion of armed men to charge its enemy with vigour and effect, unless it preserve the cadenced step. For the ranks must unavoidably open during the march in line; and when the troops get within 50 or 60 paces of their opponents, the commanding officers see chasms, cry out serre, or close into the center; and in the hurry of so doing, one rank overlaps another, and the center itself becomes insensibly broken, standing eight or ten deep, while the wings are at two, three, or four. To remedy this defect, the whole line is halted, and if the enemy be wise enough to advance in regular order during this operation, it is ten to one that he turns the flank of his opponent, and completely routs him. With regard to the musquetry-firing, it may be laid down as a certain fact, that the mischief it does in pitched battles is more imaginary than real. It has been acknowledged by the most experienced officers, it is, indeed, positively asserted by Marshal Saxe, (page 29 of the folio edition) that the closest volleys have produced little or no effect against a line of determined steady troops. I have seen, observes the Marshal, a whole volley of cool directed musquetry, occasion the loss of no more than four men; while the troops against which it has been poured, have calmly marched up, reserved their fire till they got in contact with the enemy, and then amply revenged the deaths of their comrades by discharging their pieces, and following up with the bayonet. It is at this stage of the battle, that a real carnage commences, and its execution rests wholly with the victorious party; and we need scarcely add, that its success must be attributed to that composed, steady movement, or cadenced step, which enabled the troops to act together, when they came to close action.—

The military reader will be gratified by a perusal of two or three interesting anecdotes in pages 29, 30, 31, of the Reveries, fol. edit.

March in prolongation of the line.—

This operation is gone through when a battalion standing in open column, with the pivot flanks of its divisions on the line, and advanced points being ascertained, moves forward at the word march, which is given by the commanding officer. See sec. 115, page 150, of Rules and Regulations. It is stated in page 148 of Dundas, that whenever the battalion wheels into open column, in order to prolong the line on which it was formed, and that no distant point in that prolongation is previously given, the sergeant of the leading company will advance 15 or 20 paces, and place himself in the line of the pivot-flanks, and the leading officer will thereby (taking a line over his head) be enabled to ascertain the direction in which he is to move.

March by the Inversion of Files, or Countermarch, a compound word signifying retrocession, backward movement, change of measures or conduct, any alteration, in fact, of an original conception or undertaking. Thus the countermarch of ideas in the mind is the precursor of the different changes made by the body. In a military sense it is variously applicable; and as every countermarch or backward movement, necessarily implies a previous march, or forward movement, we shall extract under this article the most material instructions that have been published by authority relative to the countermarch of the component parts of a battalion, &c. observing generally that the word countermarch may be applied to the most extensive scale of military operations. Thus, a whole army which has advanced into an enemy's country, is said to countermarch, when it not only ceases to make progress in a forward direction, but changes its whole plan of manoeuvre, and treads back the ground over which it had advanced. To countermarch, in a more desultory manner, means to quit different positions by the countermarch of detached bodies, by changing their relative fronts, without abandoning the field, or scene of general operation. In order to execute such evolutions and inversions with accuracy, every battalion should be well instructed in the prescribed methods of changing front by the inversion of its files to right or left, in front or in rear.
of a leading division, from and on its center.

The Countermarch by Files. According to the last printed Regulations, this movement is of two kinds. Either successive (the body being halted) by each file successively turning on its own ground, the moment it is disengaged by the departure of its preceding file: or progressive (the body being in motion) by each file turning when it arrives at the point from which the leading or head file first wheeled. In the first case the body must shift its ground to a flank a space at least equal to its front: in the second it will perform this operation of the countermarch on its original ground, exchanging flanks and fronts; so that what before stood as the leading or head division, will become the rear of the column; or, if in line, what was the right flank fronting one way, will still remain the right flank fronting another. In both cases the pivots are in a small degree movable, but they must be so as little as possible, since a solid and compact inversion of the files is as requisite to a true and close formation in line or column, as the lock-step is indispensable in every other movement by files.

Countermarch by Files in Front of the Battalion, &c. In this case the front men become the pivots, on which every successive file turns, till the rear file gets upon the indetical space of ground from whence the front file first wheeled.

Countermarch by Files in rear of the Battalion. In this case the rear rank men become the pivots upon similar principles of movement. All countermarches of a battalion or greater body, must be made in ordinary time; of smaller divisions in general in quick time. The observations which have already been made, under the head Files, with respect to a solidity and quickness of movement in each wheeling, and to an unity of step, (allowing for an increased length of it in the wheeling men) are especially applicable to the countermarch by files.

The Countermarch of a Battalion, from both Flanks on its Center, by Files. In order to effect this movement and change of formation, the wings face outwards from the colours, which stand fast, and a serjeant remains at the point of each wing, in order to mark the ground. At the word march, the right wing files successively close behind the rear rank, and the left wing before the front rank of the battalion, till they arrive at the points where each other stood. They then halt, cover, and front by word of command, looking to the colours, which take their places. The commanding officer dresses the line if necessary.

The Countermarch of the Battalion, from its Center, and on its Center, by Files. The wings face inwards to the colours, which stand fast, and a serjeant remains to mark each flank. The whole then take three side steps to the right, by word of command, in order to disengage the center. At the second word of command, the whole move on, and each file successively wheels into the center as it arrives at and beyond the colours. As soon as each company is in the line from the colours to the flank serjeant, its leading officer fronts it. When the whole is formed, the colours countermarch, and every company dresses to the colours till otherwise ordered. It must be remembered, as a general rule, that in the countermarch from both flanks, no part of the battalion is fronted till the whole is on its ground. In the countermarch from the center, the battalion begins instantly and successively to front by companies, as each is ready and on its ground.

The Countermarch by Companies or Subdivisions, on the Center of a Battalion or Line. Although this may be done by files, it has been allowed, that on account of the unavoidable openings which always occur in file-marching, a battalion, or larger body, will be best enabled to execute that movement with quickness and rapidity, by the march of column of companies or subdivisions in front. To effect this object, the battalion is cautioned to countermarch from its center by subdivisions; one or two central subdivisions having wheeled the half circle upon their center point, or countermarched into the new line, so that the front rank stands precisely where the rear rank did: one of the wings then faces to the right about, and both wheel inwards by subdivisions: they march along the rear and front of the
the formed divisions, and successively wheel up into their respective places on each side of those already arranged in the line. The subdivisions which wheel up to the rear, successively halt, front, dress, when they reach their ground. The officers who lead them must be particularly attentive to their wheeling points, by being at their proper front rank when they halt, front their subdivisions. They would otherwise pass the rear, and disfigure the formation.

If it be intended that the front rank of the directing company or subdivision, should stand on the identical line which it occupied before the countermarch, it will be placed in that direction. In that case, after the subdivision has wheeled inwards, the wing which is to march in rear of it, must shift a few paces to the flank, in order to get clear of the rear ranks, and then proceed.

When one flank of a battalion or line is to occupy the spot where the other one stands, its most expeditious movement to arrive at it, will be along the prolongation of the line. If the flanks are to exchange places with each other, the countermarch on the center, or on a flank, is the best method by which that exchange can be effected. The single battalion may do it by files, if its ground be confined, but a line must do it by countermarch of divisions in open column.

The Countermarch in Column, is the inversion of the different files which constitute the several divisions, subdivisions, or sections of which the column is composed. By which inversion the front of the column is completely reversed.

To Countermarch a Column the Right in Front, is to change the front, or aspect of the leading company, subdivision, or section, and to place it in the rear of its perpendicular formation. After the caution has been given to countermarch by files, the whole will face to the right, by word of command. Each company or leading officer, or serjeant, will immediately quit the pivot, and place himself on the right of his company, subdivision, or section, whilst his covering serjeant advances to the spot which he has quitted, and faces to the right about. At the word march the whole move. The leader in the first in-

stance wheels short round to the right, and proceeds, followed by his files of men, until he has placed his pivot front rank man close to his serjeant, who remains immovable. As soon as the leading officer or serjeant of each company, subdivision, or section, has countermarched the extent of his front, he instantly gives the words halt, front, dress, so as to have it squared and closed in to the right, which is now become the pivot flank, and on which the officer or serjeant replaces the person that had advanced to ascertain the exact point of perpendicular formation; and who falls back behind the rear rank. By means of this inversion of the files, the column will face to its rear, each company, subdivision, or section, having its original follower its head or leading object.

To Countermarch a Column, the Left in Front, is to make the left company, subdivision or section, which is now in the rear of the column, become the head of it. After the caution, to countermarch by files, has been given, at the word left face, the whole face to the left, the officer or serjeant moves to the left of his company, subdivision, or section, and the person who has covered him, moves to his place, and faces about. At the word march, the officer turns short to the left, and proceeds as before until he is fixed on the left, which is now become the pivot-flank, as the column stands with its right in front. In all countermarches, the facing is always to that hand which is not the pivot, but which is to become such. The countermarch of each division, subdivision, or section, separately on its own ground, is an evolution of great utility on many occasions. It enables a column which has its right in front, and is marching in an alignment, to return along that same line, and to take such new positions in it as circumstances may require, without inventing or altering the proper front of the line. In many situations of forming from column into line, it becomes a previous operation which ought not to be dispensed with.

When a column countermarches by divisions, each on its own ground, unless the divisions be equal, the distances after the countermarch will not be the true wheeling
wheeling distances, but will be such as are equal to the front of the preceding division, and therefore the true distances must be regained before the divisions can wheel up into line with the accuracy and completion of space which are required.

Marching past by the Cavalry.—At a review, or inspection, regiments, brigades, or lines, do not march past in column of squadrons, but in column of half squadrons.

In passing by in half squadrons at open ranks, the commander of the squadron will be in front of his leading half squadron, covered by the standard, with which the other officers of the half squadron dress. In the second half squadron all its officers are in front, and in one line. The trumpets are all in front of the regiment, and when they have passed, wheel quickly round, and remain posted opposite his Majesty, and sound till the regiment has passed; when they cease (and those of the succeeding regiments commence) follow their regiment, and regain its front.

The half squadrons, or divisions, will dress, and cover to the passing hand; after the successive wheel, which brings them on the line of passing, they will open ranks, 60 or 70 yards before they approach his Majesty, and close them about the same distance after passing, and they will continue so to dress, and preserve the line, till each division wheels at the point, where the head one has changed its direction; there, and not before, the dressing and covering will be made to the proper pivot flank of divisions.

The whole pass, (whether at open or close ranks) as one column; nor is any division, squadron, or regiment, to increase, or alter the distances it possessed, at the moment it wheeled from line into column.

In passing by half squadrons or divisions, at close ranks, the standard may take the center of the front rank of the leading one. The commanding officer is before it, other officers are at their squadron posts, and care is taken, that there shall be an officer on each passing flank.

At the drawing of swords, and general salute, on his Majesty’s approach, the trumpets all sound the parade march.

When his Majesty passes along the line, each regiment successively sounds its own march, or such other as it shall be ordered, and the same is done by each regiment when it passes his Majesty.

His Majesty’s Regulations have prescribed the soundings with which all generals, and other persons are to be received; when they pass along the line, or the line before them, the trumpet soundings will be the same as before his Majesty.

The trumpet flourish, in drawing swords, is used regimentally on their own ground, and is the sounding used in receiving a major-general; it is repeated twice for a lieutenant-general, and to all superior generals the march is sounded.

In parade, to receive his Majesty, or the commanding general, the trumpets are assembled on the right of their regiments (whether single or in line) in two ranks and the staff beyond them. The staff does not march past.

On all occasions of exercise, and manœuvre, trumpets are behind their troops and squadrons, unless otherwise detached.

If his Majesty sees a brigade, he will be received at the point of his approach in the manner already directed, by the general commanding it. If a single regiment, in the same manner by its commanding officer.

After passing in parade, and in movements and exercise, it will depend on the commanding officer of the regiment, to place the other field officers at the head of squadrons, or to assign them the superintendence of wings, in order the better to assist.

In general, regiments manœuvre at too great a distance from the person inspecting them; they ought to terminate many of their movements and formations within 20 or 30 yards of where he stands.

Cavalry regiments, when dismounted, and formed in line, will have an interval of six paces between each.

When the regiments dismount, field officers and adjutants do not dismount, but remain on horseback.

When the dismounted line advances in front, at close ranks, general officers, and commanding officers of regiments, are behind the centre; the other field officers.
officers are behind the flanks of the battalion.

When the dismounted line is at open ranks, field officers are on the flanks of the battalion, in a line with the men, and general officers, and commanding officers of regiments are in front.

In passing on foot, all mounted officers are in front of the regiment, except the adjutant, who is in the rear.

General principles in Marching.—When a large body is marching in column or columns, through narrow ground, and when its parts are to be assembled beyond the defile, in several lines, in a compact manner behind each other—such parts are not to begin to assemble when the leading one does, but the head of each line is successively first to come up to the ground on which it is to stand, and when it there halts, its proper followers (and not before) move into line with it, and thereby do not impede the bodies that are behind them, which are still in the defile, and are to perform the same operation.

When a new line to be marched, or formed upon, is taken up by markers, commanding officers of squadrons, of regiments and all other persons whatever, will take care that during such operation they do not stand upon, or obscure the direction of that line. In general, too many markers are thrown out: the Regulations are full and explicit on that head. In movements in column, commanding officers of squadrons and regiments should keep wide of the flanks, that the pivot leaders may more correctly follow each other, and that they themselves may the better see, and distinguish the relative situation of the whole.

We shall conclude our remarks on the principle of marching, by quoting a remarkable passage out of Marshal Saxe's Reveries, which may serve to undeceive many with regard to the overrated importance that is given to the expert handling of the firelock.

He justly remarks, that the manual and platoon exercise does extremely well to render the soldier easy under arms, but it should not engross the whole of our attention on that account. It is, perhaps, of all others, the least important branch in military acquirements, after the soldier has been taught to carry his firelock on his left shoulder, to prime and load with accuracy and dispatch, and to fire in platoon.

When once a soldier has been rendered master of these essential requisites, (and it requires little to make him so) the full possession of his legs and feet becomes the principal object of his attention.

The secret of all manoeuvres, and the consequent issue of engagements, depend upon the legs. Hence the necessity of moving to time and measure, and the wise practice of teaching the cadenced step. Whoever attempts to drill a recruit without paying attention to this important object, must be ignorant, of the first elements of war.

Il n'en est pas seulement aux éléments qu'on appelle le métier de la guerre. He does not even know the first rudiments of what is called the profession of arms.

These observations ought to be strongly impressed upon the minds of those persons who are too apt to devote all their time to the firelock, and consequently to neglect the more necessary object of marching, &c. Officers, in particular, should be taught to feel the justness of those principles of movement, by which large bodies are enabled to act together. The motions of the firelock are easily learned, but the various changes to which the human frame must submit in marching, require something more than mere mechanical operation.

March of a Train of Artillery. It has been observed, in page 192 of Muller's Treatise of Artillery, that the French march their artillery much in the same manner that we do, with this difference, that the French artillery is divided into brigades. In page 191 of Muller's Treatise on Artillery, we find the following detail of a march of English artillery:—

1. A guard of the army. 2. The company of miners, with their tumbril of tools, drawn by two horses. 3. The regiments of artillery front guard. 4. The kettle drums, drawn by four horses; and two trumpeters on horseback. 5. The flag gun drawn by 17 horses, and five twelve-pounders more, by 15 horses each. 6. Eleven wagons with stores for the said guns, and one spare, by three
three horses each. 7. Six nine-pounders, drawn by eleven horses each. 8. Nine wagons with stores for the said guns, and one spare, by three horses each. 9. Five long six-pounders, by seven horses each. 10. Seven wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one, drawn by three horses each. 11. Five long six-pounders, drawn by seven horses each. 12. Six wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one, by three horses each. 13. Four long six-pounders, by seven horses each. 14. Five wagons with stores for ditto, and a spare one, by three horses each. 15. Two howitzers, by five horses each. 16. Four wagons with stores for ditto, by three horses. 17. Six short six-pounders, by two horses each. 18. Three wagons with stores for ditto, by three horses each. 19. Six royals with their stores, in four wagons, by three horses each. 20. One twelve-pounder carriage, by seven horses; one nine-pounder carriage, by five; one long six-pounder carriage, by five; two short, by two; one short and one long limber, by one horse; and two forges, by two each. 21. Twenty ammunition carts, by three horses each. 22. Nineteen wagons with musquet cartridiges, and one spare, by three horses each. 23. Thirty wagons with powder, and one spare, by three horses each. 24. Thirty wagons with musquet shot, and one spare, by three horses each. 25. Twenty-five wagons with intrenching tools, and one spare, by three horses each. 26. Twenty-five wagons with small stores, and one spare, by three each. 27. Six wagons for artificers, with four spare, each by three. 28. Thirty-two baggage wagons, nine by four horses, and twenty-three by three. 29. Thirty pontoons, and three spare carriages, each by seven. 30. The artillery rear-guard. 31. The rear-guard from the army.

It must be observed, that there are parties of gunners and matrosses marching with the guns: there are likewise some parties of pioneers interspersed here and there to mend the roads, when they are spoiled by the fore carriages.

We shall now present our military readers with an extract from a French work which has appeared since the Memoires D'Artillerie, par M. Surirey De Saint Remy, and which may put them more specifically in possession of the French manner of marching their artillery, than Mr. Muller has afforded. We must, however, at the same time, refer them for more copious information to the third volume of Saint Remy, page 187 to 201.

In the last edition of the Dictionnaire Militaire, the following observations are made on this important operation:—

When the troops in the advanced camp of the army begin to assemble, the commanding officer of the artillery reforms to head-quarters, and communicates with the commander in chief.—Utensils, stores, and ammunition, are forwarded to the camp, and every soldier is provided with ten or twelve rounds of ball cartridge, before he commences his march against the enemy. These articles having been distributed, the wagons and horses return to the train of artillery, and proper dispositions are made to connect the whole line of march.

The horses belonging to the train are narrowly inspected by the lieutenant-general of artillery, who marks or rejects them according to his judgment, and sends one report of their actual state to government, and another to the master-general of the ordnance. He gives directions to the captain-general of the wagon-train to arrange matters in such a manner with each provincial commissary belonging to the park, that the different captains may know what brigades fall under their immediate superintendence. The latter must not on any account leave the brigades with which they are entrusted during the march.

The ammunition wagons having been loaded, and the horses harnessed in, they are distributed into different brigades, and put in motion to join the main army, according to the following order:—

The first thing that precedes the march of a regular train of artillery, is a wagon loaded with utensils, such as spades, pick-axes, shovels, mattocks, wooden-spades, with iron bottoms; grappling hooks, hatchets, &c. These are under the care of a wagon-master, who is attended by forty pioneers to clear and point out the way.

In the rear of this wagon follow four four-pounders, mounted on their several
ral carriages with every necessary appendage on each side, loaded with ball, and the cannoneers ready, each having a lighted match in his hand, and two steel prickers or dégorgeurs. Next to these is a wagon loaded with different articles of ordnance, containing likewise one barrel of gunpowder, one ditto of ball, a bundle of matches, weighing together about fifty pounds, about fifty balls of the calibre of the guns, and five or six stout drag-ropes.

The military chest, and the king’s or royal stores, generally accompany this small train, when the army consists of one column only.

The pontoons, with every thing belonging to them, follow next; and after them the crab, with its appendages, accompanied by the captain of artificers, with a certain number of carpenters.

Next follow the heavy ordnance.

Those pieces of artillery which are mounted, follow each other according to their several calibres, with all their necessary implements for service hanging on each side.

Then come the frames belonging to the pieces of heavy ordnance, with their implements, &c. placed upon them.—The mortars follow next.

After these follow the caissons belonging to the escourt of the park of artillery, military chest, quarter-master-general, and captain of the artificers or workmen, in which are contained the tools belonging to the different workmen and miners, together with the forges, &c.

The baggage belonging to the commanding officer of artillery, and to the several officers of the train, follow next, each wagon succeeding the other according to the rank of the several officers. It frequently happens, that the carriages with stores and provisions, and those belonging to the royal regiment of artillery move together.

After these follow the tumbrals with gunpowder, matches, sand-bags, ropes, fuses for bombs and grenades, proof-pieces, if there are any, plummetts, hand grenades, mining tools, mortar-carriages, bombs, balls, according to the different calibres of cannon, tools, and instruments for pioneers, with the spare carts.

In order to secure the regular progress and march of these different classes, it has been usual among the French, to divide them into five brigades, each brigade under the command of an artillery officer; and the whole subject to the orders of the commander of artillery. All the equipage belonging to the train is distributed among these five brigades, and each brigade takes care to bring up its proportion every day to the park or spot of rendezvous. These are subject to a roster among themselves, some leading, and others bringing up the rear, according to its arrangement.

Night-Marches. Whenever marches are undertaken in the night, great precaution should be observed on the part of the commanding officer of the troops, to attach two or three faithful and intelligent guides to each column or detachment; for it may very easily happen, that in moving a considerable detachment during the night, some troops or squadrons may lose themselves, especially where there are cross roads, and difficult passes.

The commanding officer at the head of the detachment, must march slow, provided the nature of his expedition will admit of it: and wherever he finds any bye-roads on the march, he must post a few men there to direct the succeeding squadron; which squadron is to repeat the same caution, and so on throughout the whole.

As it is almost impossible for squadrons to keep constantly close together; and as it almost always happens, that, in order to conceal a march from the enemy, no trumpet must be sounded, (which would otherwise serve for a direction in the night time) a good non-commissioned officer, with four or six men, must be appointed to the rear of every squadron, who are to divide themselves, and form a chain in the interval, between it and the one succeeding, in order to prevent any mistake of the road.

Before the detachment marches off, the officer commanding must be careful to exhort the officers leading troops or squadrons, strictly to observe all the above directions: he must also have several orderly men to attend him; and, if possible, two or three guides in front.

The advanced guard must be reinforced
forced in the night-time, and march at a small distance from the main body, and whenever it shall happen unexpectedly to meet the enemy, it must instantly charge with all possible vigour; on which account, and in order to be in continual readiness, it must always march with advanced arms. Page 39, Military Guide.

Secret Marches are made with a design to reconnoitre an enemy, surprise his camp, secure a post, or seize a place. They are likewise undertaken to succour troops that may be precariously situated, to relieve a besieged town, &c. It is in this service that a commander has occasion for his utmost sagacity and penetration, to prevent his being discovered or betrayed. In order to ensure success, the person who conducts the march, should have previously obtained good information relative to the different roads through which he is to pass, the disposition of the inhabitants, &c. He should also obtain correct intelligence respecting the situation of the enemy's outposts, &c.—Military Guide.

To March for the direct purpose of fighting an enemy. In order to effect this important operation with confidence and safety, every army that marches from a distant point towards the ground which is occupied by an enemy, endeavours, as much as possible, to preserve its regular front, and to advance in order of battle. Whenever obstacles occur, and the ground becomes so confined, that the march in line cannot be preserved, the different squadrons and battalions must approach the enemy in such a disposition of columns, as to be able to form line in the quickest manner, and before the enemy could possibly attempt to make an impression on the advancing columns, by charging with his cavalry.

The general officers who command the several columns, in leading them forward must attentively observe each other's movement, so that their heads, at least, be upon a line; and that when they reach the ground where the whole are to deploy, this manoeuvre may be accomplished with dispatch and safety, and the order of battle be fully made, out of the reach of the enemy's horse.

The general or commander in chief, with his aids-de-camp, &c. takes his ground in such a manner as to be able to see the effect of the first fire. From being thus conveniently situated, he will know what orders to send, whether to support that part of the line which has gained ground, or to replace any particular one that may have given way. In order to accomplish this double purpose, he either makes use of the troops which have been drawn up between the two lines, as circumstances may require, or detaches from the reserve, as he judges best for the service.

The instant the line is formed, and the enemy appears in sight, every general officer must be found at the head of his division, actively employed either in leading on the troops entrusted to his skill and valour, or in speedily remediating every symptom of disorder which may occur throughout the whole extent of his command.

The disposition of an army (to quote the words of Mons. de Fauquieres) which comes to close action, differs essentially from that it assumes in a march, or previous movement. Were troops, indeed, to advance over a wide space of open and unembarrassed ground, the formation of them might be the same. But this is seldom or ever the case. The intervention of hills, woods, rivers, villages, and narrow passes or defiles, gives rise to so many obstacles, that a large body of men, such as constitutes an army, must necessarily be divided into many different corps, in order that the collective force may arrive, at a given time, within the lines of a new camp, or within sight of an enemy.

On these occasions the movements of an army are attended with considerable risk, especially if the enemy has himself taken the field; for by ably manoeuvring he may take advantage of the divided state of your army, and attack it piecemeal. The greatest precautions, however, are observed in modern warfare, which were either unknown to, or neglected by our ancestors. Most of these have already been discussed, as far as the limits of our undertaking would admit. The following additional observations may not, perhaps, be thought wholly superfluous.

In the first instance it will be necessary for the quarter-master general, and for
for the different officers who compose the staff or etat-major of the army, to render themselves perfectly masters of the country through which the troops are to march. The corps of guides, especially if the march should be continued during the night, must be well chosen on these occasions; and the different captains that have the charge of them, are frequently to communicate with the principal officers on the staff, to facilitate the several movements. All the general officers must be in possession of correct topographical sketches of the country; and their aids-de-camp, &c. must not only know how to deliver orders, but they must themselves be able to calculate (from a cursory view of the chart,) time and distance. The science of locality, has, indeed, become so manifestly useful in all military operations, that the French have formed regular companies of topographers, who accompany their armies; and it reflects credit upon the new institution, at High-Wycombe, to see so much attention paid to this branch of necessary knowledge.

Artificers and workmen, with appropriate escorts, precede the several columns, in order to clear the roads, and to remove obstacles that occur. Light troops, and large detachments of cavalry, are pushed forward for the purpose of keeping the enemy in awe, and to send the earliest intelligence respecting his movements. Bridges are thrown across rivers with astonishing activity and dispatch; every thing, in a word, which relates to the movement of the army, is so well digested before-hand, and subsequently so well executed, that all the different corps co-operate, and readily succour each other should the enemy attack. The natural formation of the battalion is preserved, whether the grenadiers are disposed in front, or the light companies lead; and the several piquets come regularly up with the rear during the march, and are as readily stationed in the front when their corps halt.

When a forced march is undertaken for the specific purpose of rendering some design of an enemy abortive, it is the duty of the commissariat to have provisions ready at hand, during the transient halts which are made in this harassing and fatiguing enterprise.

It is usual for great armies to march in three columns, in conformity to the order of battle, which has been laid down by the general or commander in chief, at the beginning of the campaign. Those battalions and squadrons which compose the right, take their line of march through that direction of the country: those which compose the left, preserve their relative time and distance in that quarter. The artillery and heavy baggage are generally disposed of in the center column.

When an army marches directly forward to attack or meet an enemy, the artillery is almost always distributed in the center: sometimes a brigade of that corps, with a body of select troops in front, precedes each column; but the heavy baggage invariably moves in the rear under cover of the reserve.

When an army marches through a woody or close country, the heads of the different columns are usually covered by a strong detachment of grenadiers, preceded by squadrons of horse. Should the enemy be in your rear, when it is found expedient to make a movement, the hospital stores, ammunition, baggage, and artillery, escorted by some squadrons of horse, must be sent forward, and the best disciplined troops, with a certain quantity of artillery, are in that case to make up the rear-guard. If the enemy should hang upon your flank (the right for instance,) the artillery, stores, and baggage, must be conducted by the left: should the enemy direct his operations from the left, the same movements must take place on the right.

A small army may march in one column, having its artillery and baggage between the advanced and rear-guards. Should it be brought to action, the dragoons and light cavalry belonging to the advanced guard will compose one wing, and the troops that are disposed of in the rear, will form the other: the infantry will be distributed in the center with the artillery in its front.

The French seem to have paid the greatest attention to the various details and incidental circumstances which attend the march of any considerable body of troops. It was not, however, until the reign of Louis XIII. that any sort of regular system began to prevail.—
There was certainly less necessity for such an arrangement, because the baggage was by no means so great, nor was the train of artillery half so extensive.—

The only dangers, indeed, which were to be guarded against, when the enemy was near, seemed confined to the loss of baggage and artillery. These were, of course, provided against by every able general, who naturally observed the greatest secrecy with respect to his encampment, and practised various stratagems to conceal his march from the enemy.

Some very sensible observations, relative to the manner in which troops should be managed previous to an engagement, may be found in the *Récitiers de M. le Maréchal de Saxe*; and considerable information may be derived from *Les Réflexions de M. le Baron d’Espagnac*, on the best method of forming the infantry for battle. See *Supplément aux Récitiers*, page 19. See likewise *Oeuvres Militaires*, tom. 1, p. 124.

**General Observations on the March of Troops.** — As the regulations on this head, as far as they relate to the British home service, must be known to every officer, we shall extract some desultory observations from a French work, that may be applicable to general service. When troops are ordered to march, four principal objects should be well considered, viz. locality, time, possible ambuscades, and the ultimate end for which the march is undertaken. In order to secure these important points, some topographers (without whom no army can be said to be well constituted, or its staff ably appointed) should be directed to give in plans of the country, to shew where it is intersected, where hills with their different incurvations appear, where the roads are narrow, where the ground is soft or marshy, and unfavourable to the passage of artillery, where intricate passes occur, where there are woods, hedges, rivers, or marshes, and finally where the country becomes totally impervious.

When these different objects have been well ascertained, and thoroughly digested at head quarters, the component parts of the army must be so distributed with respect to the battalions of infantry, squadrons of horse, artillery, and baggage, that the front of the leading column shall invariably correspond with the extent of the road or defile which is to be marched over.

When troops are ordered to march through an inclosed country, the whole army is divided into a given number of columns, which successively follow each other, and are encamped, cantoned, or quartered separately. Sometimes the country is cleared, as much as circumstances will admit, in order that the several columns may advance, while the artillery, under an escort of infantry on each side, and with cavalry distributed upon both wings of the army, makes the best of its way through the main road. Small detachments, consisting of active, spirited young men, headed by intelligent and enterprising officers, are sent forward to take possession of the different defiles, woods, passes, and to post themselves close to an enemy’s post, for the purpose of blocking it up until the whole of the army has marched by.

The leading columns should always be composed of tried and steady soldiers; and the front of each should invariably consist of the best men in the army.

The advanced and rear guards must be well supported by infantry, with the addition of some light field pieces. The order of battle is so arranged, that the heavy ordnance, the baggage, and the greatest part of the cavalry, which can be of little use on the wings, may be distributed in the center.

When it is necessary to cross a river, the artillery must be planted directly opposite to the post which the army intends to occupy. Considerable advantage will accrue should the river wind in such a manner as to form a rentrant angle in that particular spot, which advantage would be greatly increased by having a ford near.

In proportion as the construction of the bridge advances, some steady troops must be marched forward, and a regular discharge of musquetry must be kept up against the enemy on the opposite bank.

The instant the bridge is finished, a corps of infantry, with some cavalry, some pieces of artillery, and a certain number of pioneers, to fortify the head of the bridge, must be ordered over.— Should there be the least ground to suspect an attack upon the rear guard, the
inside tête de pont must also be fortified.

Proper precautions will have been taken to prevent any surprise during the construction of the bridge, and while the troops are crossing. Each side of the river, above and below the bridge, will on this account have been well reconnoitred, to ascertain that there are not any armed barges or floating rafters with infernals upon them, kept ready to blow up the bridge, when a considerable part of the army shall have passed the river. If the preservation of the bridge be considered as an object, both ends must be fortified, and adequate guards stationed to defend them.

Each corps that marches separately, such as the advanced and rear guards, and the main body, must be provided with shovels, pick-axes, and a sufficient number of pioneers and guides, to clear the roads, and to direct it on its march.

The following general rules in route marching have been laid down by the celebrated Montecucculi:

No officer or soldier is on any account to quit his post or rank. The battalion companies must never intermix with the squadrons or troops of cavalry. Squadrons or troops of cavalry must always take care not to leave such wide intervals between them, as will expose them to be suddenly cut off, or such contracted ones as might enable the enemy to throw them into confusion.

In summer, troops should quit their ground or quarters at day-break.

In winter, great care should be taken by the commissariat, to see that the troops are well supplied with fuel whenever they halt. During very inclement weather the march of troops should be greatly contracted.

Some steady old soldiers must be stationed at the different cross roads, to prevent the rear men from mistaking the line of march.

The leading columns, or those troops that precede them, must instantly fall upon any body of the enemy that may attempt to oppose their progress.

Three things are always to be considered, and well weighed, viz. whether there be much ground to apprehend a serious attack from the enemy; whether there be little ground to fear him; or whether there be no ground at all.

In the latter case each corps of cavalry and infantry, marches separately, and with its own baggage.

All convoys, containing stores and ammunition, move with the artillery, accompanied by an officer from the adjutant or quarter-master-general’s department, who has the direction of the march, as far as regards the convoy itself; but cannot interfere with the artillery; the commanding officer of the latter being presumed to know best, when and where his park should halt, &c. A very sensible observation on this head may be found in a recent French publication, intituled, Manuel des Adjutants Généraux, by Paul Thiébault.

On the evening preceding a march, each corps is specifically furnished with the necessary orders in writing.

At the hour which is named in general orders for the troops to commence their march, the quarter-master-general, and the captain of guides, repair to the advanced guard.

If the army has been encamped, the lines of entrenchment are levelled or cleared in such a manner, that the troops may move with an extended front. As soon as the troops have marched off, the different guards belonging to the camp will be withdrawn.

Pioneers must be sent forward to clear the roads, preceded by small detachments of light and select troops, together with estafettes or mounted messengers and vedettes, who are to reconnoitre in front, rear, and round the wings of the army. To these must be added appropriate guards and escorts to accompany the artillery, and to protect the baggage. It will belong to this latter description of troops, to take possession of advantageous heights, to discover ambuscades, and to send a faithful detail of all they observe to head quarters. These communications will be made by the chef of the etat major who accompanies them.

The advanced guard of the army will be composed of one half of the cavalry, the main body will consist of the infantry, attended by pioneers and detached corps of light artillery, which will be preceded by an iron instrument made in the shape of a plough-share, for the purpose of tracing out the paths, which must be kept by the waggon-train. In the rear of the
main body must follow the heavy ordnance, the baggage-wagons belonging to the several regiments, and the train of artillery. The other half of the cavalry will be disposed of in the rear-guard, in which the army stores and ammunition are to be escorted by a regiment of horse.

If the army should be divided, and march in different columns by indirect roads, a rendezvous or place d'armes must be marked out in writing, where the whole may conveniently meet on the line of march. The utmost attention must be paid to the selection of this spot, by the adjutant and quarter-master-general; lest it should be exposed to a surprise from the enemy; on which account it is kept as secret as possible; lest any intelligence should be given to him by deserters or spies. The hour and the manner in which the several columns are to arrive, is specifically stated to the different leaders; and scouts, &c. are sent round the country to discover the enemy's movements.

If there should be any reason to apprehend an attack, the various precautions must be increased in proportion to the alarm.

An army must always march, if it possibly can, in that order from which it may easily and expeditiously deploy into line; that is, it should invariably preserve the order of battle; every column bearing a natural front towards the enemy. Montecuccoli further adds, that an army must invariably march the right or left in front, and not from its center.

Field-pieces, with a sufficient quantity of ammunition, shovels, spades, and pick-axes always at hand, must be disposed along the most vulnerable part of the rendezvous; these must be guarded by a body of cavalry and infantry, who are to be selected for that specific duty.

Care is likewise taken to lodge the baggage-wagons, &c. in the most secure and best defended spot.

The two first lines of the army will consist of the mounted artillery in front, next to which will stand the different squadrons of horse that are posted in intervals between the infantry battalions: after these will follow the train of caissons, &c. in as many files as the road will admit; then the stores and baggage, and finally the reserve.

Whenever the leading columns have passed an obstacle, the front men must be halted till the rear have completely cleared it likewise; and when the whole enters an open country, the line must be formed, and the march be continued in order of battle until a fresh obstacle occurs, when the troops must be prepared to pass the defile, the advanced guard leading, the main body following next, and the reserve bringing up the rear.

When an army is thus advancing, the right or left flank, (according to circumstances) of its line of march, must be covered by rivers, and banks, rising grounds, or eminences; and if these natural advantages do not present themselves, artificial ones must be resorted to. These may consist of wagons, chevaux de frises, or other temporary means of defence; the quantity, &c. must depend upon the nature of the country, and the number of troops that compose the columns.

It is, however, impossible to set down general rules for all cases; these must vary with the manifold circumstances that occur, and the different designs which are to be accomplished or pursued.

When the movements of an army are to be concealed, the march must be undertaken at night through woods, valleys, and concealed ways; all frequented and inhabited places must be carefully avoided; no loud instruments must on any account be played; and if fires are made, they must only be lighted on the eve of breaking up camp; in which case they must be left burning, for the purpose of deluding the enemy into a supposition, that the troops have not moved.

Small parties of cavalry are sent forward to seize all stragglers or scouts from the enemy, or to take possession of the different passes. In order to avoid being discovered in the object of the march, a different road must be taken from the one which you really propose to march through; and a fit opportunity must afterwards be embraced to get into the real track. Before you march out of a town or fortified place, the utmost care must be observed to prevent your intended route from being conveyed to the enemy. On this account the troops must be first marched out, and the gates immediately shut.
shut upon the rear, so that no stranger &c. may be able to slip out with the men.

During a march of this nature, the troops must be provided with subsistence, stores, and ammunition, to last out until the object is attained. No scout or vedette is sent forward, when an army, or any part of it, advances to take possession of a post or place, to succour a town, to surprise an enemy, in a close or woody country, by favour of the night, or in hazy weather, or on any occasion when orders have been given to oppose and fight every thing it meets.

When an army marches for the direct purpose of forcing a passage, which is guarded by an enemy, a feint must be made in one quarter, whilst the real object is vigorously pursued in another. Sometimes you must appear suddenly disposed to make a retrograde movement, and then again as suddenly resume your progress; sometimes march beyond the spot you wish to occupy, insensibly drawing off the enemy’s attention; and whilst the whole army is thus pushing forward, and is closely watched by its opponents, (who hang upon the flanks, and hug its line of march) let detached parties of cavalry and foot, that have lain in ambush, suddenly surprise the passage, and post themselves upon it.

When it is found expedient to advance rapidly into a country for the purpose of surprising an enemy, getting possession of a town or place, or avoiding superior forces, every species of baggage must be left behind (even the common necessaries of the men, if circumstances require,) the cavalry must be sent forward, and the infantry put in carts, carriages, and chaises, or mounted behind the dragoons. If there be spare horses enough in the different troops, or any can be procured from the inhabitants of the country, they must be led in order to relieve those that are double mounted, in the manner which is practised by the Tartars.—Marches of this description and urgency, must be kept up night and day; and it is on such occasions, that the value of a good staff or etat-major will have all its weight.

It must be observed, as a general maxim, that whenever troops are retiring from a weak position, or to avoid the approach of a superior force, the retreat must be so managed, as not to bear the least resemblance of a flight.

Order of March, which is observed in the Turkish army:—This order of march may be considered as the movement of an army that combines its several operations according to some established system of military art. The Turks usually divide this movement into three distinct operations: the first comprehends that by which troops of several denominations, and from different quarters, assemble together at some given spot or rendezvous. Such, for instance, is the march of various corps of militia, both in Asia and Europe, belonging to the Ottoman empire, who must necessarily pass through several quarters, and cross the sea, to form a junction. From the many inconveniences which troops must unavoidably experience on these occasions, and from the irregularity that always grows out of them, this march cannot be strictly called a systematic movement of the army.

The second order of march among the Turks is that which they call Alay; when the troops arrive, under the command of their several bactas, at the camp or given spot of rendezvous, for the purpose of being reviewed by the serasquier, the grand visier or the sultan. This order is observed likewise by the janizaries when they repair to a similar place.

The third order of march must be considered as a real military movement. It is that which is performed by the army that first takes up its ground in a regular manner, and encamps. This is the commencement or beginning of military marches, because from a situation or arrangement of this sort, troops either leave one camp to pitch their tents elsewhere, or return again to their old one after having made an attempt against an enemy’s post, &c.

It is an established law in Turkey, whenever the sultan or grand vizier takes the field, to have their magnificent tents, with seven or five horse-tails displayed above them, regularly pitched in the plains of Constantinople, or in those of Adrianopolis, accordingly as the court happens to be in either of those imperial residences: which circumstance is announced
nounced throughout the empire, that every province, &c. may be made acquainted with the march of the sultan or grand vizier.

As soon as these pavilions or tents have been thus pitched, all the different armed corps that have not yet commenced their march receive their route; and those that are already on the march, advance with all the expedition they can, to the spot of general rendezvous. The troops from Egypt and Asia are particularly alert on these occasions, most especially if the war should be carried into Hungary. All the points from whence embarkations are to take place, appear conspicuously marked along the coasts of the Marmora, Propontides, and the Archipelago, in order that the different bodies of troops may take the direct road to Constantinople, Andrinopolis, Philippopolis Sophia, Nissa, and Belgrade, in which places was the general rendezvous of all the troops, when the Ottoman empire flourished. Those, however, were not included which were destined to act in Hungary and Bosnia. They met together, after having passed the bridge of Ossek, and formed a junction with the main army. Kara-Mustapha followed these dispositions when he went to besiege Vienna.

The second march of the Turkish or Ottoman army, is a business of mere parade or ceremony. This movement is observed by all the different corps, and it is executed with great magnificence by the Bachas, particularly so when they repair the first time to the camp of general rendezvous.

With respect to the third march, it is a real and essential movement, and ought to be called the military march or route. Four principal branches or objects of service, constitute the nature of this march, and form its disposition. These are the cavalry, infantry, artillery, and baggage; in which latter are included the stores, &c. belonging to the Turkish militia, the royal provisions, public stores, and ammunition, comprehending gunpowder, shot, matches, spades, pick-axes, &c.

There is, however, no invariable rule attached to this arrangement, it alters according to circumstance and place.

The real or military march of the troops is entirely managed by the grand vizier, or the seraskier. Written instructions are issued out for this purpose; for the Turks never give out verbal orders, except in matters of little or no importance, or in cases of extreme emergency, when they cannot commit them to writing.

It is an invariable maxim among the Turks, whenever their troops are upon the march, to throw new bridges over rivers, or to repair old ones, to clear public or bye roads, to fill up ditches, and to cut down trees, &c. so as to facilitate their movements, and to obviate delay. They moreover throw up small heaps of earth, which they call unika, at the distance of half a league from each other, and often nearer, especially on high grounds. When the sultan marches at their head they make two heaps of this description.

The Turks pay very particular attention to their movements or marches on service: the whole of the army is under arms during the night, in order to make the necessary dispositions; on which occasions the soldiers make use of small vessels with fire lighted in them, and tie them to the ends of long pikes or poles. The greatest silence is observed during the march; neither drums, trumpets, nor cymbals are heard. Sometimes, indeed, but this rarely happens, the drummers belonging to the band of the grand vizier, accompany the salutes or ceremonial compliments which are paid by the salam-agasi, or master of ceremonies.

When they march through a country in which there is no cause to apprehend surprise or hostility, the infantry generally takes the lead, two or three days march, in front of the main army. The troops march in the loosest manner, being neither confined to particular companies, nor formed in columns. They choose what roads they like best, halt where they please, and reach the camp in detached parties; with this injunction, however, that the whole must arrive at the spot of rendezvous before evening prayers.

Next to these follow the cavalry, headed by a general officer. Their march, notwithstanding his presence, is as irregular as that of the infantry. The men frequently halt out of mere laziness, and under pretence of refreshing their horses; and little or no attention is paid to
to system and good order. The baggage and ammunition wagons, together with such stores, &c. as are carried by beasts of burthen, move in the same manner.

When the army enters an enemy’s country, the whole of the infantry is collected together, and marches in one body. The Capiculy and the Seraculy, for instance, form one column. There is this distinction, however, observed, that every janizary marches under his own colours, and every officer remains attached to his oda or company, for the purpose of executing, in the speediest manner, the commander in chief’s directions.

The cavalry is often divided into two wings; it is likewise frequently formed in one body. Every man is ranged under his own standard. The squadrons are commanded by the Alay-Begs, who receive orders through the Chiaous; and the other officers are near the Bacha.

The baggage sometimes moves in the front, and sometimes in the rear of the janizaries. A particular body of cavalry, called Topracly, are an exception to this arrangement: the men belonging to this corps are obliged to furnish themselves with all the necessaries of life, and consequently carry provisions, &c. with them in all their marches; which circumstance unavoidably creates much confusion.

The artillery is generally attached to the infantry; sometimes, however, it moves with the cavalry.

When the Turkish army marches through an enemy’s country, it is covered by an advanced and a rear guard. The advanced guard is composed of five or six thousand of the best mounted cavalry. This body is under the immediate orders of a commanding officer, called Cialegy-Basy, whose appointment lasts during the whole of the campaign. The advanced guard usually moves six, seven, or eight leagues in front of the main body; but it falls back in proportion as the enemy retires. When there are bodies of Tartars or auxiliary troops from any of the rebellious provinces with the army, they are detached in front of the advanced guard, for the purpose of harassing the enemy’s rear, pillaging the country, and committing those excesses which are not countenanced by regular troops.

The rear-guard generally consists of one thousand horse. It is the business of this body to escort the baggage safe into camp, and not to leave it until the whole be securely lodged.

The Turks, in all their movements on real service, display uncommon activity; and their marches are generally so well managed, that an enemy runs the greatest hazard of being surprised.

Rogue’s March, a tune which is played by trumpeters or fifers of a regiment (as the case may be) for the purpose of drumming out any person who has behaved disorderly, &c. in a camp or garrison. Thieves, strumpets, &c. are frequently disgraced in this manner; being marched down the front of a battalion, from right to left, and along the rear: after which they are conducted to the gate of the garrison or entrance of the camp, where they receive a kick in the posteriors from the youngest drummer, and are warned never to appear within the limits of either place, under pain of being severely punished.

Marchands, Fr. slop-sellers, petty-suttlers. Men of this description always flock round and follow an army on its march. As they generally deal in articles which are wanted by the officers and soldiers, it is the business of every General to see them properly treated, to ensure their safety, and to permit them, under certain regulations, to have access to the camp. They should, however, be warily watched in some instances, especially upon the eve of a retreat, or before any advanced operation takes place. Spies frequently disguise themselves as pedlars, and under the mask of selling trifling articles, pry into the state of a camp, put indirect questions to the soldiers, and tamper with those who may seem disposed to act in a traitorous manner. Yet as armies cannot do without such men, they must be sanctioned, and it is the particular duty of the Provost-Marshal, and of the Wagon-Master General, to watch and superintend their motions.

Marche accélérée, ou pas accélérée, Fr. quick time.
Marche ordinaire, ou pas ordinaire, Fr. ordinary time.
Marche précipité, ou pas précipité, Fr. quickest time.

3 Œ Marche
Marche cadencée, ou pas cadencé, Fr. march or step according to time and measure. It is likewise called the cadenced step.

Marche non-cadencée, ou pas non-cadencé, Fr. This step is likewise called pas de route, and signifies that unconstrained movement which soldiers are permitted to adopt in marching over difficult ground, and in columns of route.

Marche de Flanc, Fr. flank movement or march.

Marche forcée, Fr. a forced march.

Battez, surner la Marche, Fr. to put troops into motion by the beat of drum or sound of trumpet, &c.

Gagner une Marche sur l'ennemi, Fr. to gain ground or time upon an enemy, which signifies to get in his front or upon his flanks, so as to harass or perplex him, or by any able manoeuvre to get the start of him.

Dérober sa Marche, Fr. to steal a march.

Couver un Marche, Fr. to conceal a march.

Marche, Fr. This word is likewise used among the French, to express the course or progress of a ship, or as we say, technically, the way she makes: hence marche d'un vaisseau.

Marcher par le Flanc, Fr. to march from any given flank.

Marcher en Colonne avec distance entière, Fr. to march in open column at open distance.

Marcher en Colonne à distance de Section, ou en Masse, Fr. to march in column, quarter distance, or in mass.

Marcher en bataille, ou en colonne d'attaque, Fr. to advance in column for the purpose of attacking an enemy.

Marcher en bataille en ordre déployé, Fr. to advance by the echemelon march in deployed order.

Marcher en retraite, Fr. to retreat.

Marcher en bataille par le dernier rung, Fr. to march in line rear front.

Marcher au pas accéléré, Fr. to march in quick time.

Marcher le pas en arrière, Fr. to take the back-step.

Marcher au pas ordinaire, Fr. to march in ordinary time.

Marcher au pas précipité, Fr. to march in quickest time.

Marcher par le flanc, droit, ou gauche, Fr. to march by the right or left flank.

Marcher en colonne, la droite, ou la gauche, en tête, Fr. to march in column, the right or left in front.

Marcher en colonne serrée, Fr. to march in close column.

Marcher en colonne ouverte, Fr. to march in open column.

Marcher en terme d'évolutions, Fr. to march in line, &c. which see.

Marcher en colonne renversée, Fr. to march by inverted column; that is, to make the army move left in front; the left being the leading flank.

Lords Marchers, noblemen who anciently inhabited and secured the Marches of Wales and Scotland.

Marches. The limits or bounds between England, Wales, and Scotland, have been so called.

Marches, Fr. the various modes of marching which are adopted by a body of armed men in offensive or defensive movements.

Marches d'armées, et ce que les soldats ont à faire quand la générale est battue, Fr. column of route or general order of march which an army observes when it takes the field. See Camp.

Marching Regiments. A term given to those corps who had not any permanent quarters, but were liable to be sent not only from one end of Great Britain to another, but to the most distant of her possessions abroad. Although the word marching is insensibly confounded with those of line and regulars, it was originally meant to convey something more than a mere liability to be ordered upon any service; for by marching the regular troops from one town to another, the inhabitants, who from time immemorial have been jealous of a standing army, lost their antipathy to real soldiers, by the occasional absence of regular troops. At present, the guards, militia, and fencibles, may be considered more or less as marching regiments. The marines and volunteer corps have stationary quarters.

St. MARCOU. Two rocks upon the coast of Normandy, lying in a bite or bay between Cape Barfleur and Point Percé, bearing south-east from La Hogue nine miles, from the mouth of the river Isigny, north, eight miles, and distant
distant from the body of the French shore about four miles. The surface of each island, which is 18 or 20 feet above the level of the sea at high water, comprises about an acre, and bear from each other W. by N. and E. by S. distant 200 yards. On the abandonment of an expedition to the islands of Cloosse, in the year 1795, Sir Sidney Smith, whose active and comprehensive mind justly concluded, that the contiguity of these posts to the Continent would materially facilitate communications with the Royalists, took possession of them; and having drawn the Badger and Sandfly gun-vessels on shore, gave to their respective commanders the direction of the spot upon which he was thus placed. These officers having constructed batteries, mounted in them the guns belonging to their vessels, and in the year 1796 block-houses, with detachments of marines, invalids, and 12 artillery-men, were ordered out by government.

The extreme annoyance of these rocks to the coasting trade of the enemy, at length determined them to employ a part of the division of the army destined for the conquest of England, in their recovery, and 15,000 troops being assembled at the Hogue, 9000 were embarked on the 6th of May, 1798, on board 52 gun-vessels; when so great was the solicitude to partake in this conceived certain prelude to their glory, that several of the fourth demi-brigade of the army of Italy, whose tour of duty did not entitle them to be thus employed, gave four and five crowns each to others to change with them. Perfectly acquainted with the situation of the islands, the French flotilla rowed towards them in the night of the 6th, and at the dawn of the morning of the 7th, the weather being perfectly calm, they were discovered in a body between the islands and the shore. They soon separated into three divisions, one of which, comprising the heavy gun-brigs, remained in that position, while the other two, consisting of large flat boats, carrying a long 18 pounder in the bow, and a 6 pounder in the stern, took positions to the north and to the south of the islands, with an intention to drop into the passage that separates them. An animated and well directed fire was commenced from the islands, and warmly returned by the enemy. The northern division having been driven by the ebb tide within a short distance of the East island, soon became disabled in their oars, and considerably increased its distance, while the attention of the two islands was principally directed to the southern division, which came up with the tide, and with almost unexampled gallantry pushed to the attack; being however by the severity of the fire that was kept up, foiled in its intention of getting between the islands, when each island would be exposed to the fire of the other, it passed quickly to the westward of the west island, and pulling up on the northern side of that island, the defence of which was almost wholly dependent on the flanking fire of the east island, made another determined effort to land. This appears to have been the critical period of the day, and the discharge of grape shot from the island was proportionate to the danger; the entire side of the commodore of this division's vessel was battered in, and she sunk; the others of the division, beaten and disabled, retreated to their companions, and being reduced to the number of 47, they all retreated to La Hogue, amidst the deriding taunts and bazzas of our countrymen, 400 of whom, with about 50 pieces of cannon, most of which were of a small calibre, and placed in works constructed by themselves, by vanquishing the advanced guard of the hoasted army of England, with the loss of 1100 killed, drowned, and wounded, dissipated the terrors of a French invasion. The action lasted two hours and ten minutes, during which time there were upwards of 100 pieces of cannon firing on the islands; notwithstanding which the loss on our side was only one killed and two wounded.

The Adamant, of 58 guns; Eurydice, of 24, and Orestes, of 18 guns, were, at the commencement of the action, distant about nine miles, and the weather being calm, were not enabled to reach the islands until several hours after it had ceased.

Lieutenant Price, since made Commander, commanded on the West Island; and Lieutenant Bourne, on the East.

MARDIKERS, or Topasses, a mixed breed of Dutch, Portuguese, Indians, and
and other nations, incorporated with the Dutch at Batavia, in the East Indies. Mardikers, in all probability, derive their name from some original adventurers, who left a place called Mardike, about four miles from Dunkirk, and formerly subject to, or forming part of the Seventeen United Provinces. When the Dutch took possession of that territory which is named Batavia, these adventurers were, perhaps, the leading party, and from their being called Mardikers, the natives in those quarters insensibly attached the term to all persons of European descent, or connection. All, in fact, who wear hats are distinguished among turban-nations by the appellation of Topasses and Mardikers, and from that circumstance are confounded in the term, with respect to Batavia.

MARÉchal, Fr. a dignity of the second class, in the order of Malta. It was formerly attached to the Tongue or Langue of Auvergne.

MARÉchal de Camp, Fr. a military rank which existed during the French monarchy, and has been revived by Bonaparte. The person invested with it was a general officer, and ranked next to a lieutenant-general. It was his duty to see the army properly disposed of in camp or quarters; to be present at all the movements that were made; to be the first to mount his charger, and the last to quit him. He commanded the left in all attacks. The appointment, under this distinction, was first created by Henry IV. in 1598.

MARÉchal du Camp, Fr. During the reign of the first kings of France, when dwelling was permitted, an officer was appointed to superintend the contest.

MARÉchal-Général des camps et armées du Roi, Fr. a post of high dignity and trust, which, during the French monarchy, was annexed to the rank of Maréchal de France. Military writers differ with respect to the privileges, &c. which belonged to this appointment; it is, however, generally acknowledged, that the general officer who held it, was entrusted with the whole management of a siege, being subordinate only to the constable, or to any other Maréchal de France, who was his senior in appointment.

MARÉchal-général des logis de l'armée, Fr. This appointment, which existed during the old French government, and has since been replaced by the Chef de l'État-Major, corresponds with that of Quarter-Master-General in the British service.

MARÉchal de Bataille, Fr. a military rank, which once existed in France, but was suppressed before the Revolution, or rather confined to the body guards. An officer belonging to that corps received it as an honorary title. Its original functions, &c. with respect to general service, sunk in the appointments of Maréchal de Camp, and Major-Général. It was first created by Louis XIII.

MARÉchal-général des logis de la cavalerie, Fr. This appointment took place under Charles IX. in 1594. He had the chief direction of everything which related to the French cavalry.

MARÉchal des logis dans la cavalerie, Fr. the quarter-master of a troop of horse was so called in the French service. In the old system every infantry regiment had one Maréchal des Logis; two were attached to each company of the gendarmes; each troop of light horse had likewise two; and every company of musqueteers had eight.

MARÉchal des logis de l'artillerie, Fr. an appointment which existed in France before the Revolution, and which was in the gift of the Grand Master of the Ordnance. This officer always accompanied the army on service, and was under the immediate orders of the commanding officer of the artillery.

MARÉchal des logis pour les tireurs, Fr. a person belonging to the quarter-master-general's department, to whom the purveyors belonging to an army are subordinate.

LaMARÉchale, Fr. a marshall’s lady, i.e. wife was so called in France. We have already mentioned la colonelle, &c. This practice has, indeed, of late, obtained in England, but not in the unlimited manner which prevailed among the French. We use it merely to distinguish two ladies of the same name and family, or neighbourhood, viz. Mrs. Johnson, and Mrs. Colonel Johnson; meaning thereby that the latter is the wife or widow of Colonel Johnson.

MARECHIAUSSÉES de France, Fr. a species of military police, which has long existed in France. During the French monarchy there were 31 companies
nies of Maréchaussées à cheval, or mounted police-men. After twenty years service, the individuals who belonged to this establishment were entitled to the privileges of invalid corps, being considered as a part of the gendarmerie.

These companies were first formed for the purpose of preserving public tranquillity, and were distributed in the different provinces of the kingdom. They consisted of provosts-generals, lieutenants, exempts, brigadiers, sub-brigadiers, and horsemen. This useful body of men was first formed under Philip I. in 1060; they were afterwards suppressed, and again re-established in 1720, as constituting a part of the gendarmerie of France.

The uniform of the Maréchaussées, or mounted police-men, consisted of royal blue cloth for the coat, with red cuffs and linings; the waistcoat of chamoley-colour, lined with white serge; a cloak lined with red serge, the buttons of plated silver, placed in rows of three each, with intervals between them; horseman's sleeves, with six silver loops with tassels. The brigadiers and sub-brigadiers, had silver lace, one inch broad upon their sleeves; their cloaks were made of blue cloth with red cuffs, and they wore silver laced hats. The private horsemen wore bandoleers.

There were other companies of Maréchaussées, who were particularly distinguished from the thirty-one we have mentioned. Such, for instance, as that of the constable, called the gendarmerie.

Maréchaussées de France, camps, et armées du roi, Fr. three companies, one of which was under the immediate direction of the provost-general of the isle of France, and the other belonged to the Mint.

The first of these companies is said to have been formed under the first race of French kings: the second by Francis I. and the third by Louis XIII. There were, besides, several small bodies of troops composed of officers and soldiers who had served, that remained stationary in the principal towns to assist the civil magistrates. Those in Paris consisted of three companies; the company belonging to the Lieutenant Criminel de Robe-Courte, or to that particular court of judicature which was superintended by the Prévost de la Maréchaussée, and which Charles IX. attached to the gendarmerie: the independent company of mounted police, called Guet à Cheval; and the company of the police or foot patrole, called Guet à Pied, which was again subdivided into two companies, in order that one might do the duty of the quays. These companies were under the immediate direction of the secretary of state for the interior department of Paris. The Guet de Nuit, or night patrol, seems to have been first established by Clotaire the Second. The commanding officer of the patrole, or chevalier du guet, during the reign of St. Louis, was called Miles-Guerti.

MARENGO, a plain and village in Italy, about one league distant from Tortona, so called. These spots have been rendered memorable in military history by the obstinate and decisive engagement which took place on the 14th of June, 1800, between the Imperialists, commanded by General Field Marshal Melas; and the Republican French army, under the direction and personal guidance of Bonaparte, then First Consul. According to a very recent publication, translated from the French of Joseph Petit, horse grenadier in the consular guard, the effective number of each army was nearly as follows:—The French army, at the moment the battle commenced, was computed from forty to forty-five thousand men, of which three thousand were cavalry: there were besides, from twenty-five to thirty pieces of cannon, in which were included two companies of light artillery: the Austrian army, according to the accounts of the best informed persons, contained from fifty-five to sixty thousand men, including the reinforcements which had just arrived from Genoa. From 15 to 18,000 of these were cavalry. The cannon amounted to fourscore pieces and upwards, two hundred ammunition wagons, well provided, besides an immense train of army implements, stores, and equipage. The French were extremely deficient in the latter articles, having been obliged for want of caissons, to put their ammunition upon tumbrils, drawn by oxen.

The loss on both sides was enormous; that of the French was rendered more serious to the republic, by the death of General Désaix, to whose intrepidity, at
The most critical juncture, the success of the day, and even the personal safety of Bonaparte were unquestionably owing. This admirable young officer, (for even his enemies pay homage to his virtues and talents) was called by the French and Austrian soldiers, Guerrier sans peur et sans reproche: an irreproachable and undaunted warrior.

Without entering into a minute detail of this memorable action, we shall so far trespass upon the limited arrangements of our work, as to extract a passage from another French publication, which has been written by Citizen Foudras, and may be found in the English translation from which we have already quoted:

"It has already been shewn with what obstinacy both armies fought (see page 64 of Petit's narrative) four times were the French driven back, four times did they return to the charge, and advance against the Austrians. At the very instant, when the Consul, surrounded by hostile shot, was re-animating his almost exhausted troops, General Desaix darted with impetuosity amidst the Austrian battalions, when he received his death from a musquet ball. He had only time to utter the following words to the son of the Consul Le Brun, in whose arms he expired: — "Go and tell the first Consul, that I die with regret in not having done enough to live in the memory of posterity!" See page 192 of Foudras's Biographical Notice.

CHASSE-Maree, Fr. This term means literally a Ripier, or man who brings fish from the sea-coast to sell in the inland parts; but it has frequently been used to signify the cart or carriage itself on which he sits. According to the French construction of it, it may serve for several purposes, particularly for the speedy conveyance of small bodies of troops. It consists of a four wheel carriage, of equal height with a common axle-tree, having a platform sufficiently elevated to suffer the forewheels to pass under it when on the lock. In the center of this platform is an upright back, with a seat on each side, resembling the seat of an Irish car; so that about six soldiers might sit on each side, back to back. On the platform, and attached to the axe-tree, nearly at each corner, are four stout stumps on knee-hinges, that allow them to turn down flat on the platform, or to be fixed upright, when they serve, by a crutch which fits into a hole as a rest for rifles, or for a piece of horse light artillery; on the crutch being taken out it fits into the hole after the manner of a swivel on board ship.

MARGA SEERSHA, Ind. a month which partly agrees with October.

MARIN, Fr. any thing appertaining to the sea. Avoir le pied marin, to have sea-legs, or to be able to stand the motion of a vessel in rough water, and to go through the different functions of navigation. Marin is likewise used to distinguish a sea-faring man, (homme de mer) from Marinier, which literally means a sailor.

La MARINE. Fr. The French navy is so called.

MARINE, implies, in general, the whole navy of a kingdom or state, comprehending all the royal dock yards, and the officers, artificers, seamen, soldiers, &c. employed therein; as well as the shipping employed by the merchants, for military or commercial purposes; together with whatever relates to navigation, ship-building, sailors, and marines.

The history of the marine affairs of any one state is a very comprehensive subject; much more that of all nations. Not only the preservation of that share of commerce we at present possess, but its future advancement, and even the very being of Britain, as an independent empire, and a free people, depend no less on the good condition and wise regulation of our affairs of the marine, than on the superiority of its naval power. Thé Delphic oracle been consulted by the Athenians, on the formidable armament and innumerable forces of Xerxes, returned for answer, "that they must seek their safety in wooden walls." To which we may affirm, that whenever this nation in particular has recourse to her floating bulwarks for her security and defence, she will find wealth, strength, and glory, to be the happy and invaluable consequences.

MARINES, or MARINE FORCES, a body of soldiers raised for the sea-service, and trained to fight either in a naval engagement, or in an action on shore.
Officers of the marines may sit on courts-martial with officers of the land forces. See Mutiny Act, Sect. 13.

The great service which this useful corps has frequently rendered, entitles it to a fair record in every publication that treats of military matters. In the course of former wars the marines have distinguished themselves by great perseverance, strict attention to duty, and unquestionable valor. At the siege of Belleisle they rose into considerable notice, although they had, at that period, been only recently raised, and were scarcely competent to military discipline. When the marines are at sea, they form part of the ship's crew, and soon acquire a knowledge of nautical tactics. Their officers are directed by the admiralty, (under whose immediate control they serve,) to encourage them in every disposition to become able seamen; but no sea officer has the power of ordering them to go aloft against their inclination. During an engagement at sea, they are of considerable service in scouring the decks of the enemy, by firing musquetry from the poop, round top, &c. and when they have been long enough out to obtain good sea-legs, they are preferable to mere seamen, especially when the enemy attempts to board; in which case the marines can raise the poop, quarter-deck, forecastle, &c. with their fixed bayonets, and prevent the completion of their design. In making this observation, we are necessarily led to recommend a more frequent use of the pike. Not only the seamen, but the marines, should be well exercised in the management of that weapon. The interior regulations for the several marine corps, have been well digested, and do credit to the establishment. If any fault can be found on that head, it must relate to the slops, which are given in too large a quantity, considering the little room that a marine must occupy on board. No commissions are bought or sold in the marines; every individual rises according to his seniority; but we are sorry to add, that a marine officer never can arrive at the highest rank or pay which exists upon the marine establishment; one general, one lieutenant-general, one major-general, three colonels, and one lieutenant-colonel commandant, being naval officers, with those additional distinctions. It is not within our province to enter into the wisdom or injustice, not to say ignorance, of that policy which, with a series of indisputable claims to notice, still keeps the marine establishment upon the lowest footing of military honour and reward.

Fabulous as the defence of it may hereafter appear, from the extraordinary means which were made use of to reduce the place, and the more extraordinary exertions which succeeded in preserving it, the siege of St. John of Acre, will long be remembered, by the two first rival nations in Europe, and will form a brilliant part of the records of the Turkish empire. When posterity shall read the account, it may doubt the relation in its full extent of wonderful hardihood on both sides; but it will rest satisfied, that the garrison of St. John of Acre would not have resisted the first approach of Bonaparte's army, had not a handful of British marines stood in each breach his soldiers made, and communicated courage and perseverance to the natives of the place.

The marine forces have of late years been considerably augmented; and we make no doubt but they will continue to be so, through the many confessed advantages which are derived from the peculiar nature of their service.

It has already been remarked, that the marines are nominally under the command of three general officers, who are admirals or vice-admirals in the navy, and three colonels belonging to the sea service. The marines themselves never rise beyond the rank of colonel commandant in their own corps, but they may be general officers with respect to the army at large.

MARK, a note, character, &c. set upon a thing. Hence the soldier's mark X which he makes in his captain's or pay-serjeant's book, &c. when he cannot write.

MARK also denotes money of account. The English mark is 13s. 4d. among the Saxons it was equivalent to 7s. 6d. of our money. It is also a money of account in Scotland, and formerly a silver coin, being equal to 13d. and one-third English.

Gunpowder Marks. The different sorts of gunpowder are distinguished by the following marks on the heads of the barreis.
barrels. All gunpowder for service is mixed in proportions according to its strength, so as to bring it as much as possible to a mean and uniform force. This sort of powder is marked with a blue L. G. and the figure 4, or with F. G. and the figure 3, whose mean force is from 150 to 160 of the éprouvette. This is the powder used for practice, for experiments, and for service. The white L. G. or F. G. is a second sort of powder of this quality. It is sometimes stronger, but not so uniform as the blue L. G. It is therefore generally used in filling shells, or such other things as do not require accuracy. The red L. G. F. G. denotes powder entirely made at the king's mills, with the coal burnt in cylinders, and is used at present only in particular cases, and in comparisons, and to mix with other sorts to bring them to a mean force. The figures 1, 2, or 3, denote that the powder is made from saltpetre obtained from damaged gunpowder; 4, 5, or 6, from saltpetre obtained from the grough. See pages 123, 124, of the Little Bombardier.

Mark to shoot at, a round or square piece of wood which is generally painted in red and white circles, and has a black spot in the center called the bull's eye. Soldiers should be frequently practised in shooting at a mark. At the commencement of the French revolution, particularly in 1793, previous to the battle of Jemappes, the inhabitants of the different towns exercised themselves several times during the course of the day, in firing at a mark. The national guards did the same. By means of this laudable practice several expert marksmen were formed. We need scarcely add, that the advantages which the service in general derived from their skill, has been too manifest to be denied. Our own army, indeed, has more than once experienced the want of detached corps of marksmen, whilst it fatally witnessed the effects of an enemy's superiority in that particular line. The truth of this remark is, however, too strongly felt not to be acknowledged in such a manner at head-quarters, as to induce his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief to pay some attention to the formation of detached corps of marksmen. It must be evident to every military man that (insular and intersected as Great Britain is,) corps of light cavalry, mounted light artillery, and numerous small bodies of marksmen, capable of acting together, or on detached and desultory duties, would answer all the purposes of home defence.

Mark time. To mark time is to move each leg alternately in quick or ordinary time, without gaining ground. This is frequently practised when a front file or column is opened too much, in order to afford the rear an opportunity of getting up; and sometimes to let the head of a column disengage itself, or a body of troops file by, &c.

Knights of St. Mark, an order of knighthood which formerly existed in the republic of Venice, under the protection of St. Mark the Evangelist.

To be marked. Marshal Saxe, in his reveries, proposes that every soldier should be marked in his right hand to prevent desertion. He recommends the composition which is used by the Indians; and grounds the propriety of his plan upon the custom which prevailed among the Romans, who marked their soldiers with a hot iron. We mention this as a suggestion grounded upon good authority: but we by no means recommend it as an adoption which would be palatable to Englishmen.

A marked man, (homme suspect, Fr.) this word is seldom understood in a good sense. It generally signifies an individual of whose loyalty and general principles suspicions are entertained.

Marksmen, men expert at hitting a mark.

Light-armed marksmen, men that are armed and accounted for very active and desultory service. See Riflemen.

Austrian volunteer marksmen, a corps which has been formed in the hereditary dominions of the Emperor of Germany, and is daily increasing by recruits and volunteers from the Tyrol, &c. The success which has uniformly attended the French tirailleurs in all their actions, has induced other nations to pay great attention to the formation of similar corps.

Marlins, in artillery, are tarred white skains, or long wreaths or lines of untwisted hemp, dipped in pitch or tar, with which cables and other ropes are wrapped round, to prevent their fretting and rubbing in the blocks or pulleys through which they pass. The same
serves in artillery upon ropes used for rigging gins, usually put up in small parcels called skains.

MARON, Fr. a piece of brass or copper, about the size of a crown, on which the hours for going the rounds were marked, in the old French service. Several of these were put into a small bag, and deposited in the hands of the major of the regiment, out of which they were regularly drawn by the serjeants of companies, for the officers belonging to them. The hours and half-hours of the night were engraved upon each maron in the following manner—
Ronde de dix heures, de six heures et demie. The ten o'clock rounds, or those of half past ten.

These pieces were numbered 1, 2, &c. to correspond with the several periods of the nights; so that the officer, for instance, who was to go the tenth o'clock rounds, had as many marons, marked 10, 10, as there were posts or guard-houses which he was directed to visit. Thus, on reaching the first, after having given the mot, or watchword to the corporal, (who, whilst he receives it, must keep the naked point of his sword or bayonet close to the chest of the person who gives it,) he delivers into his hands the maron marked 1. These marons being pierced in the middle, are successively strung by the different corporals upon a piece of wire, from which they slide into a box called boîte aux rondes, or box belonging to the rounds. This box is carried the next morning to the major, who keeps the key; and who, on opening it, can easily ascertain whether the rounds have been regularly gone, by counting the different marons, and seeing them successively strung. This is certainly a most excellent invention to prevent a neglect of duty in officers, or non-commissioned officers.

MARON d'artifice, Fr. a species of fire-work, which is made with a piece of pasteboard in the shape of a parallelogram, one side of which is as five to three; so that fifteen squares, equal among themselves, may be made, three on one side, and five on the other; these are folded into the form of a die or cube, and filled with gunpowder. The effect produced by this firework is extremely beautiful.

MARQUE, or Letters of Marque, in naval affairs, are letters of reprisal, granting the subjects of one prince or state liberty to make reprisals on those of another. See Letters of Marque.

MARQUÉE, a word corrupted from the French Marquise, signifying a tent or cover made of strong canvas or Russian duck, which is thrown over another tent, and serves to keep out rain. Its primitive etymology may be traced to Marquis, or Marchio, whence Marchiers, and Marches.

The complete weight of a Marquée is 1 cwt. 17lbs. ridge pole, 7 feet; standard 8 feet.

MARQUER le Pas, Fr. to mark time.
MARQUER un Camp, Fr. to prick out the lines of an encampment.

MARQUIS, Marquess, Marchio, a title of honor given by letter patent to a person who holds a middle rank between the dignity of a Duke and that of an Earl. This word, like Margrave, is derived from the high Dutch, or from the French Marche, a limit, as the guard of the frontiers was entrusted to a Marquis. The title itself is originally French, and was first known under Charlemagne. King Richard the Second first introduced the dignity of Marquis among us, by creating Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford, Marquis of Dublin; but it was a title without any office annexed to it.

MARQUIS, Fr. See Marquée.
Tendre une MARQUISE, Fr. to pitch a marquee.

MARQUIS, Fr. This word likewise means a species of sky-rocket. See Fusée volante.

MARRIAGE. It is generally understood in the British service, that no soldier can marry without the previous knowledge and consent of his captain, or commanding officer. There is not, however, any specific regulation on this head. The regulations respecting the marriages of officers and soldiers in the old French service, were extremely rigid. It must, however, be remarked, that although the Marriage Act in Ireland authorizes Roman Catholic priests to perform this ceremony, no marriage between persons (vulgarily called Papists) is valid, or has any legal effect in Great Britain, unless it be rendered so by a clergyman of the Church of England. The Act has provided for the Recusants or Nonjurors of every
other sect. As there are many non-commissioned officers and private soldiers of the Roman Catholic persuasion, both in the navy and the army, this caution may be useful.

MARS. According to the Heathen Mythology, the God of War was so called. The French frequently use the word in a figurative sense, viz. Les travaux de Mars, the labours or exploits of Mars, le métier de Mars, the military profession.

The MARSEILLOIS, or Marseilles Hymn, a national march adopted by the French during the course of their revolution, and since regularly played in their armies when they go to battle. It is frequently accompanied, or rather succeeded by the Ça Ira, a lively tune; the former being calculated for slow or ordinary time, and the latter for quick movements.

MARSHAL, in its primitive signification, means an officer who has the care and charge of horses; but it is now applied to officers who have very different employments.—In a military sense, it means the commander in chief of all the forces. It is likewise given as an honorary rank to general officers who have no immediate command. See General.

Marschal of France, was an officer of the greatest dignity in the French army. It was first established by Philip August, in the year 1185.

PROVOST-MARSHAL, an executive officer, whose duty is to see punishments put in force, when soldiers are condemned to death, or are to be otherwise chastised. Every army is provided with a provost-marshal-general, who has several deputies under him. By the last General Regulations it has been ordained, that in case the army should take the field in Great Britain, a deputy provost-marshal will be appointed to each district. The Provost, under those circumstances, will frequently make the tour of the camp, and its environs, and will have orders to seize such persons as are committing disorders.

The provost-marshal will be particularly directed, in making his rounds, to execute the awful punishment which the military law awards against plundering and marauding.

And in order to assist him in the discovery of such persons as may be guilty of those offences, the regiments encamped nearest villages, will send frequent patrols into them, to apprehend such persons, as may be there without passes, or who having passes, may behave improperly.

If any soldier is base enough to attempt to desert to the enemy, he will suffer immediate death.

Any person forcing a safeguard will suffer death.

These punishments will attach equally to the followers of the camp, as to soldiers, and must be explained to them by the officers commanding the regiments by which such followers are employed.

The articles of war have decreed punishments for the following offences:

Death is the absolute punishment for cowardice, or misbehaviour before an enemy, or speaking words inducing others to do the like.

For mutiny, or concealing a mutiny, desertion, sleeping on a post, or quiting it before relieved, plundering after victory, quitting a post in battle, compelling an officer to abandon or give up his post, or persuading others to do the like, corresponding with an enemy, and striking or refusing to obey any superior officer in the execution of his duty, a court martial may inflict death, or any other punishment it may judge adequate to the offence.

The crimes of persuading others to desert, of concealing, assisting, or relieving an enemy; of being absent from the troop or company a soldier belongs to, absence from duty, drunkenness, and false alarms, are punishable at the discretion of a general or regimental court-martial.

All officers in the command of guards or detachments are enjoined to give assistance to the Provost Marshal in the execution of his duty; and any officer or soldier impeding him in the same, or offering him any insult, will receive the most exemplary punishment.

MARSILY Ground, (Les Marais, Fr.) As it may be frequently necessary to convey heavy ordnance, &c. over marshy ground, and sometimes indeed to erect batteries upon it, the following method has been recommended for those purposes:

In the first place, a firm and solid road must be made, in order to convey, with safety,
safety, the different materials which may be wanted for the construction of the battery, and along which the men may securely drag the various pieces of ordnance. This road must be ten feet high at least.

If the marsh or bog should not be very deep, let a bed or platform, consisting of fascines, and disposed according to the direction of the road, be constructed between two rows of thick saucissons, that are secured and fixed in the earth with strong stakes. This platform must be two thirds as thick as the bog is deep, and contain 12 feet in breadth. Spread hurdles over the level surface of this platform, and then make another bed or covering with fascines, ten feet long, and disposed accordingly to the breadth of the road, taking care to bind their ends, &c. well together by means of stakes, which must be driven through the hurdles and the lower bed. Let this second surface be sufficiently covered with earth and straw, to secure the fascines, and to render the road solid and compact.

If the road should appear unsafe after these precautions, it must be made wider and deeper.

If the marsh or bog be very deep, you must construct several beds or surfaces of fascines, in the manner already mentioned, taking care to make the top equal to the breadth of the road, and capable of supporting the weight of a wagon or carriage. The ground for the epaulement belonging to the platforms, their recoil backwards, and the path to the magazines, must be rendered firm and solid after the same manner. On each side of this epaulement you must throw up a berm or path, measuring three feet in front, and as much on the sides.

You will collect the earth, &c. in the usual way for the construction of batteries on rocks, and mask your artificers in like manner.

Marteau d'armes, Fr. an offensive weapon, so called from its resemblance to a hammer.

Martialist, a warrior, a man at arms.

Martial—Law, is the law of war, which entirely depends on the arbitrary power of the Prince, or of those to whom he has delegated it; for, though the king can make no laws in time of peace without the consent of parliament, yet in time of war he uses an absolute power over the army. See Articles of War.

Martil, Fr. uneasiness; inquietude.

Martinet, a word frequently misapplied to signify a strict disciplinarian, who sometimes gives officers and soldiers unnecessary trouble. It is supposed to have taken its origin from an adjutant of that name, who was in high repute, as a drill officer, during the reign of Louis the XIVth.

In a book, published some years back for the use of the Militia of England, there is the following note on this head.

Lewis the XIVth, in 1662, employed Monsieur Martinet to regulate and discipline his infantry after the Dutch manner. He was first Lieutenant-Colonel, and afterwards Colonel of the Régiment du Roi, or what we call the King's own regiment, which was then the pattern. He was killed at the siege of Doesburg, in 1672.—His name is become, among our military gentlemen (or rather would be military gentlemen), a term of sneer and reproach, too often applied to such officers as shame the rest of their corps, by being more assiduous and exact in the performance of their duties, than suits the levity of the young, or the indolence of the old ones.

Martinet, Fr. a small discipline, or cat o' nine tails, fixed to the end of a wooden handle, which schoolmasters use to punish refractory or idle boys. This affords us another path, and perhaps a surer one, than the surname already quoted, to find out the real origin of Martinet in a military sense, more especially as it is particularly indicative of the severity that is sometimes practised by what is, ridiculously enough, called a tip-top adjutant.

Martinet, Fr. according to the last published Military Dictionary in France, a huge hammer, which was used by the ancients in besieging towns, particularly in forcing open the gates. Vegetius mentions it in his writings.

Martingal, (Martingale, Fr.) a thong of leather, which is fastened to one end of the girths under the belly of a horse, and at the other end to the murrroll, to keep him from rearing.

MartioBarbulus, a weapon used among the Romans. There was also
also a militia amongst them so called, consisting of twelve thousand men, who were singularly expert in throwing their arrows.

MASIKAWAR, Ind. monthly accounts.

A MASK, in field fortification, (une Masque, Fr.) It sometimes happens, that a ditch or fossé must be dug in an exposed situation; in this case it will be absolutely necessary for the artificers and workmen to get under cover, and to mask themselves in such a manner as to answer the double purpose of executing their immediate object, and of deceiving the enemy with respect to the real spot they occupy.

To effect the latter purpose, several masks must be hastily thrown up, whilst the men are employed behind one; by which means the enemy will either mistake the real point, or be induced to pour his fire in several directions, and thus weaken its effect.

A mask is generally six feet high. Bags made of wad or wool are too expensive on these occasions; nor are gabions, stuffed with fascines, seven or eight feet high to be preferred; for if the fascines be tied together they will leave spaces between them in the gabions; and if they are not bound together, they will be so open at top as to admit shot, &c.

In order to obviate these inconveniences, the following method has been proposed:—place two chandeliers, each seven feet high, and two feet broad, between the uprights, after which fill up the vacant spaces with fascines nine feet high, upon six inches diameter. One toise and a half of epaulement will require two chandeliers, and 60 fascines to mask it.

The engineer, or artillerist officer, places himself behind this mask, and draws his plan.

As you must necessarily have earth, &c. to complete your work, these articles may be brought in shovels, sacks, or baskets; and if the quarter from whence you draw them should be exposed to the enemy's fire, cover that line, as well as the line of communication, between the trenches, or the parallels, with a mask.

If you cannot procure earth and fascines, make use of sacks stuffed with wool, &c. and let their diameters be three feet, and their length likewise three, and let the outside be frequently wetted to prevent them from catching fire. See pages 828, 829, 830, Vol. ii. of the Aide-Mémoire à l'Usage des Officiers d'Artillerie, &c. &c.

To MASK, (Masquer, Fr.) to cover any particular post or situation, for the purposes of attack or defence. In ambuscade, a battery is said to be masked, when its outward appearance is such as not to create any suspicion or mistrust in a reconnoitring or approaching enemy. A town or fortress, a battery, or the head of a bridge, may likewise be said to be masked, when a superior force sits down before them, and keeps the garrison in awe. This is frequently done, in order to render the advantages of such a place or hold ineffectual, while an army acts in its neighbourhood, or marches by.

MASELEŠ, a militia belonging to Croatia, which is bound to march to the frontiers, whenever there appears the least symptom of hostile disposition on the part of the Turks. The private soldiers have lands allotted to them, which they cultivate for their own use, but they do not receive any pay from the public. The officers are paid.

MASQUER un passage, Fr. to block up any road or avenue through which an army might attempt to march.

MASSALGIES, Ind. persons employed in India as porters or messengers. Massalgies, Coolies, and Palankeen bearers, are allowed a certain batta when they travel.

MASSE, Fr. a species of stockpurse, which, during the French monarchy, was lodged in the hands of the regimental treasurer or paymaster, for every serjeant, corporal, unspeassade, drummer, and private soldier. The sum retained for each serjeant was vingt deniers per day, (each denier being worth 3-10ths of an English farthing,) and ten deniers for each of the other ranks, according to the establishment, not the effective number of each battalion. Out of these stoppages a settled and regular masse, or stock-purse, was made up, and at the end of every month it was paid into the hands of the major or officer entrusted with the interior management of the corps, and was then appropriated to defray the expense of clothing the different regiments, and lodged
lodged in the hands of the directors or inspector-general of clothing.

That part of the masse, or stock-purse, which remained in the major's hands, and which was destined for the dress of the recruits, as well as for repairs of the regimental clothing, &c. could never be disposed of, or appropriated, without the knowledge and concurrence of the colonels commandant of regiments, the lieutenant-colonels, and other superior officers of the corps.

To this end it was customary for the major to call the commanding officers and oldest captains of the regiments together, in order to lay before them the actual state of the corps, to select some officer who should superintend the repairing of whatever was found necessary, and defray the lodging-money, &c.—After this statement has been examined, the major must deliver in a faithful account of all the regimental debts that have been incurred; he must farther explain how the last amount of the masse, or stock-purse, has been laid out, and specify the actual sum in hand, that a proper arrangement may be made, and that the repairs in the clothing, and the expenses attending quarters, &c. may be duly ascertained.

The major was, on these occasions, directed to give his advice, with due respect and deference to his superior officers, and to suggest the best and cheapest method of fitting out and embellishing the regiment; carefully adhering to that system of economy which prevents it from running into debt. The statement of the several articles, with their appropriate expenditure, was specifically drawn out, and counter-signed by the colonel-commandant, and two or three of the oldest captains of companies. Their signatures served as vouchers for the major. By these means all internal cavils and disputes were obviated; the interior economy of the corps was well conducted, and a seasonable check was kept upon those officers who had the management of the regiment. Everything, besides, came in a regular form before the inspector-general, under whose eyes all the accounts were ultimately laid; whether they regarded the recruiting service, or the clothing and distribution of necessaries.

MASSE du Régiment Royal Artillerie, Fr. This corps, like other regiments in the old French service, had its masse, or stock-purse, formed by a certain stoppage or allowance for each serjeant, and for each master artificer in the corps of workmen; and for each corporal, anspessade, cannoner, bombardier, sapper, miner, under-master, artificer, apprentice, cadet, private artillery-man, and drummer. These sums formed an aggregate masse, or stock-purse, which was regularly submitted to the director general of the school of artillery, and was laid out for the clothing of the different battalions, &c.

MASSE des compagnies Franches d'infanterie, Fr. The masse belonging to these companies was formed in the same manner, and was under the control of the director or inspector-general.

MASSE de la cavalerie et des dragons, Fr. Every brigadier, horseman, carabineer, hussar, dragoon, trumpet, cymbal player, and drummer, belonging to the old French cavalry, was subject to a certain stoppage from the allowances that were made, over and above their regular subsistence, for the purpose of forming their masse, or stock-purse.—This money remained in the hands of the regimental treasurer, who accounted for its application at the end of every month, and delivered a statement into the hands of the officer who was entrusted with its distribution; the same having been vouched for by the colonels-general of cavalry and dragoons.

In addition to these extracts from a French work, it may not be thought superfluous to give the following more specific explanation of what was comprehended under the term of regimental masse, or stock-purse, that was made out of stoppages.

There were three sorts of masses, or regimental stock-purses in the old French service; two of which were sanctioned by authority, or the king's order. The third was confined to the interior management of each corps, but never appeared in any public regulation. On this account it obtained the appellation of Masse Noire, or dark and unknown.

The first masse directed by government to be attended to in every regiment, was called masse de linge et chaussure, or stock
stock of necessaries, such as linen, shoes, &c. This masse was made up by means of a certain proportion of the recruit’s bounty (amounting to 15 livres) which was kept in hand, and by the retention of a part of the daily pay of each soldier. The money, thus stopped, was destined to keep up the soldier’s regular stock of shoes and breeches, as the king only allowed him one pair of each of those articles every year. He was likewise enabled thereby to provide himself with stockings, shirts, cravats or stocks, handkerchiefs and gaiters; for every French soldier was obliged to produce at each monthly inspection of necessaries, one good pair of shoes, two shirts, two stocks or cravats, (one white and the other black,) two handkerchiefs, three pair of gaiters; one of which was to be white for parade duty, one of black worsted to mount ordinary guards, and one of black canvas for marching.

At the expiration of three months, a regular account was made out of what remained unappropriated of the 15 livres and of the masse in general, after the soldier had been supplied with the above specified articles. This statement was stuck up in every barrack-room, exhibiting the balance due to each man, who, on his side was obliged to have a written counterpart, or schedule, of all the different articles, and of the exact sum in hand. When the captain of the company inspected the necessaries, each soldier was directed to produce this schedule, and to repeat its contents by heart.

Whenever it so happened, that 15 livres could not be kept in hand out of the soldier’s bounty, he was permitted to work, as soon as he could, with propriety, be dismissed the drill; for which indulgence, and in order to keep his firelock and accoutrements in good condition, he was obliged to pay six livres.

The second masse was for purposes of cleanliness and military appearance.—This masse grew out of the surplus of two or three livres, which was stopped out of the pay of the men that were permitted to work; and from a further stoppage of two deniers out of the daily pay of each soldier. Out of this masse the soldier was obliged to supply himself with pipe-clay or whitting, clothes brushes, shoe brushes, blacking, bees wax, emery, and hair-powder and powder-hag, and to defray the expense of washing. He was likewise enabled thereby to pay a man for shaving. This man was attached to the company, and was called frater, or brother. The same practice prevails in most regiments belonging to the British service, with this difference, that there is not any direct authority to enforce the observance of it as a regulation.

In cavalry regiments, as in the infantry, the masses were formed by a stoppage of two or three livres out of the pay of those men that were allowed to work, and by the produce of the dung, which was averaged at two sols per day. There was likewise a further stoppage of two deniers out of the daily subsistence of each dragoon, by means of which he was regularly furnished with shovels, beesoms, and pitch-forks for the stables.

The third masse (which as we have already remarked, although distinguished by the appellation of masse noire, or dark and unknown, was still found indispensably necessary for the interior management of each regiment) grew out of the surplus money that was given for discharges, (it being only required of each regiment to account to government for 100 livres per man) out of deaths and other casualties, and out of the money which had accumulated from men struck off the sick list. The regiment, by means of this fund, (which may in some degree be considered in the same light that the stock-purse of a British regiment is,) made up the deficiency of the king’s bounty, which was seldom or ever found enough to answer the purposes of recruiting. The persons employed upon this service were accordingly paid out of the masse noire; which was further increased by certain contributions that the men, who were permitted to work, voluntarily gave, in addition to the six livres already mentioned.

Masse d’armes, Fr. a warlike weapon, which was formerly used. It consisted of a long pole with a large iron head.

Mascolot, Fr. a French term which is used in foundery, signifying that superfluous metal which remains after
after a cannon or mortar has been cast, and which is sawed or filed off, to give the piece its proper form.

MASSIF, Fr. a short stick or rod, used by artificers in making cartridges.

MASSOOLAS, Ind. the common boats, of a very slight construction, which are used on the Coromandel coast.

MASSUE, Fr. a club.

MASTER at arms, in the marine, an officer appointed to teach the officers and crew of a ship of war the exercise of small arms; to confine prisoners, and plant sentinels over them, and to superintend whatever relates to them during their confinement. He is also to observe, that the fire and lights are all extinguished, as soon as the evening gun is fired, except those that are permitted by proper authority, or are under the inspection of sentinels. It is likewise his duty to attend the gang-way, when any boats arrive aboard, and search them carefully, together with their rowers, that no spirituous liquors may be conveyed into the ship unless by permission of the commanding officer. In these several duties he is assisted by proper attendants, called his corporals, who also relieve the sentinels, and one another, at certain periods.

MASTER gunner, in a ship of war, an officer appointed to take charge of the artillery and ammunition aboard, and to teach the men the exercise of the great guns.

MASTER of the horse, a great officer of the crown, who orders all matters relating to the king's stables, races, breed of horses, &c. and commands the grooms and all the other officers and men in the king's stables. His coaches, horses, and attendants, are the king's, and bear the king's arms and livery.

MASTER general of the ordnance. See ORDNANCE.

Baggage-MASTER and Inspector of Roads, an appointment in the British service.

Barrack-MASTER-General, an officer with the rank of a major-general in the British army, who was vested with considerable powers during the late war. These powers were formerly exercised by the Board of Ordnance, but they were transferred to the Barrack-Master General by a warrant under the sign manual, and countersigned by the Secretary at War, on the 30th day of May, 1794. In 1795 the two warrants, whereby all matters relative to the government of barracks had been partially entrusted to the Board of Ordnance and a Barrack-Master-General, were revoked, and the following rules orders, powers, and directions were established in lieu thereof, in as much as regards the duties of the department intrusted to the Barrack-Master-General to the British forces.

It is the duty of the Barrack-Master-General to erect and keep in repair all barracks that are not in fortified places; and all supplies of barrack furniture, utensils and other stores for the troops, are to be furnished by him. The accommodation for royal artillery in barracks is under the direction of the Barrack-Master-General, excepting at Woolwich, or wherever there may be a separate barrack for the artillery, or a fixed station for that corps.

The commanding officers in barracks are, in all matters relative to the accommodation, disposition, and supply of the troops stationed therein, to be under the direction of the Barrack-Master-General; and all applications and requisitions are to be made to him.

Whenever any damage, except from fair wear and tear, has been done to barrack-buildings, or any of the furniture or utensils have been injured, destroyed, or embezzled, a just estimate must be formed by the Barrack-master; and if his demand be not immediately paid by the commanding officer, it shall be verified by affidavit of the Barrack-master, submitted to the commanding officer, and if the answer be not satisfactory, the Barrack-Master-General is to certify the amount of the expense of making good the said injury to the Secretary at War, in order that he may direct the same to be charged against the regiment or detachment concerned.

In order to prevent the inconveniences and injury which might arise from officers making alterations in the barrack-rooms, &c. the Barrack-Master-General is directed to have the use, for which each room is intended, lettered on the door; and if any officer shall attempt to make any alteration in any room, or convert it to any purpose, other than is
so specified, or remove any of the furniture belonging thereto, the Barrack-master (who shall always be permitted to visit the rooms at seasonable hours, whenever he desires so to do,) shall represent the same to the commanding officer, and in case immediate attention is not paid thereto, the Barrack-master is strictly commanded immediately to report it to the Barrack-Master-General. And when any room shall not be occupied, the same shall be locked up, and no part of the furniture be removed therefrom.

No officer or Barrack-master, is, upon any account, to make any alteration or repairs at any barrack, or cause any expense to be incurred in providing any article relative thereto, without the direction of the Barrack-Master-General having been first obtained for that purpose.

On the 25th of March, 24th of June, 23d of September, and 24th of December, in every year, regular returns are to be transmitted by the Barrack-masters to the Barrack-Master-General, of the state of the barracks, and of the furniture and utensils, both in use and store, specifying the actual condition of each, and the manner in which the apartments of the barrack, or barracks, under their care, have been occupied for the three months preceding; which return shall be countersigned by the commanding officers, who are directed personally and diligently to inspect the same.

The Barrack-Master-General is to take care, that a proper quantity of good and sufficient firing, candles, and other stores, be provided for each barrack, every year; and the same is to be duly delivered out to the troops by the respective barrack-masters, at such times, and in such proportions, as are specified in the general regulations. The deliveries are to be vouched, not only by certificates of the actual amount, but also by accurate returns, stating the numbers in every troop, company, or detachment, present at each weekly delivery. The said certificates and returns are to be given under the hand of the commanding officer in the barracks, and to be transmitted with the accounts; and a return thereof is without delay to be transmitted by the several barrack-mas-
ners, who from thenceforth are to remain accountable for the same to the Barrack-Master-General.

Half-yearly accounts of expenditures, with general returns of the receipts and issues, and the necessary vouchers for the same, are to be made up to the 24th of June, and 24th of December, in each year, and to be transmitted, within fourteen days after the said periods, to the Barrack-Master-General, who is to examine and settle the same without delay.

The issue of forage to the cavalry, is to be made according to a prescribed regulation. The officer commanding in each of the cavalry barracks where forage shall be issued, is to transmit to the Barrack-Master-General a weekly return of the number of horses for which it has been delivered; and also the name and rank of each officer, with the number of horses for which he has received rations of forage. And at such periods as shall be required by the Barrack-Master-General, the said commanding officer shall transmit to him, a general statement of the quantity of forage received and actually issued to the troops; the said certificate to be according to such form as shall be prescribed by the Barrack-Master-General.

Every instance of neglect or misconduct which may occur in the management of barracks, must be reported to the Barrack-Master-General by the several officers commanding in barracks; and on the representation being judged sufficiently weighty, an inspector is to be sent down for the specific purpose of seeing every matter of complaint removed.

The Barrack-Master-General is authorised to take cognizance of all matters relative to accommodation, disposition, and supply, of the troops stationed in barracks, reporting thereupon, whenever it may be requisite, to the Secretary at War, for the King's information. And all officers, and barrack-masters, are directed and enjoined to obey such orders and directions as the Barrack-Master-General shall find necessary to be given thereon.

The Barrack-Master-General is from time to time to receive impresses of money, for the current services of each year, upon estimates signed by him, and deli-
delivered into the office of the Secretary at War. And at the end of each year, he shall make up and deliver into the said office, a general account of barrack expenditures for the preceding twelve months. The half-yearly accounts of the several barrack-masters, and the accounts of other persons to whom monies shall have been paid within the period on behalf of the barrack department (for the propriety, justness, and accuracy of which, as also for their strict conformity to the regulations, he shall be held responsible,) together with their acquittances, shall be the vouchers upon which the said general accounts shall be passed, and warrants shall be made out according to the royal sign manual.

Quarter-Master of the Victuals. The person who had the chief care and management of the provisions belonging to an army, was formerly so called. See Purveyor.

Scout-Master-General. A person formerly so called, under whose direction all the scouts and army messengers were placed. The appointment does not exist at present.

MASULIT, a boat used in the East Indies, which is caulked with moss.

MATADORS, Fr. a banditti, who formed themselves into armed bodies about the year 1714, in Catalonia. Their object was to destroy every fellow citizen that would not acknowledge the title of the Archduke of Austria to the crown of Spain.

MATCH, in artillery, a kind of rope slightly twisted, and prepared to retain fire for the uses of the artillery, mines, fire-works, &c. Slow match is made of hemp or tow, spun on the wheel like cord, but very slack; and is composed of three twists, which are afterwards again covered with tow, so that the twists do not appear; lastly, it is boiled in the lees of old wine. This, when once lighted at the end, burns on gradually, without ever going out, till the whole be consumed. It is mounted on a lint-stock.

Quick Match, used in artillery, is made of three cotton strands drawn into lengths, and put into a kettle just covered with white wine vinegar, and then a quantity of saltpetre and mealed powder is put in it, and boiled till well mixed. Others put only saltpetre into water, and after that take it out hot, and lay it into a trough with some mealed powder, moistened with spirits of wine, thoroughly wrought into the cotton by rolling it backwards and forwards with the hands; and when this is done, they are taken out separately, drawn through mealed powder, and dried upon a line. See Laboratory.

MATHEMATICS, originally signified any kind of discipline or learning; but, at present, the term denotes that science, which teaches, or contemplates, whatever is capable of being numbered or measured; and accordingly is subdivided into arithmetic, which has numbers for its object; and geometry, which treats of magnitude. Mathematics are commonly distinguished into pure and speculative, which consider quantity abstractedly; and mixed, which treat of magnitude as subsisting in material bodies, and consequently are interwoven every where with physical considerations. Mixed Mathematics are very comprehensive, since to them may be referred astronomy, optics, geography, hydrography, hydrostatics, mechanics, fortification, gunnery, projectiles, mining, engineering, and navigation.

Pure mathematics have one peculiar advantage, that they occasion no difference of opinion among wrangling disputants, as in other branches of knowledge; and the reason is, because the definitions of the terms are premised, and every one that reads a proposition has the same idea of every part of it. Hence it is easy to put an end to all mathematical controversies, by shewing, that our adversary has not stuck to his definitions, or has not laid down true premises, or else that he has drawn false conclusions from true principles; and, in case we are able to do neither of these, we must acknowledge the truth of what he has proved.

It is true, that in mixed mathematics, where we reason mathematically upon physical subjects, we cannot give such just definitions as the geometers: we must therefore rest content with descriptions; and they will be of the same use as definitions, provided we are consistent with ourselves, and always mean the same thing by those terms we have once explained.
Dr. Barrow gives a most elegant description of the excellence and usefulness of mathematical knowledge, in his inaugural oration, upon being appointed professor of mathematics at Cambridge.

The mathematics, he observes, effectually exercise, not vainly delude, nor vexatiously torment studious minds with obscure subtleties; but plainly demonstrate every thing within their reach, draw certain conclusions, instruct by profitable rules, and unfold pleasant questions. These disciplines likewise enure and corroborate the mind to constant diligence in a study; they wholly deliver us from a credulous simplicity, most strongly fortify us against the vanity of scepticism, effectually restrain us from a rash presumption, most easily incline us to a due assent, and perfectly subject us to the government of right reason. While the mind is abstracted and elevated from sensible matter, it distinctly views pure forms, conceives the beauty of ideas, and investigates the harmony of proportions; the manners themselves are sensibly corrected and improved, the affections composed and rectified, the fancy calmed and settled, and the understanding raised and excited to nobler contemplations.

MATRAS, Fr. a sort of dart which was ancienly used, and which was not sufficiently pointed to occasion any thing more than a bruise.

MATRON, a woman, (generally the wife of some well behaved and good soldier,) who is employed to assist in the regimental hospital. She is under the direction of the surgeon, by whom she is originally appointed to the situation.—See Nurse.

MATROSSES are properly assistants, being soldiers in the royal regiment of artillery, and next to the gunner, they assist in loading, firing, and spurring the great guns. They carry firelocks, and march along with the guns and store wagons, both as a guard, and to give their assistance on every emergency.

MATTER of Deed, in law, denotes something to be proved by witnesses, in contradistinction from Matter of Record, which may be proved from some process, &c. appearing in any court of record.

MATTER, in a military sense, especially with regard to courts-martial, consists of the specific charges which are brought against a prisoner, and to which the president and members must strictly confine themselves. It has been very properly observed, in a small pamphlet upon martial law, that unacquainted with the serious consequences of a strict attention to the minutiae of form in criminal proceedings, general courts-martial have looked upon the first swearing in of the court, as a sufficient authority to warrant their proceeding on the trial of a variety of offences; whereas, in propriety, the court should be sworn afresh at the commencement of every new prosecution: for though, as judges, in the manner of a court of common law; once swearing would be sufficient; yet, as jurors, who are sworn on every different trial, though identically the same men, so are the members of general courts-martial to be considered, when a new criminal and fresh Matter are brought before them. Lest, however, an established, and therefore an undisputed practice, should have acquired a force still difficult to be eradicated, we shall endeavour to point out those reasons which induce us to maintain this opinion. In the oath which is taken by each of the several members of a general court martial, the words matter (see Sect. 16th, Art. 6th, Articles of War) and prisoner, are cautiously inserted. These words, therefore, being absolutely confined to a single matter, and a single prisoner, and matters and prisoners not being subjected to their jurisdiction, how is it possible that men, with propriety, can proceed upon a trial which they are not warranted by law to decide upon? Were the obligation in the Articles of War decisive as to the trial of all matters, and all persons, and in all cases; or were the court possessed of the authority of extending the meaning of the oath, once swearing would undoubtedly be sufficient; but, as in every respect, the contrary is evident, as the very words of the oath express (words which cannot be altered but by the legislature) that "they shall well and truly try and determine according to their evidence in the matter before them, between their sovereign lord the king's majesty, and the prisoner to be tried,"
"tried," how can it be otherwise than an unwarrantable irregularity in them, to proceed upon the trial of offenders, who, in the eye of the law, are not amenable to their authority? For, if the first prisoner to be tried has a right to challenge an officer, who may be appointed to sit on an investigation of his offence, as a member of a court of enquiry, or who may be liable to any exceptions, why shall not the second and third prisoner be entitled to the same merciful indulgence? See Thoughts on Martial Law, pages 25, 26, 27, 28.

Combustible Matter, and Matter of Composition. All solids and fluids are so called which are of an inflammable nature themselves, and can communicate fire to other substances.

MATTUCASILLASH, an ancient Scotch weapon, sometimes called arm-pit dagger, which was worn there ready to be used on coming to close quarters. This, with a broad sword and shield, completely armed the Highlanders.—Since the use of fire-arms, this weapon has been laid aside.

MATTOCK, an instrument somewhat resembling a pick-axe, but having two broad sharp edges instead of points.

MATTRESS, a sort of quilted bed of straw, used by officers on service, instead of the feather bed, differing from the paillasse in one particular only; the straw in the latter being loose, whereas that of the mattress is quilted in.

MAUG, Ind. The name of a month which partly agrees with our January and February.

MAUL, a heavy beater or hammer, generally shod with iron, used in driving piles, &c.

MAURI, the ancient inhabitants of Mauritania. They were famous for their skill in throwing lances, and constituted a part of the Roman cavalry.

MAWANY, Ind. See KITSBUNDY.

MAXIMS in fortification. See Fortification.

MEALED, pulverized, or reduced to powder.

MEAN Fortification. See Fortification.

MEANA, Ind. A machine or vehicle, resembling a palankeen, but only used for carrying one person. It is borne by four men, and supported by means of a bamboo extended from the ends; being generally seven feet long, and three wide, with Venetian blinds, which slide and act as doors. Persons in India sometimes travel to a considerable distance in these vehicles; the number of bearers being increased, and successively relieved. It is computed that they will easily go at the rate of four miles in the hour.

MEASURE, in geometry, any quantity assumed as one, to which the ratio of other homogeneous or similar quantities is expressed.

Measure of an angle, the length of an arch described from the vertex of any place between its legs; hence angles are distinguished by the ratio of the arches between the legs to the peripheries. See Angle.

Measure of a figure, is a square, whose side is an inch, foot, yard, or other determinate measure. Hence square measures.

Among geometerians it is usually a square rod, called decempeda, divided into 10 square feet, and those into square digits, and those again into 10 lines, &c.

Measure of a line, any right line taken at pleasure and considered as unity.

Measure of the mass or quantity of matter, in mechanics, is its weight: it being apparent that all the matter which coheres with a body, gravitates with it; and it being found by experiment, that the gravities of homogeneal bodies are in proportion to their bulks: hence while the mass continues the same, the absolute weight will be the same, whatever figure it puts on; for, as to its specific weight, it varies as the quantity of its surface does.

Measure of a number, in arithmetic, such a number as divides another without leaving a fraction: thus 9 is a measure of 27.

Measure of a solid, is a cube, whose side is an inch, foot, yard, or other determinate length; in geometry, it is a cubic perch, divided into cubic feet, digits, &c. Hence cubic measure, or measures of capacity.

Measure of velocity, in projectiles, and mechanics, the space passed over by a moving body in any given time.—The space therefore must be divided into as many equal parts, as the time is conceived
conceived to be divided into: the quantity of space answering to such portion of time, is the measure of the velocity.

Measures then are various, according to the different kinds and dimensions of things measured. Hence arise linear and longitudinal measures for lines or lengths; for square areas; and solid or cubic, for bodies and their capacities: all which again are very different in different countries and ages, and even many of them for different commodities. Hence also arise other divisions, of domestic and foreign, ancient and modern, dry and wet (or liquid) measures, &c.

Long Measure. The English standard long measure, or that whereby the quantities of things are ordinarily estimated, is the yard, containing three English feet, equal to three Paris feet one inch and 3-12ths of an inch, or 7-9ths of a Paris ell. Its subdivisions are the foot, span, palm, inch, and barley corn: its multipliers are the pace, fathom, pole, furlong, and mile.

The English foot, to the French royal, is as 107 to 114: and the French toise is equal to 6 feet English, nearly.

Proportions of the long measures of several nations to the English foot.
The English standard foot being divided into 1000 equal parts, the other measures will have the proportions to it, which follow:
The English foot from the standard at Guildhall - 1000
Paris royal foot, in the Chatelet 1068
Rhinland foot of Snellius - 1033
Greek foot - 1007½
Roman foot on the monument of Cossutius - 967
Roman foot of Villalpandus, taken from the congius of Vespasian - 986
Venetian foot - 1162
Ell of Amsterdam - 2268
Amsterdam foot - 942
Ell of Antwerp - 2283
Foot of Antwerp - 946
Ell of Leyden, in Holland - 2260
Canna of Naples - 6880
Vara of Almeria, and Gibraltar, in Spain - 2760
Spanish foot - 1001
Toledo foot - 899

Bracio of Florence - 1913
Palm of Genoa - 815
Common bracio of Sienna - 1242
Bracio of Sienna for linen - 1974
Palm of the architects at Rome, whereof 10 make the canna of the same architects - 732
Palm of the bracio for the merchants and weavers at Rome, from a marble in the Capitol, with this inscription, CURANT E LV POETO - 993½
Large Pique of the Turks at Constantinople - 2200
Small Pique of the Turks at Constantinople, is to the larger as 31 to 32.
Arish of Persia - 3197
Derah or cubit of the Egyptians 1824
Dort foot, in Holland - 1184
Middleburg foot - 991
Strasbourg foot - 920
Bremen foot - 964
Foot of Cologne - 934
Foot of Frankfort on the Main 948
Dantzick foot - 944
Foot of Copenhagen - 965
Foot of Prague - 1526
Riga foot - 1831

Foot of Mantua - 1585
Bononia - 1204
Foot of Mechlin - 919
Stockholm - 963½
Lisbon - 1005

French standard measure is the aune or ellig, containing three Paris feet, seven inches, eight lines, or one yard 2-7ths English: the Paris foot royal exceeding the English by 68-1000 parts: this ellig is divided two ways; namely, into halves, thirds, sixths, and twelfths; and into quarters, half quarters, and sixteenths. This ellig obtains in the greatest part of France, excepting at Troyes, Arèse, and some parts of Picardy and Burgundy, where the ell is no more than two feet, five inches, one line; and at St. Genouix, where it exceeds the Paris ellig by eight lines: but at Marseille, Montpellier, Toulouse in Provence and Guienne, it contains five Paris feet, five inches, and six lines, or a Paris ellig and an half: at Montpellier and the lower Languedoc, in Provence, Avignon, and even Dauphiné, it is a Paris ellig and two thirds.

Standard Measure, in Holland, Flanders, Sweden, a good part of Germany,
many, many of the Hans-Towns, Dantz-ig, and Hambour, and at Geneva, Frankfort, &c. is likewise the ell, being different in all these parts: in Holland it contains one Paris foot, eleven lines, and 4-7ths of the Paris ell: the Flanders ell contains 7-12ths of the Paris ell: the ell of Germany and Brabant, &c. is equal to that of Flanders.

**Italian Measure**, is the braccio, or fathom; which obtains in the states of Modena, Venice, Florence, Lucca, Milan, Mantua, Bologna, &c. At Venice it contains one Paris foot, eleven inches, three lines, or 8-15ths of the Paris ell: at Bologna, Modena, and Mantua, the same as at Venice: at Lucca it contains half a Paris ell: at Florence, 40-100 of a Paris ell: at Milan the brace for silks is 4-9ths of a Paris ell; and that for woollen cloths, the same as in Holland; at Bergama the brace is 5-9ths of a Paris ell. The usual measure at Naples is the canna, containing one Paris ell 15-17ths.

**Spanish Measure**, is the vara, containing 17-24 of the Paris ell: but in Castile and Valencia, the measure is the pau, span, or palm; which is used, with the canna, at Genoa. In Arragon, the vara is equal to a Paris ell and a half.

**Portuguese Measure**, is the covedo, containing 4-7ths of the Paris ell; and the vara, of which 106 make 100 Paris ells.

**Piedmontese Measure**, is the covedo, containing 4-7ths of the Paris ell. In Sicily the measure is the canna, the same with that of Naples.

**Muscovite Measures**, are the cubit, equal to one Paris foot, four inches, two lines; and the arcin, two whereof are equal to three cubits.

**Turkish and Levant Measures**, are the pique, containing 3-5ths of the Paris ell. The Chinese measure is the cobre, ten of which are equal to three Paris ells. In Persia, and some parts of the Indies, the guzie, of which there are two kinds; the royal guzie, or guzie monkelser, containing 4-5ths of the Paris ell; and the shorter guzie, only 2-3ths of the former. At Goa and Ormns, the measure is the Portugueze vara. In Pegu, and other parts of the Indies, the cando, equal to the Venice ell. At Goa, and other parts, they use a larger cando, equal to 17 Dutch ells. In Siam they use the ken, short of three Paris feet by an inch; the ken contains two socks, the sock two keubs, the keub twelve nions or inches; the nion is equal to eight grains of rice, that is, about nine lines. At Camball, the haster; in Japan the tatan; and the span on some of the coasts of Guinea.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inch</th>
<th></th>
<th>English Long Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>palm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>span</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1½ foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2 1½ cubit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4 2 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>5 3 2 1½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6 2 5 3 2 1½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>8 6 4 2 1½ 1 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>198</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>22 16 ½ 11 5 ½</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7920</td>
<td>2640</td>
<td>880 660 440 220 176 132 110 40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63360</td>
<td>21120</td>
<td>7040 5280 3520 1760 1408 1056 880 320 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Jewish Long or Itinerary Measures.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cubic</th>
<th>Eng. miles</th>
<th>paces</th>
<th>feet dec.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>400 stadium</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Sab. day’s journey</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4000</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2 eastern mile</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12000</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6 3 parasang</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>96000</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>48 24 a day’s journey</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Roman Long Measure, deduced to English.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Eng. paces</th>
<th>ft.</th>
<th>dec.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1½</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.725</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 12 4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.604</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 15 5 1½</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.505</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 18 6 1½ 1½</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.406</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 30 10 2½ 2 1½</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80 60 20 5 4 3½ 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10.02</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10000</td>
<td>7500</td>
<td>2500 625 500 416 250</td>
<td>333</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### English square Measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>inches</th>
<th>feet</th>
<th>yards</th>
<th>paces</th>
<th>poles</th>
<th>roods</th>
<th>acres</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>144</td>
<td>1296</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.89</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3600</td>
<td>39204</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30½</td>
<td>435,6</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
French square Measures, are regulated by 12 square lines in the inch square, 12 inches in the foot, 22 feet in the perch, and 100 perches in the arpent or acre.

French liquid Measures. At Paris, and in a great part of the kingdom, the smallest measure is the possu, which contains six cubic inches: 2 possus make the demiseptier; 2 demiseptiers the chopine; 2 chopines a pint; 2 pints a quart or pot; four quarts the gallon, or septier of estimation; 36 septiers the muid; which is subdivided into 2 demi-muids, 4 quarter muids, and 8 half quarter muids. The queue in Orleans, Blois, &c. contains a Paris muid and a half. The tun used at Bayonne and

Bourdeaux, consists of 4 bariques, and is equal to 3 Paris muids; at Orleans to 2: so that the first tun contains 864 pints, and the second 576. The demi-queue in Champagne, 96 quarts; the pipe in Anjou and Poictou, 2 bussards, equal to 2 demi-queues of Orleans, &c. or a muid and a half of Paris. The millerolle used in Provence, contains 66 Paris pints; and the poincon at Nantz, in Touraine, and the Blessois, equal to half the Orleans tun. The poincoul at Paris is the same with the demi-queue.

The French have lately formed an entire new system of weights and measures, as in the following table, from Nicholson's Philosophy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proportions of the measures of each species to its principal measure of unity.</th>
<th>First part of the name which indicates the proportion to the principal measure of unity.</th>
<th>Length.</th>
<th>Capacity.</th>
<th>Weight.</th>
<th>Agrarian.</th>
<th>For Firewood.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>Myria</td>
<td>10,000th part of the dist. from the Pole to the Equator</td>
<td>A Decimetre cube</td>
<td>Weight of a centimetre cube of distilled water.</td>
<td>100 square metres.</td>
<td>One cubic metre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000</td>
<td>Kilo</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>Hecto</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Deca</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>Deci</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>Centi</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>Milli</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Proportion of the principal measures between themselves, and the length of the Meridian

Value of the principal measures in the ancient French measures

Value in English measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL MEASURES OR UNITIES.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>61.083 inch, which is more than the wine and less than the beer quart.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cubic Measures, or measures of capacity for liquors. English liquid measures were originally raised from troy weight, it being ordained that eight pounds troy of wheat, gathered from the middle of the ear, and well dried, should weigh a gallon of wine measure; yet a new weight, viz. the avoirdupoise weight, has been introduced, to which a second standard gallon is adjusted, exceeding the former in the proportion of the avoirdupoise weight to the Troy weight. From this latter standard are raised two measures, the one for ale, the other for beer.

The sealed gallon at Guildhall, which is the standard for wine, spirits, oil, &c. is supposed to contain 231 cubic inches; yet, by actual experiment made in 1863, before the lord mayor and commissioners of excise, it only contains 234 cubic inches. It was however agreed to continue the common supposed contents of 231: hence, as 12 : 231 :: 14 12/10 : 281 4/5 the cubic inches in an ale gallon; but, in effect, the ale quart contains 70¼ cubic inches; on which principles the ale and beer gallon will be 282 cubic inches.

Dry Measure is different from both the ale and wine measure, being nearly a mean between both.

According to an act of parliament passed in 1697, every round bushel with a plain and even bottom, being 18⅛ inches throughout, and eight inches deep, is to be accounted a legal Winchester bushel, according to the standard in his majesty's exchequer; consequently a corn gallon will contain 288.8 inches, as in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inches</th>
<th>Gallons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2688</td>
<td>5376</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21504</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>172032</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Quarters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Winchester Measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2 Pints</th>
<th>make 1 Quart</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 Quarts</td>
<td>1 Gallon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Firkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Firkins, or 18 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Kilderkin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Kilderkins, or 36 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Barrel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Barrel and half or 54 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Hogshead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Hogsheads or 3 Barrels, or 108 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Butt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Butts, or 216 Gallons</td>
<td>1 Tun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cloth Measure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2 Inches and a Quarter</th>
<th>make 1 Nail</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4 Nails</td>
<td>¼ of a Yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Quarters</td>
<td>1 Yard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>¼ of a Yard</td>
<td>1 Ell Flemish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Quarters, or 1 yard 1 quarter</td>
<td>1 Ell English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Quarters</td>
<td>1 French Ell</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Measure of wood for firing, is the cord, being four feet high, as many broad, and eight long; it is divided into two half cords.

Measure for horses, is the hand, which by statute contains four inches.

Powder Measures, made of copper, holding from an ounce to 12 pounds, are very convenient in a siege, when guns or mortars are to be loaded with loose powder, especially in ricochet firing, &c.

The French recommend measures that are made of block tin, such as are used for measuring out salt, viz. 1 ounce, 2, 3, 4, 8, which makes the half pound; and lastly, of 16, which make the pound. These quantities answer every sort of ordnance.

Diameters and Heights of Cylindric Powder Measures, holding from 1 to 15 Ounces.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ounces</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.256</td>
<td>1.383</td>
<td>1.811</td>
<td>1.994</td>
<td>2.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.706</td>
<td>2.793</td>
<td>2.876</td>
<td>2.953</td>
<td>3.027</td>
<td>3.098</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
MEASURE-angle, a brass instrument to measure angles, either salient or reentrant, in order to ascertain, with precision, the number of degrees and minutes, for the purpose of delineating them on paper.

MEASURING, in military mensuration, the assumption of a certain quantity and expressing the proportion of other similar quantities to the same; or the determining, by a certain known measure, the precise extent, quantity, or capacity of any thing.

MEASURING, in general, constitutes the practical part of geometry; and from the various subjects which it embraces, it acquires various names, and constitutes various arts, viz.

LONGITUDINARY, ALTITUDE, LEVELING, GEODESIA, OR SURVEYING, STEREOMETRY, SUPERFICIES, AND SOLIDS, &c. which see.

MEASURING. See CHAIN.

MECHANICS, a mixed mathematical science, which considers motion and moving powers, their nature and laws, with the effects thereof, in machines, &c. The word is derived from the Greek. That part which considers motion arising from gravity, is sometimes called statics, in contradistinction from that part which considers the mechanical powers, and their application, properly called mechanics: it is, in fine, the geometry of motion.

MECHANICAL, something relating to mechanics.

MECHANICAL philosophy, that which explains the phenomena of nature, and the operations of corporeal things, on the principles of mechanics; namely, the motion, gravity, figure, arrangement, &c. of the parts which compose natural bodies.

MECHANICAL powers. When two heavy bodies or weights are made by any contrivance to act in opposition, so as mutually to prevent each other from being put into motion by gravity, they are said to be in equilibrio. The same expression is used with respect to other forces, which mutually prevent each other from producing motion.

Any force may be compared with gravity, considered as a standard. Weight is the action of gravity on a given mass. Whatever therefore is proved concerning the weights of bodies will be true in like circumstances of other forces.

Weights are supposed to act in lines of direction parallel to each other. In fact, these lines are directed to the center of the earth, but the angle formed between any two of them within the space occupied by a mechanical engine is so small, that the largest and most accurate astronomical instruments are scarcely capable of exhibiting it.

The simplest of those instruments, by means of which weights or forces are made to act in opposition to each other, are usually termed mechanical powers. Their names are, the Lever, the Axle, or Artist, and Wheel, the Pulley or Tackle, the inclined Plane, the Wedge, and the Screw.

Of the Lever.

The lever is defined to be a moveable and inflexible line, acted upon by three forces, the middle one of which is contrary in direction to the other two.

One of these forces is usually produced by the re-action of a fixed body, called the fulcrum.

If two contrary forces be applied to a lever at unequal distances from the fulcrum, they will equiponderate when the forces are to each other in the reciprocal proportion of their distances. For, by the resolution of force it appears, that if two contrary forces be applied to a straight lever, at distances from the fulcrum in the reciprocal proportion of their quantities, and in directions always parallel to each other, the lever will remain at rest in any position.

Since of the three forces which act on the lever, the two which are applied at the extremes, are always in a contrary direction
direction to that which is applied in the space between them; this last force will sustain the effects of the other two; or, in other words, if the fulcrum be placed between the weights, it will be acted upon by, or will sustain their sum; but if the weights are on the same side of the fulcrum, it will be acted upon by their difference.

On the principle of the lever are made scales for weighing different quantities of various kinds of things; the steelyard which answers the same purpose by a single weight, removed to different distances from the fulcrum on a graduated arm, according as the body to be weighed is more or less in quantity; and the bent lever balance, which, by the revolution of a fixed weight, increasing in power as it ascends in the arc of a circle, indicates the weight of the counterpoise.

On this principle also depend the motions of animals; the overcoming or lifting great weights by means of iron levers, called crowns; the action of nutcrackers, pincers, and many other instruments of the same nature.

Of the Axis or Axle, and Wheel, and of the Pulley, or Tackle.

The axis and wheel may be considered as a lever, one of the forces being applied at the circumference of the axis, and the other at the circumference of the wheel, the central line of the axis being as it were the fulcrum.

For, if the semi-diameter of the axis, be to the semi-diameter of the wheel, reciprocally as the power A is to the power B, the first of which is applied in the direction of the tangent of the axis, and the other in the direction of the tangent of the wheel, they will be in equilibrium.

To this power may be referred the capstan, or crane, by which weights are raised; the winch and barrel, for drawing water, and numberless other machines on the same principle.

The Pulley, is likewise explained on same principle of the lever. Suppose the line A. C. to be a lever, whose arms A. B. and B. C. are equidistant from the fulcrum B. consequently the two equal powers E. and F. applied in the directions of the tangents to the circle in which the extremities are moveable, will be in equilibrium, and the fulcrum B. will sustain both forces.

But, suppose the fulcrum is at C. then a given force at E. will sustain in equilibrium a double force at F. for in that proportion reciprocally are their distances from the fulcrum. Whence it appears, that considering E. as a force, and F. as a weight to be raised, no increase of power is gained when the pulley is fixed, but that a double increase of power is gained when the pulley moves with the weight.

A combination of pulleys is called a tackle, and a box containing one or more pulleys, is called a block.

This is a tackle composed of four pulleys, two of which are in the fixed block A. and the other two in the block B. that moves with the weight F. Now, because the rope is equally stretched throughout, each lower pulley will be acted upon by an equal part of the weight; and because in each pulley that moves with the weight a double increase of power is gained; the force by which F. may be sustained will be equal to half the weight divided by the number of lower pulleys: that is, as twice the number of lower pulleys is to one, so is the weight suspended to the suspending force.

But if the extremity of the rope C. be affixed to the lower block, it will sustain half as much as a pulley; consequently the analogy will then be, as twice the number of lower pulleys, more 1 is to 1, so is the weight suspended to the suspending force.

The pulley or tackle is of such general utility, that it would seem unnecessary to point out any particular instance.

Of the inclined Plane, and of the Wedge.

The inclined plane has in its effects a near analogy to the lever; and the forces by which the same weight tends downwards in the directions of various planes, will be as the sines of their inclinations.

The wedge is composed of two inclined planes joined together at their common bases, in the direction of which the power is impressed.

This instrument is generally used in splitting wood, and was formerly applied in engines for stamping watch plates. The force impressed is commonly a blow, which is found to be much more effectual than a weight or pressure. This may be accounted for on the principles which obtain when resisting...
ing bodies are penetrated, as if the mass and velocity vary, the depths to which the impinging body penetrates will be in the compound ratio of the masses and the squares of the velocities.

All cutting instruments may be referred to the wedge. A chisel, or an axe, is a simple wedge; a saw is a number of chisels fixed in a line; a knife may be considered as a simple wedge, when employed in splitting; but if attention be paid to the edge, it is found to be a fine saw, as is evident from the much greater effect all knives produce by a drawing stroke, than what would have followed from a direct action of the edge.

Of the Screw, and of mechanical Engines in general.

The screw is composed of two parts, one of which is called the screw, and consists of a spiral protuberance, called the thread, which is wound round a cylinder; and the other called the nut, is perforated to the dimensions of the cylinder, and in the internal cavity is cut a spiral groove, adapted to receive the thread.

It would be difficult to enumerate the very many uses to which the screw is applied. It is extremely serviceable in compressing bodies together, as paper, linen, &c. It is the principal organ in all stamping instruments for striking coins, or making impressions on paper, linen or cards, and is of vast utility to the philosopher, by affording an easy method of measuring or subdividing small spaces. A very ordinary screw will divide an inch into 5000 parts; but the fine hardened steel screws, that are applied to astronomical instruments, will go much further.

It is easy to conceive, that when forces applied to mechanical instruments are in equilibrium, if the least addition be made to one of them, it will preponderate and overcome the effort of the other. But the want of a perfect polish or smoothness in the parts of all instruments, and the rigidity of all ropes, which increases with the tension, are great impediments to motion, and in compounded engines are found to diminish about one-fourth of the effect of the power.

The properties of all the mechanical powers depending on the laws of motion, and the action or tendency to produce motion of each of the two forces, being applied in directions contrary to each other, the following general rule for finding the proportion of the forces in equilibrium on any machine will require no proof.

If two opposite forces be applied to the extremes of any mechanical engine, in the direction of the lines, in which, by the construction of the engine, the said extremes would move; and the intensities of the forces be to each other reciprocally as the velocities the extremes when put in motion would acquire in the same indefinitely small time, then those forces will be in equilibrium.

Suppose the forces to be weights, and the same may be expressed thus:

If two weights applied to the extremes of any mechanical engine, be to each other in the reciprocal proportion of the velocities resolved into a perpendicular direction, (rejecting the other part) which would be acquired by each when put in motion for the same indefinitely small time, they will be in equilibrio.

Whence it may be observed, that in all contrivances by which power is gained, a proportional loss is suffered in respect of time. If one man by means of a tackle, can raise as much weight, as ten men could by their unassisted strength, he will be ten times as long about it.

It is convenience alone, and not any actual increase of force, which we obtain from mechanics. As may be illustrated by the following example:

Suppose a man at the top of a house draws up ten weights, one at a time, by a single rope in ten minutes: let him then have a tackle of five lower pulleys, and he will draw up the whole ten at once with the same ease as he before raised up one; but in ten times the time, that is, in ten minutes. Thus we see the same work is performed in the same time, whether the tackle be used or not; but the convenience is, that if the whole ten weights be joined into one, they may be raised with the tackle, though it would be impossible to move them by the unassisted strength of one man; or suppose, instead of ten weights, a man draws ten buckets of water from the hold of a ship in ten minutes, and that the ship being leaky, admits an equal qua-
quantity in the same time. It is proposed that by means of a tackle, he shall raise a bucket ten times as capacious. With this assistance he performs it, but in as long a time as he required to draw the ten, and therefore is as far from gaining on the water in this latter case as in the former.

Since then no real gain of force is acquired from mechanical contrivances, there is the greatest reason to conclude, that a perpetual motion is not to be obtained. For in all instruments the friction of their parts, together with other resistances, destroys a part of the moving force, and at last puts an end to the motion.

MECHANICAL, in mathematics, denotes a construction of some problem, by the assistance of instruments, as the duplilcation of the cube, and quadrature of the circle, in contradistinction to that which is done in an accurate and geometrical manner.

MÉCHANIQUE, Fr. a science whose immediate object is the increase or accumulation of force and motion; by means of machines and instruments.—See Mechanics.

MÉCHE, Fr. See Match.

MÉDECIN, Fr. Physician.

MÉDIATORE, any state or potentate, that interferes to adjust the quarrel between any two or more powers, is called a mediator.

MEDICINE-CHEST, is composed of all sorts of medicines necessary for a campaign, together with such chirurgical instruments as are useful, fitted up in chests, and portable. The whole army are supplied with these at the expense of government.

Specific regulations have been issued by the Medical Board, respecting the quantity and quality of the different medicines.

MEDIUM GUARD, a preparatory guard, of the broad sword or sabre, which consists in presenting the sword in a perpendicular line with the center of the opposed object, having the point upwards, the ward iron and the cutting edge next to the object.

MEER BURSHY, Ind. chief paymaster.

MEER TOZUK, Ind. a marshal, whose business is to preserve order in a procession or line of march, and to report absentees.

General MEETINGS. The general meetings of the lieutenancy of every county, riding, or place, must be helden, according to act of parliament, in some principal town of every such county, riding, and place; and such general meetings must consist of the lieutenant, together with two deputy lieutenants at the least, or, on the death or removal, or in the absence of the lieutenant, then of three deputy lieutenants at the least, of every county, riding, and place respectively. Notice is to be given in the London Gazette, and also in any weekly newspaper usually circulated in such county, riding, or place, fourteen days at the least before the days appointed for holding such meetings respectively.

Subdivision MEETINGS. These are appointed, in the first instance, by the lieutenant and deputy lieutenant, or the deputy lieutenants, at every annual meeting; and regular notice is to be given by the clerk to the several deputy lieutenants.

MEGG, a weapon made use of by the Turkish horse when in pursuit of an enemy. It resembles a long iron spike, and has a scabbard like a sword.

MEGGHESTERIAQUE, Fr. the commanding officer of a body of men, who formerly did duty at Constantinople, and were called Hetereiades, being composed of soldiers that were enlisted in the allied nations.

MELEE, Fr. a military term, which is used among the French to express the hurry and confusion of a battle; thus, Un Général habile conserve sa tranquillité au milieu du combat, et dans l'horreur de la mêlée.—An able General preserves his presence of mind in the thick of the battle, and remains calm during the whole of the conflict. Mêlée corresponds with the English expression Thick of the Fight.

MEMOIRS are, strictly speaking, a species of history written by persons who have had some share in the transactions they relate, answering, in some measure, to what the Romans call commentarii, i.e. commentaries. Hence Caesar's Commentaries, or the Memoirs of his Campaigns.

MEMORABLE, (mémorable, Fr.) worthy of remembrance; a term applied to some extraordinary feat in war.

MEMORIAL, an address to the king, or other chief commander, praying...
ing for reward of services, or redress of grievances.

BATTALION-MEN. All the soldiers belonging to the different companies of an infantry regiment are so called, except those of the two flank companies.

Camp-Colour-MEN, soldiers under the immediate command and direction of the quarter-master of a regiment. Their business is to assist in marking out the lines of an encampment, &c. to carry the camp-colours to the field on days of exercise, and fix them occasionally for the purpose of enabling the troops to take up correct points in marching, &c. So that in this respect they frequently, indeed almost always, act as markers, or what the French call Jalons-murs. They are likewise employed in the trenches, and in all fatigue duties.

Drag-rope MEN. In artillery, the men attached to light or heavy pieces of ordnance, for the purpose of advancing or retreating in action, are so called.—The French servants à la prolonge are of this description.

MENACE, an hostile threat. Any officer or soldier using menacing words or gestures in presence of a court-martial, or to a superior officer, is punishable for the same.—See the Articles of War.

MENACE, (palissader en),Fr. See Fraiser.

MENSURATION, (mesurage, Fr.) in general, denotes the act or art of measuring lines, superficies and solids.

Mensuration, in military mathematics, is the art or science which treats of the measure of extension, or the magnitude of figures; and it is, next to arithmetick, a subject of the greatest use and importance, both in affairs that are absolutely necessary in human life, and in every branch of mathematics: a subject by which sciences are established, and commerce is conducted; by whose aid we manage our business, and inform ourselves of the wonderful operations in nature; by which we measure the heavens and the earth, estimate the capacities of all vessels, and bulks of all bodies, gauge our liquors, build edifices, measure our lands, and the works of artificers, buy and sell an infinite variety of things necessary in life, and are supplied with the means of making the calcula-
tions which are necessary for the construction of almost all machines.

It is evident that the close connection of this subject with the affairs of men, would very early evince its importance to them; and accordingly the greatest among them have paid the utmost attention to it; and the chief and most essential discoveries in geometry in all ages, have been made in consequence of their efforts in this subject. Socrates thought that the prime use of geometry was to measure the ground, and indeed this business gave name to the subject; and most of the ancients seem to have had no other end besides mensuration in view in all their laboured geometrical disquisitions. Euclid's elements are almost entirely devoted to it; and although there be contained in them many properties of geometrical figures, which may be applied to other purposes, and indeed of which the moderns have made the most material uses in various disquisitions of exceedingly different kinds; notwithstanding this, Euclid himself seems to have adapted them entirely to this purpose: for, if it be considered that his elements contain a continued chain of reasoning, and of truths, of which the former are successively applied to the discovery of the latter, one proposition depending on another, and the succeeding propositions still approximating towards some particular object near the end of each book; and when at the last we find that object to be the quality, proportion, or relation between the magnitudes of figures, both plane and solid; it is scarcely possible to avoid allowing this to have been Euclid's grand object. And accordingly he determined the chief properties in the mensuration of rectilinear plane and solid figures; and squared all such planes, and cubed all such solids. The only curve figures which he attempted beside are the circle and sphere; and when he could not accurately determine their measures, he gave an excellent method of approximating to them, by showing how in a circle to inscribe a regular polygon which should not touch another circle, concentric with the former, although their circumferences should be ever so near together; and, in like manner, between any two concentric spheres to describe a poly-

hedron.
bedron which should not any where touch the inner one: and approximations to their measures are all that have hitherto been given. But although he could not square the circle, nor cube the sphere, he determined the proportion of one circle to another, and of one sphere to another, as well as the proportions of all rectilinear similar figures to one another.

Archimedes took up mensuration where Euclid left it, and carried it a great length. He was the first who squared a curvilinear space, unless Hippocrates must be excepted on account of his lunes. In his times the conic sections were admitted in geometry, and he applied himself closely to the measuring of them as well as other figures. Accordingly he determined the relations of spheres, spheroids, and coconoids, to cylinders and cones; and the relations of parabolas to rectilinear planes whose quadratures had long before been determined by Euclid. He hath left us also his attempts upon the circle: he proved that a circle is equal to a right angled triangle, whose base is equal to the circumference, and its altitude equal to the radius; and consequently, that its area is found by drawing the radius into half the circumference; and so reduced the quadrature of the circle to the determination of the ratio of the diameter to the circumference; but which, however, hath not yet been done. Being disappointed of the exact quadrature of the circle, for want of the rectification of its circumference, which all his methods would not effect, he proceeded to assign an useful approximation to it: this he effected by the numerical calculation of the perimeters of the inscribed and circumscribed polygons; from which calculations it appears, that the perimeter of the circumscribed regular polygon of 192 sides is to the diameter, in a less ratio than that of $\frac{31\pi}{18}$ to 1; and that the inscribed polygon of 96 sides is to the diameter in a greater ratio than that of $\frac{31\pi}{77}$ to 1; and consequently much more than the circumference of the circle is to the diameter in a less ratio than that of $\frac{31\pi}{77}$ to 1, but greater than that of $\frac{31\pi}{77}$: the first ratio of $\frac{31\pi}{77}$ to 1, reduced to whole numbers, gives that of 22 to 7, for $\frac{31\pi}{77}$: 1

$22 : 7$, which therefore will be nearly the ratio of the circumference to the diameter. From this ratio of the circumference to the diameter he computed the approximate area of the circle, and found it to be to the square of the diameter as 11 to 14. He likewise determined the relation between the circle and ellipse, with that of their similar parts. The hyperbola too in all probability he attempted; but it is not to be hoped, that he met with any success, since approximations to its area are all that can be given by all the methods that have since been invented.

Besides these figures, he hath left us a treatise on the spiral described by a point moving uniformly along a right line, which at the same time moves with an uniform angular motion; and determined the proportion of its area to that of its circumscribed circle, as also the proportion of their sectors.

Throughout the whole works of this great man, which are chiefly on mensuration, he everywhere discovers the deepest design and finest invention; and seems to have been (with Euclid) exceedingly careful of admitting into his demonstrations nothing but principles perfectly geometrical and unquestionable: and although his most general method of demonstrating the relations of curved figures to straight ones, be by inscribing polygons in them, yet to determine those relations, he does not increase the number and diminish the magnitude of the sides of the polygon ad infinitum; but from this plain fundamental principle, allowed in Euclid's elements, viz. that any quantity may be so often multiplied, or added to itself, as that the result shall exceed any proposed finite quantity of the same kind, he proves that to deny his figures to have the proposed relations, would involve an absurdity.

He demonstrated also many properties, particularly in the parabola, by means of certain numerical progressions, whose terms are similar to the inscribed figures: but without considering such series to be continued ad infinitum, and then summing up the terms of such infinite series.

He had another very curious and singular contrivance for determining the measures of figures, in which he proceeded
ceeds as it were mechanically by weighing them.

Several other eminent men among the ancients wrote upon this subject, both before and after Euclid and Archimedes; but their attempts were usually upon particular parts of it, and according to methods not essentially different from theirs. Among these are to be reckoned Thales, Anaxagoras, Pythagoras, Bryson, Antiphon, Hippocrates of Chios, Plato, Apollonius, Philo, and Ptolomy; most of whom wrote of the quadrature of the circle, and those after Archimedes, by his method, usually extended the approximation to a greater degree of accuracy.

Many of the moderns have also prosecuted the same problem of the quadrature of the circle, after the same methods, to greater lengths; such are Vieta, and Metius, whose proportion between the diameter and circumference is that of 113 to 355, which is within 111,000,000 of the true ratio; but above all, Ludolph van Ceulen, who, with an amazing degree of industry and patience, by the same methods extended the ratio to 20 places of figures, making it that of 1 to 3.14159265358979323846.

The first material deviation from the principles used by the ancients in geometrical demonstrations was made by Cavalieri: the sides of their inscribed and circumscribed figures they always supposed of a finite and assignable number and length; he introduced the doctrine of indivisibles, a method which was very general and extensive, and which with great ease and expedition served to measure and compare geometrical figures. Very little new matter however was added to geometry by this method, its facility being its chief advantage. But there was great danger in using it, and it soon led the way to infinitely small elements, and infinitesimals of endless orders; methods which were very useful in solving difficult problems, and in investigating or demonstrating theories that are general and extensive; but sometimes led their incautious followers into errors and mistakes, which occasioned disputes and animosities among them.—There were now, however, many excellent things performed in this subject; not only many new things were effected concerning the old figures, but new curves were measured; and for many things which could not be exactly squared or cubed, general and infinite approximating series were assigned, of which the laws of their continuation were manifest, and of some of which the terms were independent on each other. Mr. Wallis, Mr. Huygens, and Mr. James Gregory, performed wonders. Huygens in particular must be admired for his solid, accurate, and very masterly works.

During the preceding state of things, several men, whose vanity seemed to have overcome their regard for truth, asserted that they had discovered the quadrature of the circle, and published their attempts in the form of strict geometrical demonstrations, with such assurance and ambiguity as staggered and misled many who could not so well judge for themselves, and perceive the fallacy of their principles and arguments. Among those were Longomontanus, and our countryman Hobbs, who obstinately refused all conviction of his errors.

The use of infinites was however disliked by several people, particularly by Sir Isaac Newton, who, among his numerous and great discoveries hath given us that of the method of fluxions; a discovery of the greatest importance both in philosophy and mathematics; it being a method so general and extensive, as to include all investigations concerning magnitude, distance, motion, velocity, time, &c. with wonderful ease and brevity; a method established by its great author upon true and incontestible principles; principles perfectly consistent with those of the ancients, and which were free from the imperfections and absurdities attending some that had hitherto been introduced by the moderns; he rejected no quantities as infinitely small, nor supposed any parts of curves to coincide with right lines; but proposed it in such a form as admits of a strict geometrical demonstration. Upon the introduction of this method most sciences assumed a different appearance, and the most abstruse problems became easy and familiar to every one; things which before seemed to be insuperable, became easy examples or particular cases of theories still more general and extensive; rectifications, quadratures, cubatures, tangencies, cases de maximis & minimis, and many other subjects, became general problems,
problems, and delivered in the form of general theories which included all particular cases: thus, in quadratures, an expression would be investigated which defined the areas of all possible curves whatever, both known and unknown, and which, by proper substitutions, brought out the area for any particular case, either in finite terms, or in infinite series, of which any term, or any number of terms could be easily assigned; and the like in other things. And although no curve, whose quadrature was unsuccessfully attempted by the ancients, became by this method perfectly quadrible, there were assigned many general methods of approximating to their areas, of which in all probability the ancients had not the least idea or hope; and innumerable curves were squared which were utterly unknown to them.

The excellency of this method revived some hopes of squaring the circle, and its quadrature was attempted with eagerness. The quadrature of a space was now reduced to the finding of the fluent of a given fluxion; but this problem however was found to be incapable of a general solution in finite terms; the fluxion of every fluent was always assignable, but the reverse of this problem could be effected only in particular cases; among the exceptions, to the great grief of the geometers, was included the case of the circle, with regard to all the forms of fluxions attending it. Another method of obtaining the area was tried: of the quantity expressing the fluxion of any area, in general, could be assigned the fluent in the form of an infinite series, which series therefore defined all areas in general, and which, on substituting for particular cases, was often found to break off and terminate, and so afford an area in finite terms; but here again the case of the circle failed, its area still coming out an infinite series. All hopes of the quadrature of the circle being now at an end, the geometricians employed themselves in discovering and selecting the best forms of infinite series for determining its area, among which it is evident, that those were to be preferred which were simple, and which would converge quickly; but it generally happened, that these two properties were divided, the same series very rarely including them both: the mathematicians in most parts of Eu-

rope were now busy, and many series were assigned on all hands, some admired for their simplicity, and others for their rate of convergency; those which converged the quickest, and were at the same time simplest, which therefore were most useful in computing the area of the circle in numbers, were those in which, besides the radius, the tangent of some certain arc of the circle was the quantity by whose powers the series converged; and from some of these series the area hath been computed to a very great extent of figures: Mr. Edmund Holly gave a remarkable one from the tangent of 30 degrees, which was rendered famous by the very industrious Mr. Abraham Sharp, who by means of it extended the area of the circle to 72 places of figures, as may be seen in Sherwin's book of logarithms; but even this was afterwards outdone by Mr. John Machin, who, by means described in Professor Hutton's *Measuring*, composed a series so simple, and which converged so quickly, that by it, in a very little time, he extended the quadrature of the circle to 100 places of figures; from which, it appears, that if the diameter be 1, the circumference will be

\[
3.14159265358979323846, 265358979323846, 5028841971, 6939937510, 3820974944, 5923078164, 6028304825, 3421170679 +, \text{ and consequently the area will be 7853981633, 974483061, 5660849819, 837210492, 9234964377, 6155243756, 1480769541, 0157153224, 9657007870, 3355292669 +.}
\]

From hence it appears, that all or most of the material improvements or inventions in the principles or method of treating of geometry, have been made especially for the improvement of this chief part of it, *measuring*, which abundantly shows, what we at first undertook to declare, the dignity of this subject; a subject which, as Dr. Barrow says, after mentioning some other things, "deserves to be more curiously weighed, because from hence a name is imposed upon that mother and mistress of the rest of the mathematical sciences, which is employed about magnitudes, and which is wont to be called *Geometry* (a word taken from ancient use, because it was first applied only to measuring the earth, and fixing the limits of possessions) though the name seemed very ridiculous to Plato, who substitutes in its place
that more extensive name of *Metrics* or *Mensuration*; and others after him give it the title of *Pantometry*, because it teaches the method of measuring all kinds of magnitudes." See *Surveying, Levelling, and Geometry*.

*MERRIAU, Ind.* a deduction or abatement is so called in India.

*MERIT*, desert, excellence, deserving honour or reward.

*MERIT, Order of*, a military distinction given to officers or soldiers, for some signal service: the badge of which is generally expressive of the service.—Such was the medal, or order of merit, presented by the Emperor of Germany, to the officers of the 13th light dragoons, for their unexampled bravery in the affair of *Villers en Couché*, in 1794. See *Orders*.

*MERKIN*, a mop to clean cannon.

*MERLIN, Handspike*.

*MES*, a sort of military ordinary, for the maintenance of which every officer gives a certain proportion of pay. The principal military mess in Great Britain is an exception to this rule, being kept and provided for in the extraordinaries of the army, at the Horse Guards. This mess consists of the field officers in waiting of the life and foot guards, officers on the king’s life and king’s foot guards; officer of the queen’s guard, and tilt picket, and adjutant of the battalion of foot guards that mounts. The colonel of the foot guards is allowed to invite three visitors. There are likewise two breakfasts provided every morning, one for the guard coming on, and one for the guard going off, together with a supper every night.

*MESSENCERS* (of State) are officers under the direction of the secretaries of state, of whom there were always in waiting, who were relieved monthly, and distributed in the following manner: four at court, five at each secretary’s office, two at the third office for North Britain, three at the council office, and one at the lord chamberlain’s office, who attend that office, always in readiness to be sent with dispatches, either domestic or foreign; to apprehend persons accused or suspected of high treason, or other offences against the state, being empowered by warrant from the secretaries; for the safe keeping of which, their houses are made a sort of confinement or prison; and for the mainte-

nance of the prisoners they have a certain allowance from government. The number has been increased since 1795.

*Military Messengers*, a class superior to orderly men, consisting of confidential persons that are sent to and from head quarters, &c.

*MESTRE de CAMP*, Fr. the commanding officer of a regiment of cavalry was so called in the old French service. He was distinguished by this appellation on account of there being a colonel-general in the cavalry. The duty of a *Mestre de Camp* was principally confined to the following heads:—To see that the troops or companies were kept complete, that the arms were in good state and condition, the horses of a proper size, sound and well trained. He had likewise the direction of the different guards, &c.

*MESTRE de CAMP général*, Fr. the next officer in rank, in the old French cavalry service, to the colonel-general. This appointment was created under Henry II. in 1532.

*MESTRE de CAMP général des dragons*, Fr. an appointment which first took place under Louis the XIVth. in 1684.

*MESURES à poudre*, Fr. tin cases or vessels used in the artillery, to measure out gunpowder, according to the size and caliber of each piece of ordnance. See *Powder Measures*.

*Over-METAL*, (in gunnery)—When the mouth of a piece of ordnance, in dispersing it, lies higher than the breech, it is then said to be laid over metal.

*Under-METAL*, (in gunnery) is when the mouth of a piece of ordnance lies lower than her breech.

*Right with METAL*, (in gunnery.) When a piece of ordnance lies truly level, point blank, or right with the mark, she is said to lie right with her metal.

*Superficies of METALS*, (in gunnery,) the surface or outside of a gun.

*METATORES*, among the ancient Romans were officers whose duties corresponded with those of the quarter-master-general’s department in modern armies.

*MÉTIER*, Fr. means, literally, any calling or business. In a military sense, it is peculiarly applicable to those nations which keep up large standing armies,
mies, and make war their principal object and pursuit. In speaking of military matters, it is common among the French to say—Guerre sur terre est notre métier; Guerre sur mer est le métier des Anglais. The land service is our peculiar business or calling; the sea service is the peculiar business or calling of the English; meaning thereby to express their reciprocal superiority.

Chevalier Folard gives the following definition relative to the question which is often discussed on the subject of war, namely, whether war be a trade or a science? (The English call it a profession). Folard, however, distinguishes it in this manner:—La Guerre est un métier pour les ignorants, et une science pour les habiles gens. War in the apprehension, and under the management of ignorant persons, is certainly a mere trade or business, but among able men, it becomes an important branch of science.

METTRE à la main, Fr. to grasp or take hold of any thing.

METTRE l’épée à la main, Fr. to draw swords. Ils mirent l’épée à la main, a figurative expression, signifying, they took their ground, and stood prepared to fight.

METTRE les armes à la main de quelqu’un, Fr. to teach a person the first rudiments of war, or lead him for the first time into action. C’est lui qui m’a mis les armes à la main. He first taught me how to fight, or I fought the first campaign under his orders.

METTRE aux arrêts, Fr. to put under arrest.

METTRE sur pied, Fr. to arm, to equip, to put troops upon an established footing.

MEURTRIERS, Fr. small loop holes, sufficiently large to admit the barrel of a rifle gun or musquet, through which soldiers may fire, under cover, against an enemy. They likewise mean the cavities that are made in the walls of a fortified town or place. See Murderesses.

MICHE. See Molingerer.

MICROMETER, (Micromètre, Fr.) an instrument contrived to measure small spaces, as in the divisions of the worm of a screw.

MIDI, Fr. The South; one of the four Cardinal points. It is always looked for at the bottom of a map, and is opposite to the north.

MILE, in geography, a long measure, whereby the English, &c. express the distance between places: it is of different extent in different countries. The geometrical mile contains 1000 geometrical paces, or mile passus, from whence miles are denominated.

We shall here give a table of the miles in use among the principal nations of Europe, in geometrical paces, 60,000 of which make a degree of the equator.

Geometrical paces.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Mile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland and Ireland</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The old league of France</td>
<td>1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The small ditto</td>
<td>2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The great ditto</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mile of Poland</td>
<td>3000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain and Portugal</td>
<td>3428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>5000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>5010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>6000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Holland</td>
<td>5200</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MILICE, Fr. soldiery, but more particularly the militia or trained bands.

MILICES gardes-côtes, Fr. a militia, somewhat similar to our sea-fencibles, which existed during the old French government, and whose services were confined to the coast. Every province, contiguous to the sea, was obliged to furnish a certain proportion of its male inhabitants, from 16 to 60 years old. This militia was exempted from the regulations which governed the land militia. It was under the admiralty.

MILITAIRE, Fr. a term used among the French, to signify any individual who bears arms for his country, or belongs to the profession: hence un bon Militaire, a good and experienced officer or soldier.

Un MILITAIRE, Fr. a military man; any person following the profession of a soldier.

MILITANT, the state of warfare, or business of war.

MILITAR, something belonging MILITARY, to the soldiery or militia, &c.

MILITARY architecture, the same with fortification. See Fortification.

MILITARY ways, the large Roman roads

3 X 2
roads which Agrippa procured to be made through the empire in the reign of Augustus for the marching of troops and conveying of carriages. They were passed from the gates of Rome to the utmost limits of the empire.

Military discipline. Next to the forming of troops, military discipline is the first object that presents itself to our notice; it is the soul of all armies; and unless it be established amongst them with great prudence, and supported with unshaken resolution, soldiers become a contemptible rabble, and are more dangerous to the very state that maintains them, than even its declared enemies. See Discipline.

Military execution, the ravaging or destroying of a country or town that refuses to pay the contribution inflicted upon them. Also the punishment inflicted by the sentence of a court martial.

Military first principles, consist in the bodily training a soldier, to make him hardy, robust, and capable of preserving health amidst fatigue, bad weather, and change of climate; to march at such a pace, and for such length of time, and with such burden, as without training, he would not be able to do.

Military REGULATIONS, the rules and regulations by which the discipline, formations, field exercise, and movements of the whole army are directed to be observed in one uniform system.

Military ADSCRIPTITII, supernumerary men that followed the Roman armies, for the purpose of filling up any vacancies which might occur through death or sickness. No particular duties were exacted from them, except that of marching in front of the troops, in order to annoy the enemy with their cross-bows.

Military CAUSARII, among the Romans, soldiers who were discharged on account of sickness and inability to serve, were so called.

Military CONS-UMMATIC, soldiers among the Romans, who had served their prescribed period. They were also called Emeriti.

Military MERCENARI, auxiliary troops or soldiers, who were hired by the Romans in time of war. Hence men hired to fight are called mercenaries.

Military PROVINCIALES, troops which composed the Roman legions, and consisted wholly of Roman citizens. The auxiliary troops were originally drawn out of the Italian provinces, that were in alliance with Rome; and when they afterwards became Roman citizens, soldiers were enlisted and paid from other countries. Thus, before Barbary fell under the Roman yoke, large levies were obtained from that quarter of the globe.

Military STATIONARI, bodies of armed men, among the Romans, who were distributed through the empire, in order to check disorders, prevent plunder, and to escort the guilty to the tribunals of justice.

Military SUBITARI, troops raised upon emergency, especially on the breaking out of unexpected hostilities. On these occasions, men of all ages were obliged to enrol themselves.

Military URBANI, a class of Roman soldiers, or rather an armed portion of the inhabitants of Rome, which remained in the capital, without any particular mark of distinction among themselves, in order to protect it during the absence of the regular troops, on the sudden commencement of hostilities. During the reign of the Emperors, these men became the Janissaries of Rome; for they insensibly became of so much importance, that they yielded in rank and consideration, as a body, to the Praetorian Bands only. They had regular camps in the city, which were called Castra Urbana. They were in high favour with the Emperors, and generally shared a large proportion of the legacies which were left by the former in their wills. The privates received half the pay and subsistence which were allowed the Praetorian Bands; enjoyed exclusive privileges, and could only be commanded by the Prefect of Rome.

Military, a force whose services, in general, do not exceed the boundaries of its native land, but which may volunteer beyond them. In this case, as far at least as regards the British militia, the extension of service must have the sanction of parliament. The militia among the Romans was frequently called Agrarian soldiers. With respect to the native spirit and perseverance of the national troops of this country, (by national troops we mean the militia as established by law) it will not be thought
superfluous to give the following account of their behaviour at the Norman conquest: In page 74 of Entick's History and Survey of London, Westminster, &c. it is recorded, that in 1066 the Danes, who had entered the Humber, and laid siege to York, were entirely routed by King Harold, and forced to return with great loss to Denmark. It was otherwise with the Duke of Normandy; for Harold, in opposing him, fell amongst the slain in the field of battle, and in the midst of the London and Middlesex militia, which had the honour of being commanded by himself in person, and his brother, and received the Normans with such resolution and courage, that they were at the point of retreating, had not William, whose crown now lay at stake, both performed the part of a leader bravely, and restrained them with his presence and authority; and, at last, an unfortunate dart shot through Harold's left eye into his brain, by which he fell off his horse, and was slain under his own standard, with 67,974 English soldiers, upon a Saturday, on the 1st of October, about seven miles from Hastings, in Sussex.

For the direction and command of the militia, the king constitutes lords-lieutenants of each county. The militia, when called out in time of war, are subject to the same regulations as to discipline and pay, as the infantry of the line.

In the time of Charles the Second, the militia were exercised four times a year, in their respective districts, and once a year in battalion. Some time after, the appointed time for their exercise and discipline was eight days in the course of the year, in companies, and four in camp. It was afterwards ordered by Act of Parliament, that the militia should be exercised twice a year, for the space of fourteen days each time. After the American war, no provision was made for the training and disciplining the militia, for a considerable time; and when government began to turn its attention to this important national concern, it was considered, on account of the effects produced by a long and expensive war, as proper to attend to the strictest economy. According to this principle, only two-thirds of the militia were called out, for the purpose of discipline, in the course of the year. The militia being lately increased from 30 to 40,000 men, it appeared proper to government, that the whole should be exercised once a year, for twenty-one days instead of twenty-eight; by which regulation, a saving was made of seven day's pay of officers and men. It was subsequently thought that it was not very advisable to attend particularly to economy, in a matter of such importance to the nation, and it was on that account that Mr. York, the secretary at war, on the 12th of February, 1803, made a motion to have the militia drawn out for twenty-eight days instead of twenty-one. The whole expense of training the militia was, at that period, 200,000l. and the additional charges would not exceed the sum of 18,000l.

Supplementary Militia, an auxiliary body of men, which was raised in 1798, for the defence of Great Britain. See Act of the 20th of February, to enable the king to order out a certain proportion of the supplementary militia, and to provide for the augmentation of the militia, by incorporating the supplementary militia therewith.

MILL, (moulin, Fr.) properly denotes a machine for grinding corn, &c. but more generally all such machines whose action depends upon a circular motion. There are various kinds, though foreign to this work.

Gun-powder Mill, (moulin à poudre, Fr.) is that used for pounding and beating together the ingredients of which gunpowder is composed.

These ingredients being duly proportioned, and put into the mortars of the mills, which are hollow pieces of wood, each capable of holding 20 pounds of paste, are incorporated by means of the pestle and spindle. There are 24 mortars in each mill, where are made each day 480 pounds of gunpowder, care being taken to sprinkle the ingredients in the mortars with water, from time to time, lest they should take fire. The pestle is a piece of wood 10 feet high, and 4½ inches broad, armed at bottom with a round piece of metal. It weighs about 60 pounds.

MIL BAZILY, Ind. a commander of one thousand horse.

MIND, (esprit, ame, Fr.) the reason, or rational part of the soul.

MILITARY MIND, (esprit, genius mil-
militaire, Fr.) By this phrase we mean that uncommon constitution of mind, which is peculiar to great generals alone, which once animated the breasts of Cæsar and of Hannibal in ancient, and of Turenne and Montecuculi, in modern times. Great occasions may call it into action, experience may improve it; but, like the poet's fire, it is the boon of nature, the chosen gift of God to the elect. To others who call themselves generals, it may belong to interolamate battalions in 19 or 1900 different modes; to waste their own lives, to wear out the patience, to break the spirit of their soldiers, by an endless attention to endless minutiae; by never ceasing parades, by manœuvres long as the day, by all the mock parade and idle pageantry of military show. In some countries, and in some services, this may be the road to advancement, to fortune and to emolument; but it is not the path which leads to glory, or to genuine fame. An attention to all these details, when confined within just limits, may not only be laudable, but necessary. However, the verse of the Henriade, tel brille au second rang qui s'éclipse au premier, applies with more force to the army than to any other profession, or to any other human pursuit. He that is great on the parade may be little in the field; he that can draw on the sources of his memory, and cause to be performed with exactness, manœuvres, (which he has gotten by heart like a school boy), may be entirely deficient in that quickness of intellect, and that vigour of mind, which can alone enable an officer to execute military movements in the presence of an enemy, and under all the varying circumstances of actual warfare. The drill never formed a general. To be such, God, in the bounty of his providence, must have caused him to have been born a great man. On the contrary, the pursuits of little objects must narrow and throttle the mind.— Those habits which ensure mediocrity, will, almost always, preclude excellence. The boy who can form a Latin verse, is not therefore a poet. A special pleader is not a Somers or a Clarendon; nor is a good adjutant a great general. There is hardly any man so humbly gifted, that with sufficient application cannot become the former.—

To constitute the latter, requires the assemblage of some of the noblest attributes of our nature: that power of mind, that grasp of thought, which seizes almost everything, as if by intuition; which thinks, decides and acts, in the same moment; which forms the best possible judgment in the shortest possible time; which is not only cool and collected, but is roused and excited by danger; must all be united to adorn the character of a great general. Add to these qualities great powers of discrimination, a constant attention to the study of the higher branches of his profession, an anxious imitation of the great models which antiquity and modern times afford, and, above all, the possession of that military imagination, of which the king of Prussia speaks in his instructions to his generals, and without which there can be no real excellence or superiority. You, who are conscious that you are thus endowed, may, with firm and assured step, approach the sanctuary; view, with the eye of anticipated hope, your niche in the Temple of Fame, saying, with Corrègio—Anch'io son pittoresco.

MINE, in a military sense, implies a subterraneous passage dug under the wall or rampart of a fortification, for the purpose of blowing it up by gunpowder.

Counter-Mines, are those made by the besieged, whereas mines are generally made by the besiegers. Both mines and counter mines are made in the same manner, and for the like purposes, viz. to blow up their enemies and their works; only the principal galleries and mines of the besieged, are usually made before the town is besieged, and frequently at the same time the fortification is built, to save expence.

Excaver la Mine, Fr. to spring a mine. When used figuratively, this expression signifies to discover a plot, or make it known. It likewise serves to express the failure of any expedition or undertaking.

Definitions of Mines. A mine is a subterraneous cavity made according to the rules of art, in which a certain quantity of powder is lodged, which by its explosion blows up the earth above it.

It has been found by experiments, that
that the figure produced by the explosion is a parabolid, and that the center of the powder, or charge, occupies the Focus.

The place where the powder is lodged is called the chamber of the mine, or fourneau.

The passage leading to the powder is called the gallery.

The line drawn from the center of the chamber, perpendicular to the nearest surface of the ground, is called the line of least resistance.

The pit or hole, made by springing the mine, is called the excavation.

The fire is communicated to the mines by a pipe or hose, made of coarse cloth, whose diameter is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch, called a saucisson (for the filling of which near half a pound of powder is allowed to every foot), extending from the chamber to the entrance of the gallery, to the end of which is fixed a match, that the miner who sets fire to it may have time to retire, before it reaches the chamber.

To prevent the powder from contracting any dampness, the saucisson is laid in a small trough, called an auger, made of boards, three inches and a half broad, joined together, lengthwise, with straw in it, and round the saucisson, with a wooden cover nailed upon it.

Foyer, Fr. Focus, or Center of the Chamber. Some authors call the end of the saucisson that comes within the work, and which is to be set fire to, the foyer, or focus: but by most people, this is generally understood to be the center of the chamber.

Galleries and Chambers of Mines. Galleries made within the fortification, before the place is attacked, and from which several branches are carried to different places, are generally 4 or $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and 5 or $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet high. The earth is supported from falling in by arches and walls, as they are to remain for a considerable time; but when mines are made to be used in a short time, then the galleries are but 3 or $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and five feet high, and the earth is supported by wooden frames or props.

The gallery being carried on to the place where the powder is to be lodged, the miners make the chamber. This is generally of a cubical form, large enough to hold the wooden box, which contains the powder necessary for the charge: the box is lined with straw and sandbags, to prevent the powder from contracting dampness.

The chamber is sunk something lower than the gallery, if the soil permits; but where water is to be apprehended, it must be made higher than the gallery; otherwise the besieged will let in the water, and spoil the mine.

Quantities of powder to charge Mines. Before any calculation can be made of the proper charge for a mine, the density and tenacity of the soil in which it is to be made, must be ascertained, either by experiment, or otherwise; for, in soils of the same density, that which has the greatest tenacity, will require the greatest force to separate its parts. The density is determined by weighing a cubic foot (or any certain quantity) of the soil; but the tenacity can only be determined by making a mine. The following table contains experiments in six different soils, which may be of some assistance to form a judgment of the nature of the soil, when an actual experiment cannot be had.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the Soil</th>
<th>Density</th>
<th>Tenacity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weight of 1 cubic foot</td>
<td>Quantity of powder to raise 1 cub. fathom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Loose earth or sand</td>
<td>95 pds.</td>
<td>8 pds.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Common light soil</td>
<td>12½</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Loam, or strong soil</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>12¾</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Potter’s clay, or stiff soil</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>13¾</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Clay, mixed with stones</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Masonry</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>21½</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the requisites in mining may be determined by the following problems, which admit of four cases; for any three of the articles below being given, the fourth may thence be found.

1. The nature of the soil.
2. The diameter of the excavation.
3. The line of least resistance.
4. The charge.

**Problem I.**

Given the nature of the soil, the diameter of the excavation, and the line of least resistance, to find the charge.

**Rules.**

1. To the square of the diameter of the excavation, add the square of double the line of least resistance, and reserve the said sum.
2. Multiply the square root of the reserved sum by double the line of least resistance, and subtract the product from the same sum.
3. Multiply half the remainder by the line of least resistance, and 1.57 times the product, will give the solidity of the excavation.
4. The charge will then be determined from the nature of the soil, as in the following example.

**Example I.**

It is required to make a mine in the second sort of soil, mentioned in the foregoing experiments, which shall have a line of least resistance of 10 feet, and the diameter of its excavation 20 feet; what will be the proper charge?

The nature of this soil, by the table, requires ten pounds of powder to 216 cubic feet.

**Calculation.**

1. The diameter of the excavation is 20, and its square is 400
2. Double the line of least resistance is 20, and its square is 400

Therefore the sum to be reserved is 800
3. Double the line of least resistance is 20, and its square is 566

Which leaves the remainder 234
3. Half the remainder is 117
Which multiplied by the line of least resistance is 10

Gives the product 1170
Which multiplied by 1.57

Gives the solidity of the excavation in feet: 1836.9

4. If 216 : 10 : : 1836.9 : 85 which is the charge required.

By Logarithms.

1. Diam. of excavation is 20: 1.301030
   Diameter squared is 2.602060 400
   Double the line of least resistance is 20 and its square 400

The sum to be reserved is 2.903090 800
2. Square
2. Square root of sum is 28.3 1.451545
Douoble the line of least resistance is = 20 1.301030
Product to be subtracted is 2.752575 566
Remainder is 2.369216 234
Line of least resist. 10 1.000000
10 pounds of powder 1.000000
To 216 cubic feet, compl. arith. 7.665546
To which add the const. log. 9.894870
And the sum is the logarithm charge required 1.999632 85 lb.

PROBLEM II.

Given the nature of the soil, the line of least resistance, and the charge, to find the diameter of the excavation.

RULES.
1. Find the solidity of the earth to be raised, by a proportion from the nature of the soil, and multiply it by 1.27.
2. Divide the product by the line of least resistance, and to the quotient add the square of the line of least resistance: reserve the sum.
3. Multiply the square root of the sum reserved by twice the line of least resistance, and add the product to the said sum, and from the result subtract three times the square of the line of least resistance; so will the square root of the remainder be the diameter of the required excavation.

EXAMPLE I.
Let a mine be charged with 100 pounds of powder, in a soil which requires eleven pounds of powder to raise 216 cubic feet, and let its line of least resistance be ten feet: what will be the diameter of the excavation?

By the nature of the soil 11 lb. : 216 feet : : 100 lb. : 1964 feet, which is the solidity of the earth to be raised.
1. Therefore multiply 1964
By 1.27
The product is 2494.28
Which divided by the line of least resistance, 10, is 249.428

To which add the square of the line of least resistance 100.000
And the sum to be reserved is 349.428
2. The square root of 349.428 is 18.7, which multiplied by twice the line of least resistance, 20, gives 374.

This added to the sum reserved gives 723.428
From which subtract 3 times the square of least resistance 300.
And there will remain 423.428
The square root of which is, 20.5 feet, being the required diameter of the excavation.

By Logarithms.
Cubic feet = 216 2.334454
Powder 11 lb. co. ar. 8.958607
Charge = 100 2.000000
Line of least resist. 10, co. ar. 9.000000
Constant logarithm 0.103804

To which add the square of line of least resistance
Sum to be reserved is 2.543323 349.4
Half of which logar. 1.271661
Twice line of least resistance, 20, 1.301030
Product to be added is 2.572691 373.8
The result is 723.2
From which subtract thrice the square of the line of least resistance 300.0
And there remains 2.626546 423.2
Half of which logar. is 1.313273 20.57
feet, the diameter of the excavation required.

Loading and stopping of Mines.—
The gallery and chamber being ready to be loaded, a strong box of wood is made of the size and figure of the chamber, being about 1-9d or 1-4th bigger than is required for containing the necessary quantity of powder; 5 y against
against the sides and bottom of the box is put some straw; and this straw is covered over with empty sand bags, to prevent the powder from contracting any dampness: a hole is made in the side next the gallery, near the bottom, for the saucisson to pass through, which is fixed to the middle of the bottom, by means of a wooden peg, to prevent its loosening from the powder: or to hinder the enemy (if he should reach the entrance) from being able to tear it out. This done, the powder is brought in sand bags, and thrown loose in the box, and covered also with straw and sand bags; upon this is put the cover of the box, pressed down very tight with strong props; and, to render them more secure, planks are also put above them, against the earth, and wedged in as fast as possible.

This done, the vacant spaces between the props are filled up with stones and dung, and rammed in the strongest manner: the least neglect in this work will considerably alter the effect of the mine.

Then the auger is laid from the chamber to the entrance of the gallery, with some straw at the bottom; and the saucisson laid in it, with straw over it: lastly, it must be shut with a wooden cover nailed upon it. Great care must be taken, in stopping up the gallery, not to press too hard upon the auger, for fear of spoiling the saucisson, which may hinder the powder from taking fire, and so prevent the mine from springing. The gallery is stopped up with stones, earth, and dung, well rammed, six or seven feet further from the chamber than the length of the line of least resistance.

Globe of compression in Mines, from Belidor. If you imagine a large globe of earth homogeneous in all its parts, and a certain quantity of powder lodged in its center, so as to produce a proper effect without bursting the globe; by setting fire to the powder, it is evident, that the explosion will act all round, to overcome the obstacles which oppose its motion; and as the particles of the earth are porous, they will compress each other in proportion as the flame increases and the capacity of the chamber increases likewise: but the particles of earth next to the chamber will communicate a part of their motion to those next to them, and those to their neighbours; and this communication will thus continue in a decreasing proportion, till the whole force of explosion is entirely spent; and the particles of earth beyond this term will remain in the same state as they were at first. The particles of earth that have been acted upon by the force of explosion will compose a globe, which Mr. Belidor calls the globe of compression.

Different sorts of Mines are as follow: Fougasses, are a sort of small mines, frequently made before the weakest parts of a fortification, as the salient angles and faces, not defended by a cross fire.

Trefle Mines, are mines with two chambers only.

T-Mines, so called from their great resemblance to that letter. They are double mines, having four lodgments. Double T-Mines, have eight lodgments, and four doors.

Triple T-Mines, have twelve lodgments, and six doors.

Double Trefle Mines, have four lodgments, and eight doors.

Triple Trefle Mines, have six lodgments, and twelve doors.

Mines sans cerveau, Fr. literally signifies a mine without brains. This expression is used among miners to describe any unthankful piece of ground, which has no consistency within itself, either at the top of the gallery, or on its sides, and is rendered firm by various expedients.

MINERS, are generally soldiers: most of the foreign regiments of artillery have each a company of miners, commanded by a captain and two lieutenants. When the miners are at work in the mines, they wear a kind of hood, to keep the earth that falls, out of their eyes. In the English service the artificers are ordered for that purpose.

MINERVA, (Minerva, Fr.) according to the heathen mythology, the goddess of wisdom, of war, and of the arts; she was also looked upon as the goddess of peace. She is generally represented with a helmet on her head, a shield on her arm, with a lance and an olive branch in her hand; several mathematical instruments, and the figure of an owl near her, as the emblem of wisdom.

MINING,
MINING, in military affairs, is the art of blowing up any part of a fortification, building, &c., by gunpowder.—The art of mining requires a perfect knowledge both of fortification and geometry; and by these previous helps, the engineer may be qualified to ascertain correctly the nature of all manner of heights, depths, breadths, and thicknesses; to judge perfectly of slopes and perpendiculars, whether they be such as are parallel to the horizon, or such as are visual; together with the true levels of all kinds of earth. To which must be added, a consummate skill in the quality of rocks, earths, masonry, and sands; the whole accompanied with a thorough knowledge of the strength of all sorts of gunpowder.

Mining is become one of the most essential parts of the attack and defence of places: so much artillery is used, that nothing above ground can withstand its effects; the most substantial ramparts and parapets can resist but a short time; the outworks, though numerous, serve only to retard, for a time, the surrender of the place.

We are told in history, that mines were made long before the invention of gunpowder; for the ancients made galleries or under-ground passages, much in the same way as the moderns, from without, under the walls of the places, which they cut off from the foundation, and supported them with strong props: then they filled the intervals with all manner of combustibles, which being set on fire burnt their props, and the wall being no longer supported, fell, whereby a breach was made.

The besieged also made under-ground passages, from the town, under the besieger's machines, by which they battered the walls, to destroy them; which proves Necessity to have been the inventor of mines, as well as of other useful arts.

The first mines, since the invention of gunpowder, were made in 1487, by the Genoese, at the attack of Serafennella, a town in Florence; but these failing, they were for some time neglected, till Peter Navarro, being then engineer to the Genoese, and afterwards to the Spaniards in 1508, against the French, at the siege of the castle del Oro, at Naples, made a mine under the wall, and blew it up; in consequence of which the castle was taken by storm.

Mr. Valliere relates the same story, but differs in the name of the engineer: he says it was Francis George, an Italian, who, serving at Naples in quality of architect, proposed to Peter Navarro, the Spanish governor, to take this castle by mining.

Names of articles used in MINING.

Auger, a kind of small trough, made of strong inch boards, about 4 inches square, in which the saucisson is laid in straw, to prevent the powder from contracting any dampness.

Chamber, the place where the powder is lodged, being first put in cubical boxes made for that purpose.

Excavation, &c., the pit or hole made by Entonnoir, &c., a mine when sprung.

Focus, the center of the chamber where the powder is lodged.

Fougass, a kind of small mine.

Fourneau. See Chamber.

Miner's Tools, are augers of several sorts, levers of different sorts, needles for working in rocks, rakes, spades, shovels, wheel-barrows, sledge-hammers, masons' hammers, pick-axes, picks, mattocks, chisels, plummets, rules, a miner's dial, &c.

Line of least resistance, is a line drawn from the center of the space containing the powder, perpendicular to the nearest surface.

Gallery, the passage leading to the powder.

Saucisson, is a pipe or hose made of coarse cloth, whose diameter is about an inch, and filled with gunpowder; then laid in the trough or auger, which extends from the chamber to the entrance of the gallery, that the miner who sets fire to it, may have time to retire before it reaches to the chamber.

MINION, a piece of ordnance, of which there are two kinds, the large and ordinary; the large minion has its bore 3½ inches diameter, and is 1000 pounds weight; its load is 3½ pounds of powder; its shot three inches in diameter, and 3½ pounds weight; its length is eight feet, and its level range 125 paces. The ordinary minion is three inches diameter in the bore, and weighs about 800 pounds weight: it is seven feet long, its load 2¼ pounds of powder,
MINISTER, according to Johnson, is one who acts not by any inherent authority of his own, but under another. Thus in England all ministers act under a supreme authority, which is vested in the King, Lords, and Commons, to whom they are responsible. In military matters, there is not only a war minister, but a secretary at war, who likewise acts conjointly with the secretary of state. All dispatches and papers of consequence relating to the army must first pass through the secretary of state, and the war minister, before they are laid before parliament, or otherwise acted upon by the secretary at war.

The common arrangements of corps, directions with respect to marching, &c. are transmitted to the secretary at war, and to the quarter-master-general's office, without previously passing through the secretary of state, or war minister.

Ministre de la Guerre, Fr. minister of the war department. The appointment of minister and secretary at war, among the French, first took place in the reign of Henry the Second in 1549.

As this public officer is considered by the French in a very different light than he is with us, it may not be irrelevant to give the following extract from a late French publication:

"The minister of the war department is a statesman (homme d'état), whose functions are of the most important and most extensive nature, both with respect to the sovereign by whom he is entrusted with their discharge, and in regard to all the chiefs, and all the corps of which the armies and garrison-towns are composed. To answer his sovereign's intentions, and thereby to be useful to the country at large, it is necessary that a minister of war should be known for his military talents, be distinguished for a peculiar aptitude at arrangement, and for a strict and rigid adherence to the dictates of justice and impartiality. He must not only possess the knowledge and the feelings of a soldier, but have also the regularity and the method of a man of business."

Let us add, he should be accessible to merit, impartial in the distribution of places, and rigidly honest in the appropriation of public monies.

MINUTE, a hasty sketch taken of anything in writing. Hence minutes of a general or regimental court-martial.

Minutes of council in the military department, the notification of orders and regulations, which are directed to be observed by the army in India, is so called. These minutes receive the sanction of the governor-general in council, and are the result of previous communications from the Hon. Court of Directors in Europe. They answer to the French word résumé, which was prefixed to all orders and regulations that were occasionally issued by the military boards, or conseils de guerre, for the government of the army. The term jugement d'un conseil de guerre, corresponded with our minutes of a general or regimental court-martial, and expressed not only the minutes but the sentence of the court.

MINUTE, the 60th part of each degree of a circle; and, in computation of time, the 60th part of an hour.

La Minute, Fr. the original of a sentence or decree.

MIQUELETS, Fr. a banditti that infest the Pyrenean mountains, and are extremely obnoxious to travellers.

The MIQUELETS are armed with pistols in their waist-belts, an arquebus and a dagger at their side. These men are frequently employed by the Spaniards in time of war; but their service is confined to the mountains, which they climb with wonderful agility.

MIQUELETTI, a small body of mountain fusiliers, belonging to the Neapolitan army.

MIRE, Fr. in the French artillery, a piece of wood, about four inches thick, one foot high, and two feet and a half long, which is used in pointing cannon.

Coins de Mire, Fr. wedges made of wood, which serve to raise or depress any piece of ordnance. They are likewise used for the same purpose in mortars.

MIRZA, Ind. Sir, Lord, Master.

To MISBEHAVE, in a military sense, to act in any manner unbecoming
coming the character of an officer or soldier.

To Misbehave, before the enemy, to abandon the colours, or shamefully give way in action, &c. See Mutiny Act.

Miscellaneous, an item or charge in the estimates of the British army, so distinguished, as Miscellaneous Services.

Miséricorde, Fr. a short dagger, which the cavalry formerly used, for the purpose of dispatching an enemy who would not ask quarter or mercy.

La Misintelligence, Fr. this word is generally used by the French to express a want of intelligence, or of proper information.

Misirak, a Turkish sabre. See Spahis.

Missa Dominici, afterwards called among the French Juges des Exemptes, certain persons or commissioners, who, under the reign of Louis-le-6ros, king of France, watched the conduct and behaviour of the dukes and counts, and reported accordingly.

Missile, any weapon which is Missive, either thrown by the hand, or which strikes at a distance from the moving power.

Missing, an expression used in military returns, especially in field reports, after an engagement, to account for the general loss of men.

Mitraille, Fr. small pieces of old iron, such as heads of nails, &c. with which pieces of ordnance are frequently loaded.

tirer à Mitraille, Fr. to fire with grape-shot. This term is frequently used by the French, to express the bribery which is practised in war time by one nation upon another, for the purpose of fomenting civil insurrections. Hence tirer à mitraille d’or.

Mitrailleades, a discharge of grape-shot from pieces of ordnance. This was a new mode of punishment devised under the revolutionary government of France, and was principally practised during the reign of Robespierre, in the commune of Lyons. Cannons, loaded with grape-shot, were fired on citizens, bound hand and foot; and such as were only wounded by the shot, were afterwards put to death by the sword or sabre. Bonaparte, under his protector Barras, made use of this mode to quell the refractory sections of Paris; he was called, from this circumstance, le petit mitrailleur, the little grape-shooter.

Mitre, a mode of joining two Miter, boards, or other pieces of wood together at right angles.

Moat, a wet or dry ditch, dug round the walls of a town, or fortified place. When an enemy attacks a town, which has dry moats round it, the rampart must be approached by galleries under ground, which galleries are run beneath the moat; when the place is attempted through wet moats, your approaches must be made by galleries above ground, that is to say, by galleries raised above the surface of the water. The brink of the moat next the rampart is called the scarp, and the opposite one the counterscarp.

Dry Moat, that which has no water. It should invariably be deeper than the one that is full of water.

Flat-bottomed Moat, that which hath no sloping, its corners being somewhat rounded.

Lined Moat, that whose scarp and counterscarp are caséd with a wall of mason work made aslope.

Model, a mould; also a diminutive representation of any thing. Thus models of warlike instruments, fortifications, &c. &c. are preserved in the Royal Laboratory at Woolwich.

Model, something of our own times, in opposition to what is antique or ancient.

Modern: Tactics, and Modern Art of War, that system of manoeuvre and evolution, which has been adopted since the invention of gunpowder and firearms.

Ancient Tactics, and ancient Art of War, the system which was pursued by the Greeks and Romans, &c. before the invention of gunpowder and firearms.

Mognions, from the French Maignon, signifying the stump of a limb. A sort of armour for the shoulders.

Mogo, a name given to a hatchet or tomahawk, by the natives of New Holland. See Grant’s Voyage.

Mogul, the Emperor of India, from whom the nabobs originally receive their appoint-
appointments, as governors and superintendents of provinces.

Mogul Tartars, a nation so called, that made considerable conquests in India.

Moiur, Ind. a golden coin, which sometimes varies in its value, but generally goes for fifteen or sixteen rupees.

MOIENNE, Fr. a piece of ordnance, which is now called a four-pounder, and which is ten feet long, was formerly so called.

MOINE, Fr. a half-sheet of paper, folded into two or four parts, with which is covered the train of gunpowder that serves to set fire to the saucisson.

MOINEAU, a French term for a little flat bastion, raised upon a re-entering angle, before a curtain which is too long, between two other bastions. It is commonly joined to the curtain, but sometimes separated by a fosse, and then called a detached bastion. They are not raised so high as the works of the place.

A Mois Roman, or Roman month, considered as a tax or contribution, which is collected from all the cities, amounts to eighty-three thousand, nine hundred and sixty-four German florins, when it is paid in specie, and to 2681 cavalry, and 12,795 foot soldiers, when the quota is given in effective forces.

This tax grows out of an old custom, which originally prevailed when the Emperors went to Rome to be crowned, and which served to defray their expenses thither.

MOISSON, Fr. harvest. This word is used in various senses by the French, particularly in two, of a poetical and figurative kind, viz. Il a vu cinquante MOISSONS: he has lived fifty years; literally, has seen fifty harvests.

MOISSON de lauriers, Fr. a succession of victories, &c. literally, a harvest of laurels.

MOISSON de gloire, is taken in the same sense.

MOISSONNER des lauriers, Fr. to reap laurels.

MOISSONNER les hommes, Fr. to kill off, &c. To mow down men.

MOLLER, Fr. literally means to wax soft. It is used figuratively among the French, to signify, in a military sense, the yielding or giving way of armed men, viz. les troupes mollissent, the troops give way.

MOLLESSE, Fr. in a figurative sense, signifies want of firmness or resolution. Je crains la mollesse de vos conseils; I mistrust the plaint tendency of your advice or counsel.

MONDE, Fr. in a military sense, means men or soldiers, viz.

Ce capitaine n'avait que la moitié de son monde; that captain had only half his complement of men.

On a perdu beaucoup de monde, Fr. they have lost a considerable number of men.

Il a un monde d'ennemis sur les bras, Fr. he is assailed by a multiplicity of foes.

Aller à l'autre monde, Fr. this expression bears the same import in English that it does in French, viz. to die literally to go into the other world.

Le Nouveau Monde, Fr. this term is frequently used to denote America.—Hence L'Ancien et le Nouveau Monde, means the two continents.

MONEY-Matters. An expression in familiar use to express all pecuniary concerns. It cannot be too strongly recommended to every responsible military man to be scrupulously correct on this head. More than half the breaches of friendship and common acquaintance that occur in life, may be traced to irregularity: but in no instance are its effects so fatal, as when the soldier is wronged, or is induced to think so, by the omissions, &c, of officers or serjeants.

MONIES, in a military sense, are such sums as are issued for public service, and are more specifically distinguished by the appellation of army estimates. It is usual for the secretary at war to move for the estimates of the army.

Bec-MONEY, all officers serving in Ireland, have an allowance of this description. It amounts to 15s. 6d. per annum. For broken periods it is calculated at three half-pence per diem.

Beer-MONEY, an allowance of one penny per diem, given to private soldiers in lieu of small beer.

Bounty-MONEY. See Recruiting.

Emery, Oil, and Brick-dust-MONEY, a certain allowance which is made to soldiers in the British service, to enable them
them to keep their arms in good condition; in which are included brushes, pickers, turnscresws, and worms. The actual expenditure for these articles, certified upon honour by the colonel, or commanding officer, is allowed by government; provided the amount does not, in any half year, exceed the rate of 1s. 4d. per man for each effective rank and file. For further particulars concerning this allowance, see Jukes's Comprehensive View, page 3, &c.

Grass Money, a certain sum, so called, which was formerly stopped from the dragoons, for answering the expenses customarily borne by the regiments. Out of this money the serjeant, corporal, drum and dragoon, were furnished with such necessaries as were not (by the regulation of the clothing) supplied by the colonel, and paid two shillings a year to the surgeon for medicines; out of which also, such losses might be made good as happened by exchange of money, in the remittance of their pay. It was directed by the warrant issued on the 28th of June, 1721, in the reign of George the Second, that the captains should find the dragoons with certain necessaries at specified rates, both in the house, and at grass, taking the same at all hazards, equally in all regiments; and they were required to account with them for the remainder, within fourteen days after the horses were taken up from grass.

Lay-Money, the money which is paid for recruiting the army is so called. By general orders issued 10 June, 1804, it was raised to the following: cavalry, 16l. 11s. per man; infantry, 19l. 19s. and boys, 10l. 15s. each.

Lodging-Money, a sum allowed to officers to provide lodgings, when they cannot be accommodated in barracks, or government houses. The several sums, according to their different ranks, and the regulations relating thereto, will be found accurately stated in the Treatise on Military Finance.

Marching-Money, commonly called marching guinea, a specific sum, which is issued by the receiver-general of each county, when the militia is first embodied for service; and which is accounted for by the several captains of companies to the individuals who compose them. It is called marching guinea, from that sum being paid to every man before he quits his county, and marches on general home service.

Passage-Money, an allowance which is made to officers in the British service, to enable them to pay the expenses of voyages to and from the East and West Indies.

Regimental Monies, all sums issued to paymasters for the subsistence, &c. of the men belonging to a regiment, are so called; for the regular distribution of which, colonels, or captains of companies, are responsible. La comptabilité, among the French, corresponds with this explanation.

Revenue-Money, an allowance which was formerly made to field officers in India. It was discontinued in 1797.

Smart-Money, the money which is paid by the person who has taken the king's shilling, in order to get released from an engagement entered into previous to a regular enlistment. The sum is generally twenty shillings, which must be given before the oath is administered; otherwise both parties would be criminally implicated: one for deserting, and the other for conniving, aiding, and abetting. The custom of taking smart money is certainly founded upon a just principle, but that principle has been often perverted, and the most dishonest advantages taken of ignorant young men. In the Regulations for carrying on the recruiting service, the following order has been issued:

"Art. XX. It being contrary to law, and highly injurious to the recruiting service, to permit money to be taken by any non-commissioned officer or soldier, under the name of smart-money, and in consequence thereof to discharge any man who has received enlisting-money, except such man shall have been carried before a magistrate within the four days prescribed by the Mutiny Act, and in his presence shall have declared his dissent to such enlisting; recruiting officers are therefore to report any non-commissioned officer or private soldier guilty of this offence, to the inspecting field officer of the district, who will forthwith cause such non-commissioned officer or soldier to be brought to trial for the same, by a detachment court-martial."

Utensil-Money, an annual allowance given
given to non-commissioned officers and privates, in Ireland, amounting to about 104d. each.

Money for the repair of arms, a specific allowance which is made by government to every captain of a company, for the charge and repair of arms. This allowance is given in proportion to the number of men each company contains, viz. to every captain of a company, which shall consist of 76 men, or upwards, fifty-five pounds ten shillings per annum; for less than 76, but more than 50, forty-seven pounds seven shillings and sixpence, per annum: to every captain of a company, which shall consist of 50 men only, or of any number less than 50, thirty-eight pounds five shillings, per annum. See observations on this subject in James's Comprehensive View, page 9, &c.

MONNOIE OBSIDIONALE, Fr: a sort of base metal, made into current coin during a long siege. Of all expedients, this is perhaps the worst, as it usually creates feuds and quarrels between the garrison and the inhabitants. See Disorder.

MONOMACHY, (monomachie, Fr.) a single combat, or the fighting of two, hand to hand. It is derived from the Greek. A duel may properly be called monomachy.

MONSON or MOUSON, Fr: a word derived from the Arabic, signifying the wind of any particular season, or one that blows regularly. See Monsoons.

MONSOONS. In India the year is divided into two seasons. From the month of October to March, the winds blow from the north, and during the rest of the year from the southern points of the compass: these seasons are by mariners called monsoons; the change from the one to the other is generally preceded by an interval of about twenty days, in which calms, or light and uncertain winds prevail: the setting in of the northern monsoon generally falls out some time in the month of October, as that of the southern in the month of April. On the coast of Coromandel the northern monsoon sometimes begins with a violent tempest or hurricane; and if the monsoon sets in with moderation, it is often productive of tempestuous weather, at different intervals, until the middle of December, and sometimes later; so that it is held dangerous for any vessels to remain on the coast after the 15th of October, or to return to it before the 20th of December.

MONTAGNES, Fr: hills, mountains, &c. In a military sense the term is peculiarly applicable to that species of warfare which is carried on in a mountainous and intersected country. We have already given a general outline of this species of warfare under the head guerre de montagne: nevertheless the following observations may not appear superfluous or irrelevant in this place. The chevalier Polard has written largely, and with no inconsiderable degree of method, on that part of a war among hills, &c. where an army might run the risk of being surrounded or shut up.—He observes, that a body of men may be drawn into snares by the well-concerted movements of an able and active enemy, most especially in a country which is intersected by rivers, and occasionally broken with hills and eminences. Although disasters of this sort are manifest proofs of a want of ability in the person who holds the chief command, they become infinitely more disgraceful when a general runs headlong into a snare, as Euripidas did, without having sufficient courage to attempt a daring enterprise; for it certainly remains with ourselves to determine, whether we chase to move into an impracticable country; and it equally rests with us to avoid stratagems and snares.

All this, however depends upon a knowledge of the country into which the war is carried; and as it is impossible to be in possession of the requisite information without some extraneous means, every general ought to lay it down as a maxim, not to advance into a mountainous country, without having a good number of intelligent and faithful guides. These, in addition to some able topographers, will prevent the possibility of being surprised, and make him thoroughly master of all the passes, &c.

It is not, however, sufficient to be in possession of the heights that immediately command a valley into which an army has moved; in proportion as you advance, you must be certain, that the enemy who retreats before, is not insensibly winding round a second range of
of hills, to get upon your flanks, or ultimately fall upon your rear.

It moreover frequently happens, that some valleys have not any outlets, and that others become so narrow, that an army is under the necessity of marching by single files, in order to reach a more open piece of ground, or to get at some important pass for the purpose of intercepting or obstructing the march of an enemy.

When it is found necessary to retreat, or to march over a country, as Hannibal did over the Alps, it is of little consequence what steps or measures you take, with regard to those parts which you are abandoning; but when you advance against an enemy, and are determined to dispute his march through a valley or hollow way, you must adopt every precaution to secure your rear and flanks, lest, as we have already observed, your antagonist should take advantage of the various passes and intricate bye-ways, which are found in a mountainous country; and it must always be remembered, that many coups de main, and daring enterprises, may be undertaken by four or five hundred active partizans, which an army would find impracticable.

An able general cannot have a better, or more favourable field to exercise his military genius in, than that which is afforded by a mountainous country. All the chicané and stratagem of war may be resorted to; and however weak an army might be, yet such are the manifold resources of this peculiar kind of contest, that there is scarcely any thing which may not be attempted, provided the officer, who commands, has a thorough knowledge of the country, is fertile in expedients, and has a calm determined mind. Many instances might be adduced to illustrate these observations; we shall be satisfied with stating, that the Prince of Conti, in the campaign of 1744, which he so ably conducted, owes a considerable part of his reputation to the scope afforded to his talents by the locality of Piedmont. This country, indeed, as well as Switzerland, seems to have been cut out as the peculiar theatre of great military talents.

But neither the Prince de Conti, nor the First Consul of France, Bonaparte, (now Emperor,) would have succeeded in the brilliant manner, which they most unquestionably have done, had not the science of topography seconded the natural advantages of that mountainous part of Europe.

MONTÉ, Fr. This word is used among the French to express what we mean by carry; as, un vaissseau monté de cinquante pieces de canon: a ship that carries fifty guns, or a fifty gun ship.

MONT-joie-Saint-Denis, Fr. a sort of war-hoop which was practised during the reigns of the first kings of France. A French writer observes, that so many traditions and accounts have been given of its origin, and those so contradictory among themselves, that the least said is the best. This cry or war-hoop was adopted under Louis-le-gros, and was wholly laid aside under Henry the 4th. See Cri des Armes.

MONTER un Cavalier, Fr. to equip a cavalry-officer. We also use the term, but chiefly in the passive sense—as an officer well mounted; that is equipped with a good horse and the necessary furniture, &c.

MONTER à l'assaut, Fr. See MOUNT the breach.

MONTER la garde, Fr. See to MOUNT guard.

MONTER la tranchée, Fr. See To mount the trenches.

MONTER un Vaissseau, Fr. to embark on board a ship.

MONTER, Fr. This word likewise means to rise from one rank to another, in the way of promotion, as from cornet or ensign to become lieutenant, from lieutenant to become captain, or from having the command of the youngest company, to be promoted to that of the oldest.

MONTH, considered as a military period, in the British service, consists alternately of 30 and 31 days, commencing on the 24th, and ending on the 25th day (inclusive) of each month, properly so called.

MONTHLY Abstract. See PAY.

MONTHLY Return. See Return.


MONTHLY Inspection. See Regimental Inspection.

MONT-Pagnote, ou Poste des invulnérables, Fr.: an expression which is derived from Pagnote, a coward, a poltroon. It signifies any eminence or place from whence the operations of a siege, or the actual
actual conflict of two armies, may be seen without personal danger to the curious observer. It is a term of reproach: C'est un Général qui voit le combat du Mont-Pagnote; he is one of those generals that look on whilst others fight.—During the American war a particular body of men, who seemed to side with the British, were called Invulnerables.

Mont-Pagnote, in fortification, an eminence where persons post themselves out of the reach of cannon, to see a camp, siege, battle, &c. without being exposed to danger. It is also called the post of the invulnerables.

MONTRE, Fr. the review, or muster of the men. Le régiment a fait montre devant le commissaire. The regiment has passed muster before the commissary. Les officiers mirent leur valets dans les rangs, et les firent passer à la montre. The officers put their servants in the ranks, and made them pass muster.

Montre likewise signified, in the old French service, the money which was paid to soldiers every month, when they passed muster. Il a reçu sa montre; he has received his monthly pay.

MONTURE, Fr. the complement of men, and number of cannon, on board a French ship of war.

Monture d'un fusil, d'un pistolet, Fr. the stock of a gun or pistol.

MONUMENT, (Monument, Fr.)—in a military sense, any public edifice, pillar, or mark of distinction, which is exhibited to perpetuate the memory of some illustrious character.

MOOTIANA, Ind. soldiers employed to collect the revenue.

MOQUA, MUCK, a frenzied riot of some Mahometans, who have returned from Mecca, against those who have not professed Mahometanism. This horrid custom was practised during the late war, by the Malays, both at the island of Ceylon, and at the Cape of Good Hope. In the latter place indeed, the fanaticism of one of these blind enthusiasts went so far, that he stabbed a soldier who stood sentinel at the governor's gate. His intention was to have destroyed the governor. He that runs the Moqua, or Muck, gets intoxicated with bung, or opium, loosens his hair, (which is generally bound up under a handkerchief) then takes a dagger (called a crease) in his hand, whose blade is usually half poisoned, and in the handle of which there is some of his mother's or father's hair preserved, and running about the streets kills all those he meets, who are not Mahometans, till he is killed himself; pretending to believe, that he serves God and Mahomet, by destroying their enemies. When one of these madmen is slain, all the Mahometan rabble run to him, and bury him like a saint; every one contributing his mite towards making a noble burial.

MORAILLE, Fr. barnacles. An instrument made commonly of iron for the use of farriers, to hold a horse by the nose, to hinder him from struggling when an incision is made.

Le MORAL, Fr. This word is frequently used among the French, as a substantive of the masculine gender, to express the moral condition of man. It likewise means the prepossession or assurance which we feel in conscious superiority, viz. Quand les Anglais se battent sur mer, ils ont le moral pour eux, les Français l'ont sur terre.

MORASS, in military drawings, denotes moor, marshy, or fenzy low grounds, on which waters are lodged.

MORATTOES, Mahattas, a considerable Hindoo tribe in Hindostan. Their army is chiefly composed of cavalry, and they excel in the management of their horses. The only weapon which is used by them in war is a sabre, extremely well tempered, and carefully chosen. Their dress, when accoutred for action, consists of a quilted jacket of cotton cloth, which descends half way down their thighs, and of a thin linen vest, which is fitted close to the body, and is always worn under the jacket. They wear upon their head a broad turban, which is made to reach to the shoulders, for the double purpose of covering the neck from the heat of the sun, and of shielding it against the enemy's sabre. Their thighs and legs are covered with a loose kind of trowsers, or cotton over-hose. They are extremely temperate, and pay the most minute attention to their horses.

It is now a century that the Morattoes have made a figure, as the most enterprising soldiers of Hindostan; and as the only nation of Indians, which seems to make war an occupation by choice; for the Raipouts are soldiers by birth. Of late years they have often been
been at the gates of Delhi; sometimes in arms against the throne: at others, in defiance of it against the Afghans or Pisans. The strength of their armies consists in their numerous cavalry, which is more capable of resisting fatigue than any in India; large bodies of them having been known to march fifty miles in a day. They avoid general engagements, and seem to have no other idea in making war, but that of doing as much mischief as possible to the enemy's country.

MORDRE la pousière, Fr. literally means to bite the dust; a figurative expression, which is used both in French and English, to express the act of being killed in battle.

MOREAU, Fr. a species of bag in which the drivers of mules use to carry their hay. It is likewise the name of a celebrated French general, who by his able retreat out of Germany, during the most disastrous period of the French Republic, has acquired more real reputation, as a general, than any of his cotemporaries, or perhaps any commander of ancient celebrity. We have to lament, that the character of such a man should latterly have been shaded, by a want of manhood and intrepidity, which Pichegru and George possessed.

MORGAY, a deadly weapon.

MORION, Fr. Donner sur le morion. This was a species of punishment which was formerly inflicted upon French soldiers for crimes that were not capital. They were shut up in a guard-house, and received a certain number of strokes with a halbert. The gantelope was substituted in its stead; but neither one nor the other are practised in the present French army.

MORISON. See Helmet, Casque, &c.

MORT d'Eau, Fr. low water.

MORTARS, are a kind of short cannon, of a large bore, with chambers: they are made of stone, brass, or iron.—Their use is to throw hollow shells, filled with powder; which, falling on any building, or into the works of a fortification, burst, and their fragments destroy every thing within reach. Carcasses are also thrown out of them. These are a sort of shells, with 5 holes, filled with pitch and other combustibles, in order to set buildings on fire; and sometimes baskets full of stones, the size of a man's fist, are thrown out of them upon an enemy, placed in the covert-way during a siege. The very ingenious general Desaguliers contrived to throw bags, filled with grape-shot, containing in each bag, from 400 to 500 shot of different dimensions, out of mortars; the effect of which is extremely awful and tremendous to troops forming the line of battle, passing a defile, or landing, &c. pouring down shot, not unlike a shower of hail, on a circumference of above 300 feet. They are distinguished chiefly by the diameter of the bore. For example, a 13-inch mortar is that, the diameter of whose bore is 13 inches. There are some of 10 and 8-inch diameters; and some of a smaller sort, as coehorns of 4.6 inches, and royals of 5.8 inches.

All English mortars are fixed to an angle of 45 degrees, and custom has prevailed to lash them strongly with ropes to that elevation. In a siege, shells should never be thrown with an angle of 45 degrees, excepting in one case only; that is, when the battery is so far off that they cannot otherwise reach the works: for when shells are thrown out of the trenches into the works of a fortification, or from the town into the trenches, they should have as little elevation as possible, in order to roll along, and not bury themselves; whereby the damage they do, and the terror they cause to the troops, is much greater than if they sink into the ground. On the contrary, when shells are thrown upon magazines, or any other buildings, with an intention to destroy them, the mortars should be elevated as high as possible, that the shells may acquire a greater force in their fall, and consequently do more execution. We are the only nation that fix mortars to an elevation of 45 degrees.

The use of mortars is thought to be older than that of cannon; for they were employed in the wars of Italy to throw balls of red-hot iron, and stones, long before the invention of shells. It is generally believed, that the Germans were the first inventors, and that they were actually used at the siege of Naples, in the reign of Charles VIII, in 1435. History informs us, with more certainty, that shells were thrown out of mortars at the siege of Wachtendonk, in Guelderland, in 1558, by the Earl of Mansfield.
Mansfield. Shells were first invented by a citizen of Venlo, who, on a festival, celebrated in honor of the Duke of Cleves, threw a certain number, one of which fell on a house, and set fire to it; by which misfortune the greatest part of the city was reduced to ashes.

Mr. Malter, an English engineer, first taught the French the art of throwing shells, which they practised at the siege of Motte, in 1654. The method of throwing red-hot balls out of mortars, was first put in practice, with certainty, at the siege of Svalensund, in 1673, by the elector of Brandenburg; though some say in 1653, at the siege of Bremen.

Land-Mortars, are those used in sieges, and of late in battles, mounted on beds; and both mortar and bed are transported on block-carriages. There is also a kind of land-mortars, mounted on travelling carriages, invented by Count Bückeburg, which may be elevated to any degree; whereas ours, as we have already stated, are fixed to an angle of 45 degrees, and are firmly lashed with ropes.

Partridge Mortar, is a common mortar, surrounded by 13 other little mortars, bored round its circumference in the body of its metal. The center one is loaded with a shell, and the others with grenades. The vent of the large mortar being fired, communicates its fire to the small ones; so that both shell and grenades go off at once. The French used them in the war of 1701, and more especially at the siege of Lisle, in 1708, and at the defence of Boulogne, in 1702.

Hand-Mortars were frequently used before the invention of coehorns. They were fixed at the end of a staff of 4½ feet long, the other end being shod with iron to stick in the ground: while the bombardier, with one hand, elevated it at pleasure, he with the other hand fired.

Firelock-Mortars, Bombards, are small mortars, fixed at the end of a firelock: they are loaded as all common firelocks are; and the grenade, placed in the mortar at the end of the barrel, is discharged by a flint-lock; and, to prevent the recoil hurt among the bombardier, the bombard rests on a kind of halberd, made for that purpose. They were first invented by major-general Siebach, a German, about the year 1710.

Names of the several parts of a Mortar.

Grand Divisions exterior, viz.—The whole length of the mortar, muzzle, chace, reinforce, breech, trunnions.

Small divisions exterior—The vent, dolphins, vent astragal and fillets, breech ring and ogee, reinforce ring and ogee, reinforce astragal and fillets, muzzle astragal and fillets, muzzle ring and ogee, muzzle mouldings, shoulders.

Interior parts. Chamber, bore, mouth, vent.

Chamber in Mortars, is the place where the powder is lodged. There are different sorts, and made variously by different nations. The Spaniards use chiefly the spheric; the French, Germans, and Dutch, the conic, cylindric, and the concave or bottled; the Portuguese, at present, the parabolic; and the English make them in the form of a frustum of a cone. Each nation has its reasons, good or bad, to prefer their make before that of others: among which we are of opinion, that the concave and cylindric chambers are the best.

Sca-Mortars, are those which are fixed in the bomb-vessels, for bombarding places by sea: they are made somewhat longer, and much heavier than the land mortars.

Land-Mortar-Beds, are made of very solid timber, and placed upon very strong timber frames, fixed in the bomb ketch; to which a pintle is attached in such a manner, that the bed may turn round. The fore part of these beds is an arc of a circle, described from the same centre as the pintle-hole.

Stone-Mortars, serve to throw stones into the enemy’s works, when near at hand; such as from the town into the trenches in the covert-way, or upon the glacis; and from these trenches into the town. The bore is terminated by two quadrants of a circle, terminated by the reinforce and lines drawn from the ends of the cylinder, made to lodge the toupions parallel to the axis of the mortar. The bottom of the conic chamber is terminated by an arc of 60 degrees, and the round part of the outside is a semi-circle.

Chambers in Mortars, are of different sorts and dimensions. Mr. Belidor mentions four; namely, the cylindric, the spheric, the conic, and the concave.
concave or bottled; to which a fifth may be added, the parabolic, invented by count de Mippe Buckeburg.

**Cylindric chambers.** This kind of chamber is, in our opinion, for all sorts of mortars under a 15-inch diameter, the best. They are the only kind of chambers that may be conveniently loaded with cartridges. Though experience demonstrates, that concave chambers will throw the shell farthest of any with the same charge, yet, in this case, where but little powder is required, their entrance would become too narrow, and consequently inconvenient to clean; whereas, when they are cylindrical, the difference between the advantages of the one and the other will be but little, and not attended with any inconveniences.

**Conic chambers,** are generally made in a circular form at the bottom, so that the sides produced, meet the extremities of the diameter at the mouth; it being imagined, we suppose, that the powder acts in right lines parallel to the sides of the chamber; but, as that is not the case, we conclude, contrary to Belidor and others, that the conic chambers are the worst of all.

**Spheric chambers,** are much inferior to the cylindric or concave; for it is well known by the properties of geometry, that when a cylinder and a frustum of a cone occupy equal spaces, the surface of the cone is always greater than that of the cylinder. Hence, if the entrance of these chambers be not made very narrow, contrary to practice, as demonstrated by Mr. Muller, in his second edition of artillery, page 38, of the introduction, and the examples that follow, we conclude that these and the conic chambers are the worst.

**Concave chambers.** The advantage of these kinds of chambers consists in this, that their entrance may be made narrower than that of any other form; and practice has sufficiently proved it. Yet, when the entrance is so small as not to admit a man's hand, they are not easily cleaned: for which reason all 13 and 10-inch mortars should have concave chambers, and the others cylindric ones.

**Parabolic chambers.** These chambers, being the widest of any, may therefore be included among the worst; as it is not the inward figure of the chamber, but its entrance, which produces the effect; because the smaller it is, the nearer it reduces the effect into the direction of the shell. It has, however, one advantage, namely, that the shells will have no windage.

**Mortar,** in military architecture, a composition of lime, sand, &c. mixed up with water, that serves as a cement to bind the stones, &c. of any building. Mine sand makes weak mortar, and the rounder the sand, the stronger the mortar; and if the sand is washed before it is mixed, so much the better.

The proportion of lime and sand for making mortar is extremely variable. Some use three parts of pit-sand, and two of river-sand, to one of lime; others, a proportion of sand to quick-lime, as 36 to 35. It should be well mixed, and beat every 24 hours for a week together, letting it then lie for a week more; and when it is used, must be beat and mixed again. By this means it will make good mortar, though the lime is but indifferent.

**Mortar for water-courses, cisterns,** &c. is made of lime and hog's lard; sometimes mixed with the juice of figs, and sometimes with liquid pitch, which is first slaked with wine; and, after application, it is washed over with linseed oil.

**Mortar for furnaces,** &c. is made with red clay wrought in water, wherein horse dung and chimney-soot have been steeped; by which a salt is communicated to the water, that binds the clay, and makes it fit to endure the fire. The clay must not be too fat, lest it should be subject to chinks: nor too lean or sandy, lest it should not bind enough.

**Mortar,** made of terras, pozolana, tile-dust, or cinders, is mixed and prepared in the same manner as common mortar; only these ingredients are mixed with lime instead of sand in a due proportion, which is to be in equal quantities. As this mortar is to be used in aquatic buildings, the lime should be the very best.

In fortifications, docks, or piers of harbours, you should lay all the works under water with terras-mortar, and the rest of the fashings, both within and without, with cinder or tile-dust mortar, for about two feet deep.

**Mortar battery.** We are informed that a floating mortar battery, for the bombardment of the enemy's ports, has been
been invented by Mr. Congreve, son of General Congreve, of the artillery, which is proof both against shells and red hot balls. It is said to be so contrived, that though provided both with masts and sails for any voyage, yet it can be securely disposed of in less than a quarter of an hour, so that the battery then presents nothing but a mere hull, with sloping sides, upon the water, which is rowed by forty men under cover of the bomb-proofs, and may, by the peculiar construction of the masts and rigging, be brought under sail again, as expeditiously as dismantled. The rudder and moorings are entirely under water, and protected by the bomb-proof, so that no disapprobation as to them can possibly arise. The battery is armed with four large mortars for bombardment, and four 42-pounder carronades for self-defence, though, from being covered with plates and bars of iron, she can neither be set fire to, nor carried by boarding. Four such vessels, though they are not more than 250 tons burthen each, and draw less than 12 feet water, would throw upwards of 500 shells into any place in one tide, and with the greatest effect and precision, both because from their construction they have nothing to apprehend from approaching the enemy's batteries, and because, from the peculiar contrivance of the mortar-beds, the elevation of the mortars is not affected by the rolling or pitching of the vessel. Several of our most eminent naval men have seen and approved of the contrivance; and, it is said, that Ministers have attended to this gentleman's plans, and have it in contemplation to institute, with all expedition, vigorous and regular bombardments of such of the enemy's ports as contain any considerable accumulation of their flotilla.

MORTELLA, MORTELLO, or MORTILLA TOWER, a small castle erected for the defence of a coast. According to Captain Gros, the word is derived from Morta, from whence morte or mort which anciently signified a castle. Thus morta de Windsor is used for Windsor Castle, in the agreement between King Stephen and Henry Duke of Normandy. So that Mortella may readily be considered as the diminutive of Morta.

There are, however, some very respectable authorities which differ from the above etymology, from which we have selected the following:

MORTELLO, MERTOLA, or much more probably MArtello TOWERS, from the Italian "Sonare le Campana a Martello," to sound the alarm bell; which, in parts of Italy (as the Carillons are in Flanders, &c.), is struck by hammers. Thus also, Beacon-Points in Corsica and Greece, are called Martello Cape. In old French also, the word, for the same thing (now marteau), was Martel; and "Martel en tete," the old adage for a rumour of annoyance and alarm. Though this might derive too from the popular abhorrence of Charles Martel's administration! that demon of taxation! the proverbial curse of his country, for oppressions and impositions the most abominably vile! Mortello has no discoverable affinity to any place, language, or known man. For Mertola, there is, only, the name of a place in the West of Spain.

The effectual resistance which can be made by a small party, in one of these towers, is sufficiently proved by the following extract of a letter from Lord Hood, dated Victory, St. Fiorenzo, February 22, 1794:

"On the 7th, Commodore Linzee anchored in a bay to the westward of Martella Point, with the several ships and transports under his command.—The troops were mostly landed that evening, and possession taken of a height which overlooks the tower of Mortella. The next day, the General (Dundas) and Commodore being of opinion that it was advisable to attack the tower from the bay, the Fortitude and Juno were ordered against it, without making the least impression, by a cannonade continued for two hours and a half; and the former ship being very much damaged by red hot shot, both hauled off. The walls of the tower were of a prodigious thickness, and the parapet, where there were two eighteen-pounders, was lined with bass junk, five feet from the walls, and filled up with sand; and although it was cannonaded from the height for two days, within 150 yards, and appeared in a very shattered state, the enemy still held out; but a few hot shot setting fire to the bass, made them call for quarters."
MOT

The number of men in the tower was thirty-three; only two were wounded, and those mortally.”

MORTES-Payes, Fr. Soldiers that were paid for the constant duty of a town or fortified place, both in time of peace and war. Infantry regiments, which were occasionally stationed in citadels and garrisoned towns, took the right of the MORTES-Payes, and had the precedence in chusing lodgings.

MORTIERS Pierriers, Fr. See STONE MORTARS.

MORTIER Perdreau ou à Perdreaux, Fr. See PARTRIDGE MORTAR.

MORTIER à la Cohorn, Fr. A small mortar which is used only to throw grenades. It is so called from that celebrated engineer, who first adopted it.

MORTISE, a hole cut in wood, so that another piece may be fitted into it.

Les MORTS, Fr. The dead on a field of battle are so called.

MOT, Fr. Parole, watchword. This word bears the same import in French that it does in English. See PAROLE.

Donner le Mot, Fr. To give the parole, or watchword.

Alter prendre le Mot, Fr. To go for the parole or watchword.

On l'envoya porter le Mot, Fr. he was sent with the parole or watchword.

In the French service parole and countersign are frequently comprehended under the word mot, viz. Le mot qu'on avait donné le jour du combat, était Saint Louis et Paris; which according to the English method of giving out orders would have stood thus: Parole St. Louis, countersign Paris. See MOTS.

Mot du guet, Fr. See GUET.

Mot de Ralliement, Fr. A word given to any armed body of men, who either attack or are attacked, and which serves as a rallying point amongst them. At the battle of Malplaquet the commanding officer of the regiment of Navarre gave out in orders as a mot de ralliement, Notre dame de frappe-fort, or our holy lady (meaning the virgin) that strikes home. The virgin was the regimental patroness; and the term had such an effect upon the soldiers, that they fought with unusual intrepidity. So true is the remark, that a disposition to pleasantry among the French, manifests itself on the most trying, and most melancholy occasions.

MOTHIR al Mooluc. In Indian fortification, barricades, intrenchments, or breastworks, are so called.

MOTION, is defined to be the continued and successive change of place. There are three general laws of motion:

1. That a body always perseveres in its state of rest, or of uniform motion in a right line, till by some external force it be made to change its place: for as a body is passive in receiving its motion, and the direction of its motion, so it retains them without any change, till it be acted on by something external.

2. The second general law of motion is, that the change of motion is proportional to the force impressed, and is produced in the right line in which that force acts.

3. The third general law of motion is, that action and reaction are equal, with opposite directions, and are to be estimated always in the same right line.

Motion. A word bearing the same signification in the British service, as tenu does in the French. It is peculiarly applicable to the manual and platoon exercise; as, draw ramrod, which is done in two motions—Tirez la baguette en deux tems. Motion, in a military sense, is distinguished from movement, inasmuch as the former applies specifically to something done by an individual, with an instrument of war, as handling the musquet; whereas the latter is generally understood to mean the different changes, &c. which are made in evolutions, &c. Motion is the particular adjunct of the manual, and movement that of evolution. The French make the same distinction with respect to Maniement.

Motion, (Mouvement, Fr.) generally so called, a continual and successive change of place.

Motion equal or uniform, (mouvement égal, ou uniforme) that by which a body runs equal spaces in equal times; such are the motions of celestial bodies.

Motion absolute, (mouvement absolu, Fr.) is a mutation or change of absolute space, and its celerity is measured according to absolute space.

Motion relative, (mouvement relatif, Fr.) is a change or mutation of relative place, and its celerity is measured according to relative space.

Motion equally accelerated, (mouvement
Motion (uniformément accéléré, Fr.) is such whose velocity equally increases in equal times.

Motion equally retarded, (mouvement uniformément retardé) is such whose velocity equally decreases, in equal times, till the body comes to rest.

Motion of an army, (mouvements d'une armée, Fr.) are the various changes which it undergoes in marching from one place to another; these are more generally understood by the term movement.

Motions militaires, Fr. This term was formerly used among the French to signify the various evolutions which an army or regiment might be put through. It has been succeeded by évolutions militaires, which seems a more comprehensive expression.

Motions of the firelock during the manual and platoon exercise. Motion in this sense is expressed by tems among the French. These consist of those prescribed methods which have been explained under Manual.

It is observed in the General Regulations, page 22, that every recruit in the British service, must be taught and practised in the following motions of the firelock until he be perfect in them; they being necessary for the ease of the soldier in the course of the exercise:—Supporting arms, carrying arms, ordering arms, standing at ease, attention, shouldering from the order; and, we presume, securing arms, especially as it is now introduced in the new manual.

The recruit must be accustomed to carry his arms for a considerable time together; it is most essential he should do so, and not be allowed to support them so often as is practised. We certainly agree with the sensible compiler of the General Rules and Regulations when he says, that long carrying arms is not a position of too much constraint.

The new mode of carrying (which is with extended arm,) is certainly less fatiguing than supporting, since the former leaves the circulation of the blood free, and the latter binds the soldier's arm at the elbow. The French allow great latitude in carrying the musquet, especially in marching and manoeuvring. The men are frequently permitted to slope arms.

Motion compound (mouvement com-

post, Fr.) is the motion of one body impelled by two different powers.

Motion of projection (mouvement de projection, Fr.), that by which bodies are impelled through the air, or through any other fluid. A shell which is forced out of a mortar by means of inflammable gunpowder has a motion of projection.

Motion of vibration, or vibrating motion (mouvement de vibration, Fr.), is the circular motion of a body, which is generally round or spherical.

Motion of undulation, or undulating motion, (mouvement d'undulation, Fr.) a circular motion which is perceptible in water, when any hard substance is thrown into it.

Motion of an enemy, (mouvement d'un ennemi, Fr.) The different marches, positions, &c. which an enemy takes, are so called.

To watch the Motions of an enemy (guetter un ennemi, Fr.) To keep a good look-out by means of a regular communication between head quarters, and the outposts of your army. On a large scale, the business of an army of observation is chiefly confined to this species of service. On a more limited one, the duty is frequently entrusted to partisans and light troops.

Motion of a bomb or ball. The progress which a bomb or ball makes through the air may be said to consist of three sorts, after it has been delivered out of the mortar, or emitted from a gun or musquet. These are:—

The violent Motion, or first explosion, when the powder has worked its effect upon the ball, so far as the bomb or ball may be supposed to move in a right line.

The mixed Motion, or yielding impulse, when the natural weight of the bomb or ball begins to overcome the force which was given by the gunpowder.

The natural Motion, or exhaustion of the first impulse. This occurs when the bomb or ball is falling to the ground.

To Motion a thing, to propose it in a military or civil meeting.

Motion, Fr. This word has been adopted by the French, to convey the same meaning that it does in English, namely, a proposition; hence appuyer la motion dans une assemblée; to support a motion in a public assembly or meeting.
meeting. *Délibérer sur la motion,* to deliberate upon the motion. *Retirer la motion,* to withdraw one's motion. *Rejeter la motion* to throw out the motion.

**MOTS d'ordre et de ralliement, Fr.** In a recent publication written by Paul Thibault, adjutant general on the French staff, the following explanation is given of paroles and countersigns, which may be considered as the free translation of *Mots,* with this exception, that the *mot de ralliement* seems peculiarly used in the French service.—Among us the parole and countersign only are practised, and their distinct import seems so little understood, that we shall not hesitate to give the whole article from the French.

The *Mots d'ordre et de ralliement,* consist of three distinct and separate words, which are chosen for the specific purpose of enabling the soldiers belonging to the same army, to be in perfect intelligence with one another, especially during the night.

These three words are composed in the following manner, viz. Le *Mort d'ordre,* or what we call the parole, must be taken from the name of some deceased person, to which must be added that of some town or country.

The *mot de ralliement* must consist of a substantive, which does not relate either to the name of a man, the name of a town, or the name of a country.

These three words are given out every morning from head quarters, and are delivered, sealed up, to the officers of the different guards, and to those persons who are entrusted with the command of an outpost, or have the charge of a patrol.

The *Mort d'ordre,* or parole, must never be confided beyond officers and non-commissioned officers; the *mot de ralliement* may in some cases be given to sentinels that are stationed at some distance from the outposts; but those should invariably consist of old soldiers, whose fidelity and courage can be depended on.

The *mot d'ordre,* or parole, as well as the *mot de ralliement,* is always given out from head quarters; nor ought any general or commanding officer to take upon himself to alter either, except under circumstances so peculiarly urgent, that the good of the service would justify the change. Among these circumstances may be considered, the desertion of a sentinel from the out-post, and the strong presumption, that the enemy has been made acquainted with the words, &c. Whenever this necessity occurs, all the commanding officers who have any communication with that quarter from whence the parole was issued, should instantly be made acquainted with the alteration.

With respect to the manner in which these words are to be delivered out, and the frequency of their circulation, the whole must depend upon circumstances. When an army or body of troops lies at some distance from the enemy, they are usually forwarded to the different quarters, camps, or cantonments, for five, ten, or fifteen days together. When close to an enemy, they are given out, as we have already observed, every day. When there is no ground to apprehend a surprise or attack, one word will be sufficient for each day: but, in critical cases, the parole must be changed two or three times during the night. If several corps are cantonned together, the *mot d'ordre* or parole, must be sent to the officer commandant in the cantonment. When the troops are encamped, it is generally sent to the commanding officer of each regiment, and seldom to the commandant of each brigade.

The *mot,* or parole, must always be given out during the day, except in cases of emergency; and it must never be delivered to any person, unless the individual who is entrusted with it be fully convinced, that he is authorised to receive it. It ought indeed to be given personally to him only to whom it is addressed by name.—*Manuel des Adjutans-Généraux,* p. 112-13-14.

**MOTTO.** Any sentence, either with or without a badge by which any regiment is particularly distinguished; as, for example, the 3d of foot, or Buffs, have a griffin embossed as their badge, and the motto, *Vexer froidescit honore.* The various military orders have also different mottoes. See *Garter, Bath, Thistle,* &c. also *Devise, Fr.*

**MOUCHARD, Fr.* a domestic spy, an informer. Among the French it more particularly means a person who is employed...
ployed to watch the motions of any marked man. Creatures of this infamous, although perhaps necessary, class, were constantly attached to the police of France. The term is known amongst us. These Gentlemen have been called, humourously enough, Reporters. In a military sense, neither the term nor the practice can be properly understood; at least we should hope so, as it is beneath the high mind of a soldier to fetch and carry.

MOVEABLE PIVOT. When the pivot flank of any body of men describes in the wheel a smaller circle than the wheeling flank, the wheel is said to be made on a moveable pivot.

MOVEMENT, (mouvement, Fr.).—Under this term are comprehended all the different evolutions, marches, countermarches and manœuvres which are made in tactics for the purpose of retreating from, or of approaching towards an enemy. It also includes the various dispositions which take place in pitching a camp, or arranging a line of battle. The science of military movements forms one of the principal features in the character of a great commander. If he be full of resources in this important branch, he may oftentimes defeat an enemy without even coming to blows; for to conceal one's movements requires great art and much ingenuity.

MOVEMENT. According to the Regulations, printed by authority, every inspecting general is directed to report minutely and comparatively on the performance by each battalion of the great leading points of movement. He is particularly to observe and specify

Whether or not

The original formation is according to order. The marches are made with accuracy, at the required times and length of step, and on such objects as are given.

The proper distances in column and echelon are at all times preserved.

The wheelings are made just, and in the manner prescribed.

The formations into line are made true, without false openings, or necessity of correction.

The officers are alert in their changes of situation, exact in their own personal movements, and loud, decided, and pointed, in their words of command.

The march in line is uniformly steady, without floating, opening, or closing.

The march in file, close, firm, and without lengthening out.

The officers, and under officers, give the aids required of them with due quickness and precision.

Hurry and unnecessary delay, are equally avoided.

In the firings the loading is quick, the levelling is just, the officers animated and exact in their commands.—See p. 270, Infantry Regulations.

MOVEMENTS. In cavalry movements the following great leading points should be attended to by every inspecting general, independent of the circumstances which relate to the dress and general appearance of man and horse, the exercise on foot, &c. &c.

He must particularly observe and specify in his communications to the commander in chief,

Whether or not

The original formation of squadrons and regiments be according to order.

The marches made with accuracy, at the paces required, and on such objects as have been given.

The proper distances in column are at all times preserved.

The wheelings are made quick, just, and in the manner prescribed.

The formations into line are made true in the intended direction, without false openings, or necessity of correction; or that corrections, when necessary, are instantly made.

The changes of position are made with due celerity and justness.

The officers are alert in their changes of situation, exact in their own personal movements, and loud, decided, and pointed in their words of command.

The march in line is uniformly steady, without opening, floating, or closing.

The flank march is compact, firm, and without improperly lengthening out.

The officers and under officers give the aids required of them with due quickness and precision.

N. B. Hurry and delay in military movements, are two extremes which should be equally avoided.

In the firings, the loading is quick, the
the levelling is just, and the officers firm in their command.

The officers, non-commissioned officers, and men ride well, and the horses are active, vigorous, and well broken.—See p. 341, Cavalry Regulations.

Movements, in a general sense, may be considered under the following heads, viz. 1st, Offensive movements; the great advantage which attends this movement, consists in the measure having been previously determined upon, and a consequent preparation made for rapid execution before the design is obvious.—Much, however, will depend, upon the justness of the distances, and of the march in column, having been so taken as to allow of decisive operations.—Manoeuvre will chiefly operate where an enemy is inferior in number, inexpert in movement, weakly posted, and where the weak point is found out, and is attacked before he can move to strengthen it.

Counter Movements of defence, are movements calculated to defeat any premeditated attack. According to the Regulations they may be briefly explained, by observing, that if the flank of one body is thrown forward, that of the other may by similar means be thrown back. If one body prolongs its line to outflank, the other may by the same movement maintain its relative situation. Whatever change of position is made by one body, the other may counteract it by a similar change. If the wing of one body is refused, the wing of the other may be advanced to seize an advantage.

Movements of previous formation, are military dispositions which every general must have carefully digested, before he advances upon a direct line of offensive operations. A body of troops, which has a considerable march to make previous to the attack, must always approach an enemy in one, or more columns, at open or other distances, according to circumstances.—Some general knowledge of an enemy's situation, determines the manner in which he is to be approached, the composition of the columns, the flank of each which leads, and their combination in forming. A nearer view determines a perseverance in the first direction, or a change in the leading flanks, and direction of the columns, in order to form in the most speedy and advantageous manner.

Movements of attack, are made by bodies of men advancing in line or column to attack an opposing enemy.—When a considerable body of troops is to act offensively, it must form in line at least within 1200 or 1500 paces of a posted enemy, unless the ground particularly favour, and cover from the fire of the artillery, the enfilade of which is what chiefly prevents bodies in column from approaching nearer; and that space, under the unceasing fire of their own artillery, troops in line will march over in 18 minutes.

Movements of attack, when they are made from a parallel position, must be either in line, or by a flank of the line in echelon, that flank being reinforced, and the other refused; or from a new and advantageous position taken up, and not provided against by the enemy.—From oblique position the attack is directed against a comparatively weak point of the enemy. Attacks from the center are more liable to be enfiladed, and are sooner guarded against than from the flank.

Movements of retreat, are combinations of columns of march, covered by positions, and a strong rear guard. Troops are occasionally taken out of the retiring columns of march, to occupy positions and heights; they remain till the rear has passed, and then become the rear guard; this they continue to be, till they find other troops in like manner posted; these last in their turn become also the rear guard, and in this way are the troops of columns in such situations relieved. A rear guard will fall back by the retreat in line—the chequered retreat—the passage of lines—the echelon changes of position. See page 376, Infantry Regulations.

Movements in echelon of the line.—Echelon, or diagonal movements, especially of a great corps, are calculated not only to disconcert an enemy, but likewise to enable the army, which adopts them, either to make a partial attack, or a gradual retreat. The attack may be formed from the center, or from either of the wings reinforced.—If successful, the divisions move up into line to improve the advantage: if repulsed, they are in a good situation to protect
protect the retreat. In advancing, the several bodies move independent, act freely, and are ready to assist; in retiring, they fall gradually back on each other, and thereby give mutual aid and support. Echelon movements, in fact, comprize within themselves all the essential principles of extension and compression, which are found in close or open column, with the additional advantage of being better adapted to throw a considerable line into an oblique position, of presenting a narrow front, with the means of increasing it at pleasure, unexposed to the enemy's fire, and of diminishing it with the same facility and safety.

Echelon Movements on an oblique line, are best calculated to outwitting an enemy, or to preserve the points of appui of a wing; possessing this advantage, that such movement may not be perceptible to the enemy, as it consists of short and independent lines, which, when seen at a distance, appear as if a full line.

Echelon movements by half battalions or less, are made by their directing flank, which is always the one advanced from, or wheeled to. Echelon movements by whole battalions, are governed by their advanced serjeants.—Echelon movements by several battalions, are made in line, each by its own center, and the whole by the battalion next the directing flank. See page 324, Infantry Regulations.

Movements that are made in face of an enemy. (Mouvements devant l'ennemi, Fr.) There is no operation in war which requires so much nicety, precision, and judgment, as that of retracting in the presence of an enemy. Every movement from the direct line of battle is more or less critical; but when a regiment is obliged to retire under the eye, and perhaps the fire of a pursuing foe, the utmost presence of mind is required in the officers who command, and the greatest steadiness in the men. In a situation of this sort it becomes the peculiar duty of the major, to see that every change of manoeuvre, and every movement, be made with promptitude and accuracy. For although he is subordinate to others, and must, of course, follow superior directions, yet so much of the executive duty rests with him, that his character and abilities, as an officer, will be more conspicuous on these occasions than in any other. The movements of a corps which retreats, consist in retrograde marches, in line, by alternate companies, in column, by wings, or in square.

Éventail or Fan Movement. This movement is performed on the march, and must be begun at a distance behind the line, proportionate to the body which is to oblique and form. It may be applied to one battalion, but hardly to a more considerable body, which would find great difficulty in the execution. It gives a gradual increase of front during a progressive movement. With justness it can be made on a front division only, not on a central or rear one: in proportion as the leading platoon shortens its step, will the one behind it, and successively each other, come up into line with it. As soon as the colours of the battalion come up, they become the leading point. Although it is an operation of more difficulty, yet if the leading division continues the ordinary, and the obliquing ones take the quick step, till they successively are up with it, a battalion column which is placed behind the flank of a line, may, in this manner, during the march, and when near to the enemy, gradually lengthen out that line. For the manner in which it is performed, see page 170, of Rules and Regulations, Part III.

Vouff or Quick Movement. This movement is frequently resorted to when the head of a considerable open column in march arrives at or near the point from which it is to take an oblique position, facing to its then rear, and at which points its third, fourth, or any other named battalion, is to be placed. The justness of the movement depends on the points in the new direction being taken up quickly, and with precision. On the previous determination that a certain battalion, or division of a battalion, shall pass or halt at the point of intersection; and that every part of the column which is behind that battalion, shall throw itself into open column on the new line behind the point of intersection, ready to prolong or to form the line whenever it comes to its turn. This movement will often take place in the change of position of a second line,
line, and is performed by all those that are behind the division, which is to stop at the point where the old and new lines intersect. And at all times when the open column changes into a direction on which it is to form, and that the division which is to be placed at the point of entry can be determined, it much facilitates the operation to make every thing behind that division gain the new line as quick as possible, without waiting till the head of the column halts.

For elucidation, &c. see pages 311 and 312, Part IV. of Rules and Regulations.

MOUFLE, Fr. a sort of stuffed glove. It is common among the French to say, Il ne faut pas y aller sans moufles; figuratively meaning, that no dangerous enterprise ought to be undertaken without sufficient force to carry it into execution.

MOUILLAGE, Fr. anchorage. MOUILLER, Fr. to anchor; to let go the anchor.

MOULDS, vessels used in casting shot for guns, muskets, carbines, and pistols: the first are of iron, used by the founders, and the others by the artillery in the field, and in garrison.

Laboratory Moulds, are made of wood, for filling and driving all sorts of rockets, and cartridges, &c.

MOULDINGS, of a gun or morter, are all the eminent parts, as squares or rounds, which serve for ornaments: such as the breech-mouldings. The rings, &c. are also called mouldings.

MOULE, Fr. See MOULD.

MOule de fusée volante, Fr. a piece of round wood used in fireworks.

MOULIN, Fr. a mill.

MOULIN à bras portatif, Fr. a species of hand-mill, which was invented in France by Le Sieur de Lavault, and which has been found extremely useful to troops on service. Ten of these mills may be conveniently placed on one wagon.

MOULINET, Fr. a capstan, turnstiles, &c.

MOUND, in old military books, is a term used for a bank or rampart, or other defence, particularly that which is made of earth.

MOUNTEE, an alarm to mount, or go upon some warlike expedition.

Half or small MOUNTINGS. The shirt, shoes, stock, and hose, or stockings, which were formerly furnished by the colonels or commandants of corps every year. This mode of distribution, which engendered a multiplicity of abuses, has been abolished by his Royal Highness the Duke of York: in lieu of which a regulation has taken place, that (if honestly attended to) must be highly beneficial to the soldier.

By a regulation, dated April the 9th, 1800, in lieu of the small articles of clothing, which were annually given, by the colonels of regiments, to non-commissioned officers and private soldiers, and were called small or half mounting, two pair of good shoes, of the value of five shillings and sixpence each, have been substituted. These shoes are to be provided in conformity to a pattern lodged at the office of the comptrollers of the accompts of the army; and patterns of the shoes are to be approved and sealed by the general officers of the Clothing Board, at the same time, and in like manner, as for the clothing: one pair is to be delivered out at the annual period of clothing, and the other pair at the end of six months from that time; and in order to prevent the injury that the shoes might sustain, from remaining a long time in store in the East and West Indies, they are to be forwarded to corps on those stations at two different periods, instead of sending the whole quantity with the clothing.

Should the price of good shoes at any time exceed five shillings and sixpence per pair, the difference, which shall be declared by the Cloathing Board at their first meeting, on or after the 25th of April in each year, is to be charged to the respective accounts of the non-commissioned officers and soldiers receiving them, but with respect to the 5th battalion of the 60th regiment, the difference is to be taken between four shillings and sixpence paid by the colonel, and the actual price declared as above mentioned.

The allowances, directed to be given by the colonels, in lieu of the former small articles, called half-mounting, are to be regularly credited to the men, and to be expended for their use, in such articles as are suitable to the respective climates in which they are serving.
Non-commissioned officers and soldiers of infantry, dying or discharged before the completion of a full year, from the usual day of delivering the annual clothing of their regiments, have no demand whatever on account thereof.

A recruit, who comes into the regiment after the proper time of the delivery of the clothing, is entitled to a pair of shoes at the next delivery of that article.

The compensation money to be given to each sergeant in the infantry in lieu of half-mounting is 0 14 0
To each corporal, drummer, and private 0 11 0

To MOUNT, is a word variously made use of in military matters, as
To MOUNT Cannon, to place any piece of ordnance on its frame, for the more easy carriage and management of it in firing. Hence to dismount is to take cannon from any serviceable position.

To MOUNT a Breach, to run up in a quick and determined manner to any breach made in a wall, &c.

To MOUNT Guard, to do duty in a town or garrison, in a camp, or at out quarters.

To MOUNT, to place on horseback, to furnish with horses; as, twelve thousand men have been well mounted, without any considerable expense to the country. A cavalry regiment may be said to be well or ill mounted; in either of which cases, the commanding officer is generally blameable or praise-worthy.

To mount likewise signifies the act of getting on horseback, according to prescribed military rules; as, to prepare to mount, is when the left hand files move their horses forwards in the manner described under unlink your horses. The whole then put their firelocks into the buckets, and buckle them on, doubling the strap twice round the barrel, come to the front of the horses, fasten the links, throw them over the horses' heads with the left hand round the horses' heads, take their swords, and buckle them tight into the belt, take the bit reins up, then take a lock of the mane, and put it into the left hand, the left foot into the stirrup, and the right hand on the castle of the saddle, waiting for the word mount: when they spring smartly up, and look to the right of the rear. At the next signal, they must throw the leg well over the cloak, and place themselves well in the saddle, with the right hand leaning on the off holster. The men must be careful not to check the horses with the bits in mounting. In mounting and dismounting, the files that move forward must take care to keep their horses straight, and at the prescribed distances from each other; and when mounting, as soon as the gloves are on, belts right, &c. the left files must dress well to the right, putting the horses straight, and leaving distance enough for the right files to come in.

To MOUNT a gun, is either to put the gun into its carriage, or else, when in the carriage, to raise the mouth higher.

MOUNTAINS, called Great and Little St. Bernard, a part of the Alps, situated in the Glacieres of Switzerland, which has been rendered famous in modern history by the passage of the French army under Bonaparte, then First Consul. The following account is extracted from a late French publication, and cannot fail of being interesting to our military readers, as it is told in the plain and simple language of a soldier, who was present during the whole of this astonishing campaign. On the 16th of May, 1800, the van-guard, commanded by General Lasnes, climbed up the mountain: the Austrians, although greatly inferior in number, defended themselves, step by step, and never disappeared till they perceived another corps of the French army descending the mountain of the Little St. Bernard, menacing their rear, and absolutely interrupting their retreat.

The first division of the army, under General Wattrin, followed the movement of the vanguard.

Until this period of time, neither artillery nor ammunition had crossed either eminence; the whole was collected at St. Peter, (a small village at the foot of the mountain) where the park of artillery was established. It appeared at first impossible to transport this heavy and embarrassing ordnance across the mountain; however it was natural to consider the question, what is an army in the present day without artillery?
The artillery corps immediately set about dismounting the cannon, caissons, forges, &c. piecemeal. Gassendi, inspector of ordnance, gave directions for hollowing a number of the trunks of trees in the same manner that wood is hollowed for troughs. The pieces of cannon were deposited in those machines, and after having been drawn up these almost inaccessible heights, by five or six hundred men, according to the weight of metal, were left to slide down the steep declivities. The wheels were carried up on poles; and sledges made expressly for the purpose at Auxonne, conveyed the axle-trees, and the empty caissons; and lastly, mules were loaded with ammunition in boxes made of fir.

The exertion of a whole battalion was requisite for the conveyance of one field piece, with its proportion of ammunition: one half of the regiment could only draw the load, while the other half was obliged to carry the knapsacks, firelocks, cartridge-boxes, canteens, kettles, and more especially five days’ provisions, in bread, meat, salt, and biscuit.

Such was the commencement of the march of the French army across the Alps.

Mounting and Dismounting, when the horses are to be led away. It frequently happens, especially in retreating or advancing, that it may be necessary to cover the defiling of a regiment by dismounting a squadron or part of one, to flank the mouth of a defile.—This is generally effected by lining the hedges, &c. and keeping up a hot fire upon the enemy. It follows, of course, that the horses cannot be linked together, but they must be led away (in a retreat) to the most convenient spot in the defile for the men to mount again. In advancing they must be led to a spot where they will not impede the defiling of the regiment, but where they will be at hand for the dismounted parties to mount.

Guard Mounting, (à la garde montante, Fr.) the hour at which any guard is mounted obtains this appellation; viz. The officers will assemble at guard mounting.

Mourir, Fr. to die.

Mourir d’un bel épée, Fr. a French phrase, which signifies to fall under the hands of an enemy of great skill and reputation.

Mourn, that part of a lance or halbert, to which the steel or blade is fixed.

Mouser, an ironical term, which is sometimes used in the British militia to distinguish battalion men from the flank companies. It is indeed generally applied to them by the grenadiers and light bobs, meaning, that while the latter are detached, the former remain in quarters, like cats, to watch the mice, &c. In the line, and among the guards, they are called buffers.

Mousquet, Fr. musquet. This word, which signifies an old weapon of offence that was formerly fired by means of a lighted match, has been variously used among the French, viz. gros mousquet, a heavy musquet; un petit mousquet, a short musket; un mousquet léger, a light musquet.

Recevoir un coup de Mousquet, Fr. to receive a musquet shot.

Porter le Mousquet dans une campagne d’infanterie, Fr. to stand in the ranks as a foot soldier.

Mousquet Biscayen, Fr. a long heavy musquet which is used in fortified places to annoy reconnoitring parties.

Mousquetaire, Fr. a musquet shot. Il fut tué d’une mousquetaire; he was killed by a musquet shot. This term is generally used to express a smart discharge of musquetry: On a entendu une riche Mousquetaire; they have heard a brisk discharge of musquetry.

Essuyer une Mousquetaire, Fr. to stand or support a discharge of musquetry.

Mousquetaires, Musketeers, Fr. a body of men so called during the old government of France. It consisted of two companies selected from the young men of noble extraction. The first company was formed in 1629, by Louis XIII. out of another company, called his Majesty’s Carabineers. The king was captain, so that the person who commanded had only the rank of captain lieutenant. The company remained up

...
on this footing until 1646, when it was reduced at the instigation of Cardinal Mazarine, who, from personal motives, had taken a decided aversion to it. Louis XIV. restored it in 1657, by the same appellation, and increased the establishment to 150 musketeers. They were commanded by one captain-lieutenant, one sub-lieutenant, two ensigns, and two quarter-masters.

The second company, when first created was attached to Cardinal Mazarine, as his personal guard; but the officers received their commissions from the king. An alteration took place in the management of this company in 1660, the men being incorporated with the rest of the troops that were destined for the immediate protection of his majesty's person. In consequence of this change they did duty on foot, but were again mounted, in order to accompany the expedition against Marshal, which took place that year.

Louis XIV. named himself captain of this company, as well as of the first; and from that period, both companies became subject to the same regulations, with no other difference, than that of precedence as first and second company. From the year 1663, the establishment of each company was 300, exclusive of the officers. They were subsequently reduced to a lower establishment. Having originally been raised to serve on foot or horseback, the musketeers were allowed drums and fifes when they acted as infantry troops; and trumpets when they acted as cavalry. In 1663 hautbois were substituted for fifes and trumpets. It is supposed that mounted drummers were first used among the Mousquetaires du Roi. Previous to the Revolution each of these companies consisted of one captain-lieutenant, two sub-lieutenants, two ensigns, two cornets, two aid-majors, eight quarter-masters, four brigadiers, sixteen sub-brigadiers, six standard-bearers, one ensign or colour-bearer, one hundred and eighty musketeers, six drummers, four hautbois, one commissary, one chaplain, one quarter-master-serjeant, one surgeon, one apothecary, one blacksmith, one saddler, and three treasurers.

This corps was raised, not only for the purpose of attending his majesty on foot or horseback, and of going on service, as circumstances might require, but it was further intended to be a sort of military school for the French nobility. Several princes, almost all the general officers, and marshals of France, were indebted to this establishment for the first elements in military science.

The officers belonging to these companies, clothed, armed, and mounted themselves, without putting government to the expense of one shilling. Their uniform was a scarlet coat, faced with the same, and a scarlet waistcoat. Those attached to the first company had gold buttons and button-holes, and their coats were edged with gold. Those attached to the second company, had the same ornaments in silver: their hats, in which they wore a white feather, were laced according to the same distinction, as were likewise their horse cloths and holsters. Instead of the musquet, which they formerly carried, they were latterly armed with a carbine, two pistols in the saddle-bow, and a sword calculated for infantry or cavalry duty. The brigadiers and sub-brigadiers, were armed in the same manner. The quarter-masters, when mounted, had only a sword and two pistols, but on foot they each carried a halberd or pike, which they used as the sergeants belonging to infantry regiments were directed to do.

The cloaks and great coats of the musketeers were made of blue cloth laced with silver. The quarter-masters, brigadiers, and sub-brigadiers, wore the same, with more or less lace, according to the rank they held. These cloaks, &c. were distinguished from those worn by the rest of the army; having white crosses sewed before and behind, with red streaks running into the corners or rentrant angles. The first company was marked with red, and the second with yellow streaks. The uniform of the superior officers, (who were generally called officiers à hausse-col, or officers wearing gorgets or breast-plates,) was embroidered in gold or silver, according to the company which they commanded. The troop horses of the first company, were of a white or dapple grey colour; those of the second company were black.

Each company had a flag and two standards; so that when the musketeers served on foot, the flag or colour was unfurled, and the standards were used.
or take possession of any thing under the very nose, or in the presence of a person. Les ennemis sont venus pour défendre cette place, on la leur a cuelée sur la moustache, the enemy drew near to defend the town, but it was taken under their very noses.

Donner sur la Moustache, Fr. to give a slap on the face.

MOUTARDE, Fr. means literally mustard. The word, however, is frequently used by the French in a figurative sense, viz. s'amuser à la moutarde, to be uselessly employed, or busy about nothing. It is likewise used to express impatience: la moutarde lui monte au nez, Fr. he grows restless and impatient; a defect, to which no general or commanding officer should give way.

C'est de la Moutarde après dîner, Fr. This expression is in general use among the French, and signifies, that assistance, &c. is brought when there is no longer need of it. When commissioned, &c. make up a lame account for monies received, it is common to say, et le reste en moutarde.

MOUTH. See Muzzle.

MOUTH of FIRE. The entrance into the garrison of Gibraltar, by the grand battery and the old mole, is so called by the Spaniards, on account of the formidable appearance of the ordnance from the lines.

MOUTONNIER, Fr. sheep-like; gregarious. The notorious Marat used to say, during the effervescence of the French revolution, Tout peuple est moutonnier, the nation or people at large are always gregarious, and ready to follow a leader.

MOUVEMENTS, Fr. movements, com- motions, broils.

MOUVEMENTS de Tête, Fr. motions of the head. For the English explanation of these motions, see Eyes. The French express them in the following manner: Tête à droite, eyes right.—Tête à gauche, eyes left.—Fixe! eyes front.

MOUVEMENTS des troupes sous les armes, Fr. By these are understood the different changes of position, and the various facings which soldiers go through under arms.

MOUVEMENTS de pied ferme, Fr. that exercise, consisting of the manual and facings, which a soldier performs, with-
out quitting his original ground. The left foot on this occasion becomes a standing pivot.

**Mouvements ouverts**, Fr. movements, or evolutions, which are made at open order.

**Mouvements serrés**, Fr. movements, or evolutions, which are made at close order.

**Mouvements opposés**, Fr. opposite movements, or evolutions.

**Mouvement**, Fr. See Motion.

**Mouvement**, Fr. See motion for its general acceptance.

**Moyenne**, Fr. a piece of ordnance formerly so called. See Minion.

**MOYENNE**, Fr. The bastions which are constructed on the angles are called Royal Bastions. Some engineers have distinguished those bastions by the name of Moyens Royaux, or medium royals, whose flanks contain from ninety to one hundred toises.

**Moyenne Ville**, Fr. a term given by the French to any town in which the garrison is equal to a third of the inhabitants, and which is not deemed sufficiently important to bear the expense of a citadel; more especially so, because it is not in the power of the inhabitants to form seditious meetings without the knowledge of the soldiers who are quartered on them.

**Moyens côtés**, Fr. in fortification, are those sides which contain from eighty to one hundred and eighty toises in extent: these are always fortified with bastions on their angles. The Moyens côtés, are generally found along the extent of irregular places; and each one of these is individually subdivided into small, mean, and great sides.

**Mud-Walls.** The ancient fortifications consisted chiefly of mud or clay, thrown up in any convenient form for defence against sudden inroads.

**MUET**, Fr. See Mute.

To **Muffle**, to wrap any thing up so as to deaden the sound, which might otherwise issue from the contact of two hard substances. When the French effected their passage over the march Albarco, on their route to the plain of Marengo, they were so much exposed to the Austrians, that in order to get their artillery and ammunition over, without being betrayed by the noise of the carriage wheels, and the clattering of the horses' shoes, both were muffled with bands of hay and straw, and dung was spread over the ground. In this manner they crossed that stupendous rock. Thirty men were put to the drag ropes of each piece, and as many were employed to draw up the caissons.

**Muffled.** Drums are muffled at military funerals or burials, and at military executions, particularly when a soldier is shot for some capital crime.

**Mugs**, a banditti of plunderers from an Indian nation.

**Mulagis**, Turkish cavalry, consisting of a small number of chosen men, who are personally attached to the Begleberg, or viceroy, in Turkey. The begleberg is head or chief of a militia, which is called after him, and is commanded by subordinate beglers. There are 24 beglers, or viceroys, under the Grand Signor, who are extremely rich.

**Mulatto**, (mulâtre, Fr.) in the Indies, denotes one begotten by a negro-man on an Indian woman, or by an Indian man on a negro-woman. Those begotten of a Spanish woman and Indian man are called Metis, and those begotten of a savage by a Metis, are called Jambis. They also differ very much in colour, and in their hair.

Generally speaking, especially in Europe, and in the West Indies, a mulatto is one begotten by a white man on a negro woman, or by a negro man on a white woman. The word is Spanish, mulato, and formed of mula, a mule, being begotten, as it were, of two different species.

Mulattoes abound in the West Indies; so much so, that on the dangerous symptoms of insurrection, which appeared among the blacks after the success of Toussaint in St. Domingo, a proposal was made to government by a rich planter, to raise a mulatto corps, as an intermediate check upon the blacks.—After six months suspension, the memorial was rejected by the war minister, Henry Dundas, now Viscount Melville.

**Mulct.** A soldier is said to be mulct of his pay when put under fine or stoppages for necessaries, or to make good some dilapidations committed by him on the property of the people or government.

**Multangular.** is said of a figure, or body, which has many angles.
MUNILATERAL, having many sides.

MUTIPLE, one number containing another several times; as 9 is the multiple of 3, 16 that of 4, and so on.

MUNIMELL, a strong hold, fortification, &c.

MUNIR une place, Fr. to throw stores, ammunition, and provisions, into a place which is likely to be besieged.

MUNITION, Fr. This word is used among the French to express not only victuals and provisions, but also military stores and ammunition.

MUNITIONS de bouche, Fr. victuals or provisions, (such as bread, salt, meat, vegetables, butter, wine, beer, brandy, &c., which may be procured for soldiers) are so called by the French. Corn, oats, hay, straw, and green fodder, for cavalry, bear the same appellation. See Subsistence.

MUNITIONS de guerre, Fr. military stores, such as gunpowder, shot, balls, buttlets, matches, &c. See Stores.

MUNITIONNAIRE, entreprenelle des vivres, Fr. military purveyor, or commissary of stores. Amaury Bourguignon, from Niort, a town of Poitou, was the first Munitionnaire and entrepreneur général, or purveyor-general, among the French. He was appointed in the reign of Henry III. in 1574. See Purveyor.

MUNITIONNAIRE pour la marine, Fr. the head of the victualling office was so called among the French. There was a person on board every ship of war, called Commiss or Clerk, who acted under his orders. The appointment of the latter was somewhat similar to that of a purser in the British navy.

MUNSUB, Ind. a title which gives the person invested with it, a right to have the command of seven thousand horse, with the permission of bearing amongst his ensigns that of a Fish; neither of which distinctions is ever granted, excepting to persons of the first note in the empire.

MUNUS, a gift; an offering. It was customary among the Romans, when a military funeral took place, for the friends of the deceased to throw his clothes and arms into the pile the instant the body was consigned to flames; this was looked upon as the last offering to his memory. Sometimes they threw gold and silver with the arms and accoutrements. When the remains of Julius Caesar were burned, all the soldiers who attended threw their helmets, &c. into the burning pile. We, in some degree, follow this custom, by placing upon the pall the hat or cap, side-arms, &c. of the deceased; but we are too wise to destroy the articles, although not sufficiently prudent (especially in populous towns) to burn the body.

MUR, Fr. a wall.

MUR Crénelé, Fr. a wall which has small intervals or spaces at the top, that serve more for ornament or ostentation than for real defence. This method of building prevailed very much in former times.

MUR de face, Fr. outside wall of any building.

MUR de face de devant, Fr. front outside wall; it is likewise called Mur Antérieur.

MUR de face de derrière, Fr. the wall which forms the backsides of a building is so called: it is likewise named Mur postérieur.

MURS latéraux, Fr. the side walls of a building.

GROS MURS, Fr. all front and partition walls are so called.

MUR de pierres sèches, Fr. a wall that is built of stone, without mortar or cement. Walls of this construction are seen in several counties in England, particularly in the west country.

MUR en l'air, F. Every wall is so called that does not rise uniformly from a parallel foundation. Walls built upon arches are of this description.

MUR mitoyen, Fr. partition wall.

MUR d'appui, Fr. a wall of support. Any wall that is built to support a quay, terrace, or balcony, or to secure the sides of a bridge, is so called. Mur de parapet, or parapet wall, may be considered as a wall of support.

MURAGE, money appropriated to the repair of military works, was anciently so called.

MURAILLE de recullement, Fr. the wall which surrounds a fortified place is so called.

Charger en Muraille, Fr. to charge or attack an enemy, in a firm, compact, and steady line.

MURALILE de la Chiaie, Fr. See Wall.
MURAL-CROWN. See Crown.

Couronne MURALE, Fr. See Mural Crown.

MURATORES, individuals, among the Romans, who were employed during the games that were performed in the Circus. It was their business to see that the chariots started at given times, that they preserved their order or ranks, and kept their allotted distances.

MURDRESSES, in ancient fortification, a sort of battlement with interstices, raised on the tops of towers to fire through.

Ville MURÉE, Fr. a walled town.

MURRION. See Morion.

MURTHERERS, or murthering pieces, small pieces of ordnance, having chambers, and made to load at the breech. They are mostly used at sea, in order to clear the decks when an enemy has boarded a vessel.

MUSCULUS. Kennett in his Roman Antiquities, page 237, says, "the Musculus is conceived to have been much of the same nature as the Textudines; but it seems to have been of a smaller size, and composed of stronger materials, being exposed a much longer time to the force of the enemy; for in these Musculi, the pioneers were sent to the very walls, where they were to continue, while with their dolabrae or pick-axes, and other instruments, they endeavoured to undermine the foundations. Caesar has described the Musculus at large in his second book of the civil wars.

MUSICK, a general term for the musicians of a regimental band.

MUSICIANS. It has been often asked, why the dress of musicians, drummers, and fifers, should be of so varied and motley a composition, making them appear more like harlequins and mountebanks, than military appendages?—The following anecdote will explain the reason, as far at least as it regards the British service:—the musicians belonging to the guards formerly wore plain blue coats, so that the instant they came off duty, and frequently in the intervals between, they visited alehouses, &c., without changing their uniform, and thus added considerably to its wear and tear. It will be here remarked, that the clothing of the musicians falls wholly upon the colonels of regiments; no allowance being specifically made for that article by the public. It is probable, that some general officer undertook to prevent this abuse, by obtaining permission from the king to clothe the musicians, &c., in so fantastical a manner, that they would be ashamed to exhibit themselves at public-houses, &c.

PHRYGIAN MUSIC, a martial sort of ancient music, which excited men to rage and battle: by this mode Timotheus stirred up Alexander to arms.

Modes of Music. There were three modes among the ancients, which took their names from particular countries, namely, the Lydian, the Phrygian, and the Dorian.

MUSKET, the most serviceable MUSQUET, and commodious fire-arm used by an army. It carries a ball of 29 to 2 pounds. Its length is 3 feet 6 inches from the muzzle to the pan. The Spaniards were the first who armed part of their foot with muskets. At first they were made very heavy, and could not be fired without a rest: they had match locks, and did execution at a great distance. These kinds of muskets and rests were used in England so late as the beginning of the civil wars.

MUSKETS were first used at the siege of Rhege, in the year 1521.

MUSKET BASKETS. These are about a foot, or a foot and a half high, eight or ten inches diameter at bottom, and a foot at the top; so that, being filled with earth, there is room to lay a musket between them at bottom, being set on low breast-works, or parapets, or upon such as are beaten down.

MUSKETEERS, soldiers armed with muskets; who, on a march, carried only their rests and ammunition, and had boys to bear their muskets after them.—They were very slow in loading, not only by reason of the unwildness of the pieces, and because they carried the powder and ball separate, but from the time required to prepare and adjust the match; so that their fire was not so brisk as ours is now. Afterwards a lighter kind of match-lock musket came in use; and they carried their ammunition in bandoliers, to which were hung several little cases of wood, covered with leather, each containing a charge of powder; the balls they carried loose in a pouch, and a priming-horn, hanging by their side...
side. These arms were about the beginning of this century, universally laid aside in Europe, and the troops were armed with firelocks.

MUSKETOONS, short thick muskets, whose bore is the 38th part of their length; they carry five ounces of iron, or 7¼ of lead, with an equal quantity of powder. The term musketoon is also applied to a fire-arm resembling a horse pistol, of a very wide bore, and sometimes bell-mouthed.

MUSRAL, the noseband of a horse's bridle.

MUSUK, Ind. a skin in which water is carried.

MUSTACHES, whiskers, worn by the Germans, Russians, and other foreign troops.

MUSTER, in a military sense, a review of troops under arms, to see if they be complete, and in good order; to take an account of their numbers, the condition they are in, viewing their arms, and accoutrements, &c. This word is derived from the French montrer, to show. At a muster every man must be properly clothed and accoutred, &c., and answer to his name. The French call it appel nominatif.

MUSTERS. By section the fourth of the Articles of War, it is enacted, that musters shall be taken of the regiments of life guards, horse guards, and foot guards, twice at least in every year, at such times as shall have been or may be appointed, and agreeably to the forms heretofore used therein.

The musters of every other regiment, troop, or company, in the service, are to be taken at such times, and in such manner, as is directed by the late regulations touching regimental and district paymasters, and the mode of mustering, paying, and settling the accounts of the army.

All commanding officers, and others concerned in the mustering, as well as of the regiments of life guards, horse guards, and foot guards, as of the other forces, are enjoined to give the utmost care and attention to the making up of the muster rolls with strict exactness and accuracy.

Every officer who shall be convicted before a general court-martial of having signed a false certificate, relating to the absence of either officer, non-commissioned officer, or private soldier, will be cashiered.

Every officer who shall knowingly make a false muster of man or horse, and every officer and commissary, or mustermaster, who shall unwittingly sign, direct, or allow the signing of the muster rolls, wherein such false muster is contained, shall, upon proof made thereof, by two witnesses before a general court-martial, be cashiered, and suffer such other penalty as he is liable to by the act for punishing mutiny and desertion.

Any commissary or mustermaster, who shall be convicted before a general court-martial, of having taken money, by way of gratification, on the mustering any regiment, troop, or company, or on the signing the muster-rolls, shall be displaced from his office, and suffer such other penalty as he is liable to by the said act.

Every colonel, or other field officer, commanding a regiment, troop, or company, and actually residing with it, may give furloughs to non-commissioned officers and soldiers, in such numbers, and for so long a time, as he shall judge to be most consistent with the good of our service; but no non-commissioned officer or soldier, shall, by leave of his captain, or inferior officer, commanding the troop or company, (his field officer not being present) be absent above twenty days in six months; nor shall more than two private men be absent at the same time from their troop or company, unless some extraordinary occasion shall require it; of which occasion the field officer present with and commanding the regiment is to be the judge.

It is strictly forbidden to muster any person as a soldier who does not actually do his duty as a soldier, &c. See LIVERY.

MUSTER-master-general, Commissary-general of the MUSTERS, one who takes account of every regiment, their number, horses, arms, &c. reviews them, sees that the horses are well mounted, and all the men well armed and accoutred, &c.

MUSTER-ROLL, (état nominatif, Fr.) a specific list of the officers and men in every regiment, troop, or company, which is delivered to the inspecting field officer, mustermaster, regimental or district paymaster, (as the case may be) whereby they are paid, and their condition is known. The names of the officers
cers are inscribed according to rank, those of the men in alphabetical succession. Adjutants of regiments make out the muster rolls, and when the list is called over, every individual must answer to his name. Every muster-roll must be signed by the colonel, or commanding officer, the paymaster, and adjutant of each regiment, troop, or company: it must likewise be sworn to by the muster-master or paymaster, (as the case may be) before a justice of the peace, previous to its being transmitted to government.

MUSTI, one born of a Mulatto father or mother, and a white father or mother.

MUTILATED, in a military sense, signifies wounded in such a manner as to lose the use of a limb. A battalion is said to be mutilated, when its divisions, &c. stand unequal.

MUTINE, or MUTINEER, a soldier guilty of mutiny.

Se MUTINER, Fr. to mutiny; a term which is particularly applicable to soldiers, who cabal together to the ultimate subversion of good order and discipline. It is wisely observed by the French writer of this article, that however just the ground of discontent may be, no time must be lost in instantly quelling the first symptoms of disobedience. The leaders, or primary instigators, must be summarily proceeded against, and not allowed to mix with their fellow soldiers until the cause has been thoroughly examined, and effectual measures have been adopted to obviate any mischievous consequence. In order to prevent soldiers from mutinying, their commanding and subordinate officers must, under all circumstances, be scrupulously correct towards them; and if the condition of things should be such, as to render it impossible to grant redress in the first instance, solemn promises must be made, and those promises religiously attended to. It ought always to be remembered, that the dreadful example of a barrack or garrison being in a state of mutiny, may be extended to all the inhabitants of the town and adjacent villages. On this account no troops should be placed in barracks, or stationed on citadels, without the strictest attention having previously been given to the character of each individual officer belonging to them: the latter must be resolutely just, without unnecessary harshness or severity.

MUTINERIE, Fr. mutiny; the act of mutinying.

To MUTINY, in a military sense, to rise against authority. "Any officer or soldier who shall presume to use traitorous or disrespectful words against the sacred person of his Majesty, or any of the royal family, is guilty of mutiny."

"Any officer or soldier who shall behave himself with contempt or disrespect towards the general or other commander in chief of our forces, or shall speak words tending to their hurt or dishonour, is guilty of mutiny."

"Any officer or soldier who shall begin, excite, cause, or join in any mutiny or sedition, in the troop, company, or regiment, to which he belongs, or in any other troop, or company, in our service, or on any party, post, detachment, or guard, on any pretense whatsoever, is guilty of mutiny."

"Any officer or soldier who, being present at any mutiny or sedition, does not use his utmost endeavours to suppress the same, or coming to the knowledge of any mutiny, or intended mutiny, does not, without delay, give information to his commanding officer, is guilty of mutiny."

"Any officer or soldier, who shall strike his superior officer, or draw, or offer to draw, or shall lift up any weapon, or offer any violence against him, being in the execution of his office, on any pretense whatsoever, or shall disobey any lawful command of his superior officer, is guilty of mutiny. See the Articles of War.

MUTINY-Act, an act which passes ever year in the House of Commons, to answer some specific military purposes; and by which the army is continued on a peace or war establishment. For amendments in the Mutiny Act, passed in the 45 Geo. 3. see Regimeninal Companion.

MUTON, a spear or fish-pig used by the natives of new Holland. See Grant's Voyage.

MUZZLE of a gun or mortar, the extremity at which the powder and ball are put in.

MUZZLE-RING of a gun, that which
which encompasses and strengthens the muzzle or mouth of a cannon.

- **MYRIAD** denotes the number ten thousand.

- **MYRIARCH**, the captain, or commander of ten thousand men.

- **MYRMIDONS**, in antiquity, a people of Thessaly, of whom it is said in fabulous history, that they arose from pismires, upon a prayer put up to Jupiter, by Aacus, after his kingdom had been depopulated by a pestilence. In Homer, and in Virgil, the Myrmidons are Achilles’s soldiers. The term myrmidon is used in modern times to express any rude ruffian, or soldier of all work.

**MYRMILLONNES**, a sort of combatants among the Romans, who had on the top of their cask or helmet, the representation of a fish; and in their engagements with the Retiarii, if they were caught and wrapped in the net, it was not possible for them to escape.

- **MYSORE**, an extensive country in the East Indies, which borders on the Carnatic to the S. W. bounded on the east by the south part of the Carnatic, and the kingdom of Trichinopoly. It extends west within thirty miles of the sea coast of Malabar. Seringapatam is the capital.

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**NABOB**, Ind. a corruption from Na-waub, the plural of Naib. The title means deputed, but it is often assumed in India without a right to it. As the real signification and import of this word are not generally known, we shall extract a passage out of Mr. Orme's History of the Carnatic, that will place them in the clearest point of view:

"Most of the countries which have been conquered by the Great Mogul in the peninsula of India, are comprised under one viceroyalty, called from its situation Decan, or South. From the word Soubah, signifying a province, the viceroy of this vast territory is called Soubadar, and by Europeans improperly Soubah. Of the countries under his jurisdiction, some are entirely subjected to the throne of Delhi, and governed by Mahomedans, whom Europeans improperly call Moors; whilst others remain under the government of their original Indian princes or rajahs, and are suffered to follow their ancient modes, on condition of paying tribute to the Great Mogul. The Moorish governors depending on the Soubah, assume, when treating with their inferiors, the title of Nabob, which (as we have already observed) signifies deputy; but this in the registers of the throne (of Delhi) is synonymous to Sou-

badar, and the greatest part of those who style themselves nabobs are ranked at Delhi under the title of Phous-dar, which is much inferior to that which they assume. The Europeans established in the territories of these pseudo-nabobs (if we may be allowed the expression) following the example of the natives with whom they have most intercourse, have agreed in giving them the title they so much affect.

"A nabob ought to hold his commission from Delhi, and if at his death a successor has not been previously appointed by the Great Mogul, the Soubah has the right of naming a person to administer the nabobship until the will of the sovereign is known; but a nabob thus appointed by a Soubah is not deemed authentically established until he is confirmed from Delhi. The Soubah receives from the several nabobs the annual revenues of the crown, and remits them to the treasury of the empire. The nabobs are obliged to accompany him in all military expeditions within the extent of his viceroyalty, but not in any without that extent. These regulations were intended to place them in such a state of dependence on the soubah, as should render them subservient to the interests of the empire, and at the same time leave them in..."
in a state of independence, which would render it difficult for the soubah to make use of their assistance to brave the throne.

"Nabobs, however, have kept possession of their governments in opposition both to the soubah and the throne; and what is more extraordinary in the offices of a despotic state, both soubahs and nabobs have named their successors, who have often succeeded with as little opposition as if they had been the heirs apparent of an hereditary dominion." 


NABOBSHIP, the office of nabob. The Carnatic is one of the most considerable nabobships dependant on the soubah of Deccan. From its capital it is likewise named the province of Arcot; but its present limits are greatly inferior to those which bounded the ancient Carnatic before it was conquered by the Great Mogul; for we do not find, that the nabobs of Arcot have ever extended their authority beyond the river Gondegama to the north, the great chain of mountains to the west, and the borders of the kingdoms of Trichinopoly, Tanjore, and Mysore, to the south. The sea bounds it to the cast. It was not before the beginning of last century that this country was entirely reduced by the Moors. For further particulars respecting nabobs, see pages 27 and 28 in the Dissertations prefixed to the History of the Carnatic.

NACELE, Fr. A small boat that has neither mast nor sail. It is properly called a ferry boat.

NADIR, in astronomy, is that point in the heavens which is directly under our feet, and is diametrically opposite to the zenith, or point over our heads. The word is pure Arabic, signifying the same thing. The zenith and the nadir are the two poles of the horizon, each 90° distant from it, and consequently each in the meridian.

NAGARA, Ind. The drum made from a hollow cylinder of teck wood, and the ends covered with goat skin: it is suspended from the left shoulder to the right side, and beat with a stick made of teck wood.

NAGER, Fr. To swim.
Se sauver à la NAGE, Fr. To save oneself by swimming.

L'Art de NAGER, Fr. The art of swimming. As this important branch of military and naval education has been little attended to in our island, we think it our duty, under this general head, to give the following extract out of a French publication, and to subjoin to it a very interesting article, with which we have been furnished by a correspondent, who, to our personal knowledge, has practically proved the validity of his arguments.

The Greeks and the Romans, although they held military discipline and evolutions on shore in higher estimation than naval tactics, nevertheless taught their children, in their infancy, to swim. This art, indeed, constituted one of the principal exercises among the latter in the field of Mars or Campus Martius.

It were to be wished (continues our French author), that modern speculatists in natural philosophy, instead of devoting the whole of their time and attention to the idle and fantastic idea of governing the regions of the air, would enter seriously into the study of this important and necessary art. I do not, however, wish to be understood to mean by this reflection, that indiscriminate and hazardous bathing should be adopted by our youths. I am well aware of the dangers of such a suggestion. My object is to induce the government of the country to make a suitable establishment for the instruction of young men, and to provide able adepts in the art for that purpose. Innumerable instances might be brought forward to prove the utility of this art. When the island of Ré was besieged and blockaded by the English in 1627, Thoiras, who was governor of the place, dispatched three swimmers to make the Duke of Angoulême acquainted with the critical situation in which he stood. The distance across was upwards of six miles or two French leagues. One of the swimmers was taken by the English; the second was drowned on his return; but the third reached the Duke, communicated the object of his mission, and brought back his answer. When Cyzicus (the ancient Dindymis, formerly a large and strong place) was closely besieged by Mithridates, Lucullus (the Roman general) sent instructions.
structures to the inhabitants by a swimmer, who faithfully executed his mission.

NAGEUR, Fr. a swimmer.

NAGEURS de l'Armée, Fr. swimmers attached to an army.

Compagnies de NAGEURS, Fr. troops or companies consisting of swimmers.

NAGGUR, Ind. the principal drill in Asiatic armies, commonly allowed to persons of high dignity.

NAIB, Ind. a deputy. The governor of a town under a nawaub or nabob is so called in India.

NAIC, or NAICK, Ind. a subaltern officer in the Sepoys.

Drill NAIC, or NAICK, Ind. a subaltern officer belonging to the native infantry in India, answering to our drill corporal. Every battalion of native infantry has two drill havildars or serjeants, and two drill naicks, called non-effective, attached to it.

NAIL, (clou, Fr.) an iron pin.

NAILS of various sorts are used in artillery. See Carriage.

Garnish NAILS, in travelling carriages, have pointed heads like diamonds, with a small narrow neck: they serve to fasten the plates with roses, to cover the side pieces from the ends of the trunnion plates to five or six inches beyond the centre of the carriage.

Diamond-headed NAILS, small nails, whose heads are made like a flat diamond, and serve to fix the plates upon travelling carriages.

Rose-bud NAILS, are small round-headed nails, driven in the centre of the roses of the plates.

Counter-sunk NAILS, those that have flat round heads, sunk into the iron plates, so as to be even with the outside of it.

Streak NAILS, are those which fasten the streaks to the fellies of the wheels.

Box-pin NAILS, small nails without heads, to pin the nave-boxes to the naves.

Stub NAILS are driven on the outside of the nave-hoops to keep them in their places.

Flat-headed NAILS, to fasten the lockers or any sort of hinges.

Dog NAILS, have flat round heads; and one part of the shank next to the head is also round.

To NAIL, spike, or clay cannon, (en-

clouer le canon, Fr.) to drive an iron spike into the touch-hole, by which means the cannon is rendered unserviceable for the present. When circumstances make it necessary to abandon cannon, or when the enemy's artillery are seized, and it is not however possible to take them away; it is proper to nail them up, in order to render them useless; which is done by driving a large nail or iron spike into the vent of a piece of artillery, to render it unserviceable. There are various contrivances to force the nail out, as also sundry machines invented for that purpose, but they have never been found of general use; so that the best method is to drill a new vent, or touch-hole.

One Gaspar Vinamculas was the first who invented the nailing of cannon. He was a native of Bremen, and made use of his invention first in nailing up the artillery of Sigismund Malatesta.

NAIRES, Ind. the military tribe of the Malabar coast. Many affirm that they are the oldest nobility in the world. Their pride, on this supposition, is greater than that of the Rajpoots. In 1755, the King of Travancore, with the assistance of a French officer, called Launoy, disciplined 10,000 Naires in the method of European infantry.

NAKARCONNA, Ind. the place where all the drums and war music are kept.

NAKOUDA. Captain or pilot so called in India.

NANA, Ind. the title which is given to the king of the Moratooes. It more properly signifies the acting head of the government, and general of the forces.

NAPPE de feu, Fr. See Jets de Feu.

NARROW, of small breadth.

NARROW Front. A battalion, &c. is said to assume a narrow front, when it goes from line into column, upon the principles of compression.

The NARROW, a channel which runs between the Margate sands and the Main.

NASR-JUNG, Ind. victorious, or triumphant in war.

NATATION (nutation, Fr.). Although we have touched upon this article under Nager, we shall now enter more fully into the subject. This art consists wholly in being able to support the body towards the surface of the
water, so as to float, and to advance by means of a combined and regular action performed by the hands and feet. Man is the only animal that learns to swim. The brute creation has an aptitude, more or less, by instinct.

The method which is frequently adopted to teach men to swim is so erroneous, that instead of making any progress in the art, beginners almost always experience the most disheartening circumstances. The chief obstacle is the danger of suffocation to which an individual is exposed when he first gets beyond his depth. The water suddenly rushes into his mouth, ears, and nose, and before he can recover from the surprize which it inevitably creates, personal apprehension seizes his mind, and throws every motion of his body into confusion.

There is only one infallible remedy which can be applied to this difficulty; and by which the most unexperienced may be taught to swim both fast and well. A robust and hearty young man ought to learn the art (as far at least as regards the mere circumstance of keeping himself afloat), by attentively following the first instructions, which are not generally known in this country, and which we are not at liberty to publish. Persons of less bodily strength and disposition to learn, will become masters of it in the course of a second or third lesson. The whole secret, in fact, consists in being able to keep the head above water, by a concord of movement in the feet and hands; and when this union is once acquired, a man may exercise himself with ease and gratification.

The art of swimming was reckoned, in ancient times (both amongst the Greeks and Romans), so essential a part of education, that it was proverbial to say, in speaking of an ignorant man, he has neither learned to read nor to swim.

Everard Digby, our countryman, and Nicolas Winman, a German, have both written treatises on this art. Boselli, in his publication, entitled, De motu Animalium, has also touched upon the subject, and may be consulted.

In order to swim with ease, and for a length of time, it is necessary that a man should have recourse to frequent practice. He will soon be able to keep afloat, and by that means preserve a free and uninterrupted respiration, from having his mouth and nostrils constantly above water. He makes use of his feet and hands with the same facility and ease that a good seaman does his oars; and by constantly having those limbs in concert, he not only prevents his body from sinking, but glides through the waves without the least apprehension of danger. Nor are any extraordinary efforts necessary on this occasion; for it is ascertained, upon the truest principles in Hydrostatics, that the body of a man is nearly equal in weight or gravity to the proportionate volume of water in which it is immersed; so that it is, almost of itself, in equilibrium, and consequently requires very little aid to support it.

There is no country, perhaps, better calculated for improvements in this art than Great Britain and Ireland; and none in which common sense prescribes more forcibly the necessity of having its youth early instructed. It is manifest, that although every sea officer is exposed ten times a day to the danger of being drowned, very few of that class know how to swim. We have, indeed, recently experienced, in the loss of the brave and gallant Captain Jarvis, the truth of this observation. Without therefore entering into innumerable proofs of the advantages to be derived to our navy, and to mankind in general, from a knowledge of the art of swimming, we will confine ourselves to its utility as far as regards a land force.

It is well known that the French have paid particular attention to this branch of military knowledge, and that there are not only individuals attached to their armies, who can swim with perfect ease, but that companies, called compagnies de nageurs, have been formed, and are still encouraged in their service. Their dress is adapted to the functions they are destined to perform, such as passing a river, &c. in order of battle, or in detached parties, &c. for the purpose of surprising an enemy’s advanced posts, or of affording assistance, (by dragging light cables across,) to large bodies of their own men who might be ordered to pass in pontoon.

During the campaign, which was carried on some years back between the Turks and the Austrians, a French-
man, whose name was Le Febure, and who had formerly belonged to the gendarmes of France, submitted a plan to Joseph the Second, and proposed the formation of a corps of swimmers, to consist of horse, foot, and artillery. His offer was very graciously received by the emperor, but the sudden termination of hostilities caused the plan to be left unnoticed by the House of Austria, and was afterwards adopted by the French during all their campaigns in Switzerland, Italy and Germany. Our correspondent states, that in 1799 a detachment of French swimmers passed the river Linth in the neighbourhood of Zurich, took the advanced posts of the Cossacks by surprise, and cut them to pieces. The victory, indeed, which was afterwards gained by Massena over the Russians, was entirely owing to the protection which this corps of swimmers afforded, when a considerable division of French troops effected their passage over the Linth. It is well known, that the Russian general Prince Corsacow, made a most disorderly retreat out of Zurich, after having lost his military chest, his magazines, stores, &c. and upwards of 5000 men. See the particulars of this event in General Massena's dispatches, where he speaks in the highest terms of the corps of swimmers.

In 1800, whilst the French army, under the command of Moreau, was watching the right bank of the Danube, that French general followed the example of Massena, and was equally successful. Two companies of experienced swimmers crossed the river during the night, and whilst one was engaged in driving in the Austrian advanced posts, the other was employed in dragging some pontoons across, and thus enabled a whole battalion to get over.

The Austrians, being suddenly attacked throughout the whole extent of their cantonments, made a precipitate retreat, and before the close of the following day the whole of the republican division were on the right bank of the Danube.

The present French government have paid particular attention to this important and necessary art. Bonaparte is so convinced of its utility, that he has ordered whole regiments, both horse and foot, to be exercised in swimming, and to cross the river Seine, which runs through Paris, in complete order of battle. If the intrinsic merits of the art of natation itself, indeed, did not recommend the adoption of some plan, we should think it sufficient ground to go upon by saying, that the French have judged it necessary to form companies of expert swimmers, and that other governments ought to be prepared to meet them in their own way. For although, by the natural vivacity of their natures, the inhabitants of that extraordinary country may learn the art with greater facility than other men, it cannot be denied, but that Englishmen would at least equal them in every point of view.

An establishment of this sort would be attended with very little expence to the public, since out of six moderately sized battalions, three hundred swimmers might be constantly formed, who, at the close of the campaign would join their several troops or companies. The clothing of these men would consist of a worsted jacket and pantaloons, with sandals made of leather and flannel or woollen cloth. Their weapon would be a long light pike fixed by means of an iron ring to a leathern waist belt. The pike, whilst the man is swimming, floats upon the water, and is of considerable use to him. So that after he has been ten minutes out of the water, and on the march, his dress would be dry, or nearly so. On the top of his cap a small compartment is made to hold a pistol with cartridges, and a piece of dry linen.

The chief, and indeed the only essential requisite in the art of natation, is to be able to remain a considerable time in the water without being fatigued, or rendered unfit for immediate action. Some men will swim with extraordinary rapidity, but they cannot stay thirty minutes in the water, without being exhausted. The best method is that which the French call nager à la brusée, to swim with the arms extended to their full length upon the surface of the water, and kept in complete unison with the motion of the legs. In order to hold in breath, the head must be kept just above the water, and the body as horizontal as possible, without
any extraordinary effort to support it, as too much exertion only tends to fatigue and ultimately to exhaust the swimmer. In crossing a river, you must endeavour to keep with the stream as much as possible; and when in opposition to it, you must get through with a steady movement of the legs and arms. The French use various expressions to describe the different modes of swimming, viz. à la marinère, à la coupe, à la planche, et debout, which we call treading the water: but the best method (because it is the most simple and the least fatiguing) is à la brassée or at extended arms.

We should not do justice to the correspondent, who has obligingly furnished us with this article, were we to omit stating, that in 1798 he swam across the Lake of Constance from Uberlingen (an imperial city of Furtstenburg, in Germany, 12 miles north of Constance) to Dunkelsdorf, and returned again without having touched the ground. A record of this extraordinary effort is kept in the town house of Uberlingen. We have also seen the same officer swim from Westminster through Blackfriars Bridge and the main arch of London Bridge, at ebb tide, and make his way through the shipping, &c. close to Greenwich.

We are perfectly convinced within ourselves (and indeed the example of the ancients, as well as the practice of the modern French bear us through) that the formation of a school of military natation would be very beneficial to Great Britain. A small corps of swimmers could, in the space of six weeks or two months, at furthest, be rendered not only masters of the art themselves, but be made capable of teaching others. The head, or principal teacher could instruct a chosen number of men, to be distributed among the several regiments, horse and foot, for the purpose of training up the allotted quota. Some convenient spot, with an appropriate building, might be fixed upon by government for this institution; either upon the banks of the Thames, or in the neighbourhood of High-Wycomb.

The most expert swimmers should regularly return to the several regiments from which they had been taken, and there instruct a certain number, in order to have a company or detachment of that description always ready for service. It is impossible not to allow, that both in private as well as in public life, a knowledge of this art is highly advantageous; and that a corps of swimmers, well managed and ably conducted, might be rendered useful in every species of service. Our most active and most invertebrate foes pay particular attention to this improved branch of military knowledge, and we ought, therefore, to adopt some plan that may put us upon a footing with them. The old Roman adage is applicable on this occasion—Fas est ab hoste doceri.

Extract of a letter, written by General Moreau when he had the chief command of the army of the Rhine, during the late war, to the minister of the war department.

Neresheim, 24th June.—I herewith transmit to you a copy of my dispatch to the First Consul, with a correct detail of the battle of Hochstadt. Marshal Kray is forced to abandon Ulm. This successful event on our part is of considerable moment; but great exertions were required to secure it. You will be able to form some opinion of the difficulties we had to encounter, when I state, that although we had neither the advantage of a bridge, nor a single pontoon to cross on, the passage of the river was rendered easy by the intrepidity of a small body of swimmers.

(Signed) Moreau.
Certified as correct, (signed) Carnot.

After having given a detailed account of the state of the two armies, the French general states, that eighty swimmers having crossed the river, and been supplied (by means of two very small boats dispatched after them) with musquets and cartouch boxes, took possession of the two villages of Grenchim and Blenheim, and seized several pieces of ordnance, which were instantly served by some cannoniers that had effected their passage on ladders thrown across the chasm of the broken bridge. These men stood their ground with wonderful steadiness and courage, whilst a detachment of sappers and pontooniers were occupied, under the enemy's fire,
in repairing the bridges, across which fresh succours were thrown, in order to meet the reinforcements of the enemy; who was no longer at a loss to ascertain the precise object of our attack.

General Grenier likewise made the necessary dispositions to cross the Danube at Guntzburgh; but the Austrians, who had previously destroyed the center arches of the bridge, threw up a sort of temporary fortification on the part that remained, with straw steeped in pitch and other combustible materials, which were to be set on fire the instant the attack should be made. They did not, indeed, omit doing this as soon as they saw the detachment of swimmers plunge into the river. The latter were so eager, that several volunteered to extinguish the fire under a discharge of heavy ordnance and musquertry; but that was not practicable.

General Moreau, speaking of this detachment of swimmers in another part of his dispatches, concludes by saying, "The behaviour of the corps of swimmers, under the command of Citizen Degometrie, who was adjutant of the 94th demi-brigade, is a proof of intrepidity, of which are there few instances or examples."

The following account is also on record, and was transmitted to Paris by a French officer, who was then serving in Germany.

One of the detachment of swimmers, having crossed the Danube, suddenly took possession of a howitzer, and instantly threatened to fire upon a guard consisting of twenty men, unless they surrendered and gave up their arms: the latter took to their heels, leaving their firelocks behind them, and the swimmer, with a reinforcement of some of his naked comrades, seized the musquets of the Austrian fugitives, and dislodged a guard which had occupied a titre-de-pont.

In order to give our military readers a more accurate idea of the importance of the coup de main which was executed by the detachment of swimmers, we shall make another extract from General Moreau's official communication.

"The movement, which to me appeared absolutely necessary, was not only difficult, but extremely hazardous. We were unluckily destitute of every species of pontoon equipage, &c. and the enemy had not only destroyed the bridges, but also sunk his boats, pontoons and raftsers."

This was the position of the army on the 18th day of June; which position had been gained by dint of hard fighting, and by forcing the enemy to fall back on Ulm.

We have already stated, that eighty swimmers, naked, or rather slightly clothed, and afterwards armed with musquets and cartouch-boxes, had crossed the river. In consequence of their success, the 94th demi-brigade immediately followed, took possession of the villages of Gensheim, Blenheim, Langenau, and Sharingen, where General Marigny was slightly wounded.

General Grenier, on the other hand, had crossed the Danube at Gunzburg.

These different movements, which were begun by a small body of swimmers, gradually led to the memorable battle of Hohenlinden, the success of which secured to France so marked a superiority over the Austrians in Germany, and completed Bonaparte's triumph in Italy.

In offering these extracts to our readers, we are aware of the high colouring which was invariably given to the official dispatches of France during her revolutionary career. The proof, however, of the utility of a corps of swimmers in any country, cannot be weakened by the manner in which partial occurrences may be represented.

NATION, a people; also a country. As the English nation, the French nation. It is more generally used in the first sense; as, The nation at large seems disposed to resist every attempt that the French might make to invade the country.

NATIONAL, that which concerns, or belongs to a whole nation.

NATIONAL troops, are those born in our own dominions, in opposition to foreigners.

NATIVE, in general, denotes a person born in a certain place, but it refers more particularly to the proper residence of the parents, and where the person has his education.

NATIVE Cavalry, a body of troops so called in India, in contradistinction to the king's regiments. According to the regu-
regulations printed at Calcutta in 1797, each regiment was directed to have six troops, consisting of two captains, one captain-lieutenant, six lieutenants, three cornets, two sergeants, six subalterns, six jemidars, eighteen havildars, eighteen naicks, six trumpeters, 420 troopers, six puccallies. The staff consists of one adjutant, one quarter-master, one paymaster, one assistant surgeon, one sergeant-major, one quarter-master sergeant, one drill havildar, one drill naick, one trumpeter-major, six pay-havildars, six farriers, and one native doctor.

Each regiment to be commanded by a field officer.

Native Infantry, a body of troops under the immediate direction of the Presidency of Bengal, composed of the natives of India. According to the regulations published at Calcutta, in 1797, it is directed, that the battalions of native infantry should be formed into regiments of two battalions each, with ten companies in each battalion, the regiment to consist of one colonel, two lieutenant-colonels, two majors, (junior lieutenant-colonel, and junior major, to be without companies) seven captains, one captain-lieutenant, 22 lieutenants, 10 ensigns, two sergeants, 20 subalterns, 20 jemidars, 100 havildars, 100 naicks, 40 drums and fifes, 1600 privates for Bengal, 1800 privates for Madras and Bombay, 20 puccallies. The staff consists of two adjutants, one paymaster, one surgeon, two mates, one sergeant-major, one quarter-master sergeant, two native doctors, one drum-major, one fife-major, two drill havildars, and two drill naicks.

The peace establishment of these corps was ordered to consist of four regiments, to be commanded by two lieutenant-colonels to the two first, and two majors to the 3d and 4th regiments; a brigade major to be allowed to the cavalry. The whole, when raised, were to be commanded by a colonel commandant.

But, at the period mentioned, only two regiments of native cavalry were raised, and twelve regiments of native infantry.

It was further directed, that upon the completion of the native cavalry, the promotion of officers should proceed by seniority in their respective regiments, until they arrived at the rank of captain, and afterwards to rise in the whole corps to the rank of major, and to the command of regiments. The promotion to major, and command of regiments, was subjected to the same principle, as in the infantry, in regard to being unfit.

But if field officers of cavalry were superseded in consequence of being unfit to command, they were to be allowed to retire with the pay of lieutenant-colonel of infantry.

The promotions in the native infantry were to take place according to seniority in their respective regiments, to the rank of lieutenant-colonels, and afterwards to colonels, and command of regiments, with the following proviso:

That should the senior lieutenant-colonels appear to the government at the Presidency, either upon representation of the commander in chief, or by any other means, to be unfit for the command of regiments, they are to be passed over, and junior officers promoted. But the reasons for such supersession are to be entered on the records, for the information of the Court of Directors.

The same principle was directed to be applied to the European infantry, to the promotion of officers of artillery to the command of battalions, and of corps; to the chief engineers, to the colonels commandants, and officers to command regiments of cavalry, and to the rank of major-generals from that of colonels.

It was further ordained, that should any captains or subalterns obtain leave from that period to exchange from one regiment to another, they were to come into the regiment to which they were removed as youngest of their respective ranks, according to the practice in the king's service.

It was also ordered, that each regiment of native cavalry, and native infantry, in the absence of the colonel, should be under the general command of the senior lieutenant-colonel, who was to have the particular command of the first battalion, and the junior lieutenant-colonel that of the second battalion.

The same regulation prevails in the Indian, or native corps, with respect to the appointment of pay-masters, that exists in the king's service.

About the same period, a very satisfactory
factory regulation took place in favour of the European and native or company’s troops, to prevent the growth of much existing jealousy between them and the king’s troops. The Right Hon. Henry Dundas, (now Viscount Melville,) one of his Majesty’s principal secretaries of state, undertook to recommend to his majesty to give every officer of the company a king’s commission, of the same date with that which he received from the company, with a retrospect founded on the date of the king’s commission they then held, so as to prevent supersession by the various promotions which had recently taken place by general brevet in the king’s army.

NATURAL FORTIFICATION, consists in those natural obstacles which are found in some countries, and which impede or prevent the approach of an enemy. Thus a place, the avenues to which are easily closed, or which is surrounded by impassable rivers or marshes, is defended by natural fortification.

NAVAB, Ld. See Nabob.

NAVAGE, Fr. an obsolete French term, which formerly signified a fleet.

NAVAL, Fr. This word is used to convey the same meaning among the crews that it does with us, viz. armée navale, naval armament; combat naval, naval fight, or naval combat; forces navales, naval forces. It is remarked in the dictionnaire de l’Académie Française that naval when used in the masculine gender, is not susceptible of the plural either.

NAVAL. According to Shakespere, this term signifies the same as or navy.

NAVAL ARMAMENT, the fitting out a with all kinds of provisions and stores, for actual service.

NAVAL CAMP, in military antiquities, a bivouac, consisting of a ditch and breastwork on the land side, or a wall built of earth, and extended along the point of the sea to the land.

This was beautified with gates, netimes defended with towers, which issued forth to attack their enemies. Towards the sea, in it, they fixed great pales of oak, which were fastened with large beams, and near these the vessels of war were placed in such order, that they might serve instead of a wall, and give protection to those without; in which manner Nicias is reported by Thucydides to have encamped himself when their fortifications were thought strong enough to defend them from the assaults of enemies, the ancients frequently dragged their ships on shore. Around these ships the soldiers disposed their tents, as appears every where in Homer: but this seems only to have been practised in winter, when their enemy’s fleet was laid up, and could not assault them; or in long sieges, and when they lay in no danger from their enemies by sea, as in the Trojan war, where the defenders of Troy never once attempted to encounter the Grecians in a sea fight.

NAVAL CROWN, in Roman antiquity, a crown conferred, among the Romans, on persons who distinguished themselves in sea engagements. Aquilus says, in general, the naval crown was adorned with prows of ships. Lipsius distinguishes two kinds; the first he supposes plain, and given to the common soldiers; the other rustrated, and only given to generals, or admirals, who had gained some important victory at sea.

NAVAL OFFICERS, are admirals, captains, lieutenants, masters, boatswains, midshipmen, gunners, &c.

NAVAL ENGAGEMENT, implies, in general, either a sea fight between single ships, or whole fleets of men of war, or galleys, &c.

NAVE, in gun carriages, that part of a wheel in which the arms of the axle-tree move, and in which the spokes are driven and supported. See Wheel.

NAVE-HOOPS, are flat iron rings to bind the nave: there are generally three on each nave.

NAVE-BASES, were formerly made of brass; but experience has shown that those of cast iron cause less friction, and are much cheaper: there are two, one at each end, to diminish the friction of the axle-tree against the nave.

NAVES Plicatiles, pontoons which were anciently used by the Romans, and which were made of skins and hoops that took to pieces.

NAUFRAGE, Fr. shipwreck.

NAVIGATION, the theory and art of conducting a ship by sea, from one port to another, or of disposing and influencing
fluenceng her machinery, by the force of
the wind, so as to begin and continue
her motion at sea.

NAVIRE de guerre, Fr. a man of
war.

NAVIRE marchand, Fr. a merchant-
man. It is likewise called vaisseau
marchand.

NAULAGE, NAULIS, Fr. passage
money or freight given for goods or per-
sions carried by sea, or passage over a
river.

NAULISER, Fr. to freight or hire a
vessel.

NAUMACHIE, or sea fights, owe
their original to the time of the first
Punic war, when the Romans first ini-
tiated their men in the knowledge of sea
affairs. After the improvement of many
years, they were designed as well for
the gratifying the sight as for increasing
their naval experience and discipline;
and therefore composed one of the so-
lemn shows, by which the magistrates
or emperors, or any affectors of popu-
larity, so often made their court to the
people. It will be observed from this
passage out of Kennett’s Roman Anti-
quities, page 269, that the necessity
which Rome was under of fighting Car-
thage upon her own element, first gave
rise to naval maneuvers. But the over-
grown empire of the former, and the
subsequent corruption of her people,
soon converted these powerful auxilia-
ries to the legions, by whom she had
conquered the universe, into instru-
ments of pleasure and debauchery. Lam-
pordius, in the life of the emperor He-
liaogabalus, relates that, in a representa-
tion of a naval fight, he filled the chan-
nel, where the vessels were to ride, with
wine instead of water. A story scarce-
ly credible, though we have the highest
conceptions of that wretch’s prodigious
luxury and extravagance. The frequent
threats which a powerful neighbour of
these islands has put forth, and the si-
multitude which she affects to draw be-
tween herself and Great Britain, to
Rome and Carthage, may probably lead
to great naval exertions. But if En-
geand be only true to herself, the nau-
machie of France will have little effect
upon the natural bulwarks of the coun-
try.

NAUTICAL planisphere, a descrip-
tion of the terrestrial globe upon a plane,
for the use of mariners: but more usual-
ly called chart.

NAVY, implies, in general, any fleet,
or assembly of ships. It is, however,
more particularly understood of the ves-
sels of war that belong to a kingdom
or state. The term is also used to de-
note, a collective body of officers and
seamen. They are called the royal
navy.

NAVY-board, together with its civil
and military departments, consists of a
lord high admiral, or lords commission-
ers for executing this office; one first
lord commissioner, and six other lords
commissioners, with a number of in-
ferior officers, and clerks.

Surveyor of the NAVY, an officer who
enquires into the state of all stores, and
sees that the king’s ships are regularly
supplied with them.

Treasurer of the NAVY, an officer
who receives money out of the exche-
querr to pay all charges of the royal
navy, by order from the principal offi-
cers of it. It is particularly directed,
by statute, that all monies received on
this head shall be lodged in the bank of
England, and be drawn out for the im-
mediate and open purposes of the navy
only.

NAWAUB, Ind. See NABOB.

NEABUT, Ind. a deputyship, or lieu-
tenancy: from naib, a deputy.

NECESSARIES, in a military sense,
are such articles as are ordered to be
given to every soldier in the British ser-
vice, at regulated prices. Those to be
provided by stoppage from the pay of the
soldiers of regiments of dragoon guards,
dragoons, and fencible cavalry, are —
An extra pair of breeches of the same
quality, and to be in wear with those
furnished by the colonel.

A pair of breeches slings.
A stable jacket, trowsers, and foraging
cap.
A nose bag, watering bridle and log.
Three shirts.
One night cap.
One stock and clasps.
Three pair of worsted stockings.
One pair of long black gaiters.
Two pair of shoes.
One pair of shoe clasps.
Three shoe brushes.
Two combs, razor and soap.
One clothes brush, warm and picker.

Mans
NEC

Mane comb and sponge, curry comb and brush.
Horse picker and scissors.
Emery, oil, pipe-clay, whiting and blacking.
Button stick and hook.
Powder bag, powder and puff.
Carbine lock case.
A pair of saddle bags.
The actual expenditure for horse cloths and surcingles, not exceeding one shilling and eight pence per annum for each man, will be defrayed by the public.
The necessaries to be provided by stoppage from the pay of the soldiers of regiments of foot, militia, and fencible infantry, are:
One pair of shoes.
One pair of black cloth (long) gaiters.
Three shirts.
Three pair of worsted or yarn socks.
Worsted or yarn mitts during the winter.
One black stock.
One foraging cap.
One knapsack.
One clothes brush.
Three shoe brushes.
Black ball.
Hair ribbon and leather.
Two combs.
Straps for carrying the great coat.
N.B. The breeches, and any other articles of clothing or necessaries, which it may be requisite to have replaced from the soldier's stoppages, are to be made exactly of the same material and pattern as those originally furnished by the colonel.

NECK of LAND. This term is probably meant to signify what Bailey describes under Land-Cape, which he calls a narrow point of land, that runneth farther into the sea than the rest of the Continent. The French call it langue de terre, which, literally taken, is a tongue of land, or narrow slip that runs to the extremest point of a promontory or isthmus. The French also use langue de terre to express any slip of ground which runs through a wider space. Hence une langue de terre labourable qui traverse la prairie, an arable tongue or slip of land, which runs through the meadow. Whereas gorge, which is the literal translation of neck, is only used among the French to express a narrow space or hollow, as gorge de montagnes. See also gorge, in Fortification.

NEL

Neck of a gun, that part which lies between the muzzle mouldings and the cornish ring.
Neck of the casable, that part which lies between the breech mouldings and the casable.
NEESHUNGPAT, Ind. a violent assault without bloodshed.
NEGATIVE. This term is sometimes used to express the result of measures or enterprises, which, though not entirely successful, are not productive of serious or mischievous consequences. Hence Negative Success.
NEGATIVE Penalties, certain laws, whereby persons are excluded from honours, dignities, &c. without incurring any positive pains.
NEGLECT of DUTY. Officers of soldiers convicted of neglect of duty, are punishable at the discretion of a court martial.
NEGOCIATEUR, Fr. a confidential person, who is entrusted by his sovereign, or any other reigning power, with some affair of state.
NEGRE, NEGRESSE, Fr. See NEGROES.
NEGRIFFON, Fr. a little negro.
NEGROES, blacks, moors. A kind of slaves brought from Guinea, and other parts of Africa, and sent into the colonies of America, to cultivate sugar, tobacco, indigo, &c. and to dig in the mines of Peru or Mexico.
NELLI-COTA, a fort situated about forty miles to the south of Tinvelly, in the East Indies. This fort has been rendered memorable by the intrepid manner in which it was carried by the English in 1755. The detachment consisted of 100 Europeans, and 300 sepoys, with two field pieces. These troops (to quote Mr. Orme's words in his History of the Carnatic, page 386, Book V.) set out at midnight, and performed the march in eighteen hours: the polygar, startled at the suddenness of their approach, sent out a deputy, who pretended he came to capitulate, and promised that his master would pay the money demanded of him in a few days; but suspicions being entertained of his veracity, it was determined to detain him as a pledge for the execution of what he had promised, and he was accordingly delivered over to the charge of a guard. The troops were
so much fatigue by the excessive march they had just made, that even the advanced sentinels could not keep awake; and the deputy perceiving all the soldiers who were appointed to guard him, fast asleep, made his escape out of the camp, and returned to the fort; from whence the polygon had sent him only to gain time, in order to make the necessary preparations for his defence. This being discovered early in the morning, it was determined to storm the place, of which the defences were nothing more than a mud wall with round towers. The troops had not brought any scaling ladders, but the outside of the wall was sloping, and had many clefts worn in it by the rain, so that the assault, although hazardous, was nevertheless practicable. It was made both by the Europeans and the sepoys with undaunted courage, in several parties at the same time; each of which gained the parapet without being once repulsed, when the garrison retired to the buildings of the fort, where they called out for quarter; but the soldiers, as usual in desperate assaults, were so much exasperated by a sense of the danger to which they had exposed themselves, that they put all they met to the sword, not excepting the women and children; suffering only six persons out of four hundred to escape alive: sorry we are to say, that the troops and officers who bore the greatest part in this shocking barbarity, were the bravest of Englishmen; having most of them served under Colonel Lawrence, on the plains of Titchinopoly: but those who contemplate human nature, will find many reasons supported by examples, to dissent from the common opinion, that cruelty is incompatible with courage.

NERF, Fr. See SINEW.

NESHAUNBURDAR, Ind. an ensign.

NETHERLANDS, that part of Lower Germany which lies next to the sea, and so called from being situated between France, Lorraine, Germany, and the Ocean.

They were formerly divided into 17 provinces, four of which were dukedoms, viz. Brabant, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Gelderland; seven were earldoms, viz. Flanders, Artois, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, Namur, and Zutphen; and five baronies, viz. West Friesland, Mechlin, Utrecht, Overysell, and Groningen.

These were originally governed by distinct lords or princes, but were all united under Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, who left them to his son Charles, surnamed the Hardy, who being killed at Nancy, in 1747, the 17 provinces fell to his only daughter, Mary of Burgundy, who by marrying with Maximilian the First, carried them into the house of Austria.

The kings of France pretended a right to Artois, Flanders, &c. In the reign of king Philip II. of Spain, William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and several other discontented noblemen, gave beginning to those disturbances which terminated in the loss of Holland, and the other countries known by the name of the United Provinces, occasioned by the dread of the Inquisition, the insupportable rigour of the government of the Duke of Alva, and the violent encroachments of the Spaniards upon the liberties and privileges of the countries.

The Netherlands, comprehending Holland, have undergone material alterations during the progress of the French revolution. Brabant and Flanders, which belonged to the house of Austria, have been annexed to the French Republic, and form one of its departments. Holland, upon the expulsion of the Stadtholder, was allowed to call itself an independent country in alliance with France, and is now distinguished by the name of the Batavian Republic. How long the constitution of either country, particularly of Holland, may remain in its present state, time only and events must determine. We do not presume to offer an opinion on the subject, remaining satisfied in believing, that should any change take place, Prussia will not be forgotten in the political arrangement of that part of Europe.

NETTOYER, Fr. clean; to clear; scour, &c.

NETTOYER les Magasins, Fr. in artillery, signifies to remove the different pieces of ordnance, for the purpose of having them carefully examined, &c. and to have the stores and ammunition so arranged as not to receive damage. This duty is generally performed by small parties of soldiers, under the command of serjeants, who are detached from
from the different guards of a garrison town. In the old French service, the commissaire d'artillerie superintended the execution of this necessary duty, and the soldiers who were employed, got relieved from any further attendance as part of the guard, the instant their work was done.

Nettoyer, ou enfler, Fr. to scour, or enfluate.

Nettoyer la courtine, Fr. to scour, or fire through the whole extent of the curtain.

Nettoyer le rempart, Fr. to scour the rampart.

Nettoyer la tranchée, F. to scour or clear the trenches. This is effected by means of a vigorous sally which the garrison of a besieged place make upon the besiegers, when they beat in the guard, drive off the artificers and workmen, level the parapet, break up and choke the line of circumsallation, and spike or nail the cannon.

NEUTRAL, neither of the one nor the other.

Neutralité, Fr. See Neutrality.

Garder la Neutralité, Fr. to be neutral.

Accorder la Neutralité, Fr. to allow others to be neutral, or to grant neutrality.

Observer la Neutralité, Fr. to observe a strict neutrality.

Violer la Neutralité, Fr. to violate the laws of neutrality.

Demourer dans la Neutralité, Fr. to remain in a state of neutrality.

Neutralité, the state or condition of one who is neuter, a middle condition between a friend and an enemy.—In a military sense, remaining strictly indifferent, whilst other powers are at war, without assisting any party, with arms, ammunition, or men. When a country, calling itself neutral, furnishes a quota or contingent to any nation that is at war with another, it cannot be said to observe the strict laws of neutrality.—Of all precarious and difficult situations that perhaps is the most so, in which a weak nation is placed, when two powerful nations wage war on each side, and the exact laws of neutrality are expected to be observed by the intermediate country. History does not furnish a single instance of inviolable adherence to them under such critical circumstan-

ces. Bayle, speaking of neutrality, exclaims, heureux les pacifiques quant à l'autre monde, mais dans celui ci ils sont misérables! happy are the peaceable with respect to the next world, but they are miserable in this! In trying to derive advantages from the dissensions and broils of others, they insensibly become the victims of both parties. The French writer humorously says, Ils veulent être marteau, cela fait que continuellement ils sont enclumes à droit et à gauche: they would fain be hammers, instead of which they become anvils, and get beaten both right and left. This happened to the Venetians in 1701, who endeavoured to remain neutral during the campaigns that took place between the French and the Imperialists. The observance of a strict neutrality is unquestionably a matter of extreme difficulty, and requires uncommon ability. Few princes possess those qualities of the head and heart that distinguished Hieron, king of Syracuse, who so dextrously managed his neutrality in the war between Rome and Carthage. His subjects were considerably benefited by the conduct he observed, whilst his own reputation was not a little increased by the sound policy which dictated it.

During the progress of the French revolution, instances have occurred in which a wise neutrality might have been made productive of great national good. But, alas! there are few statesmen, who have ability or political virtue enough, to resist the intrigues or views of those cabinets, who being themselves, (unavoidably perhaps), involved in war, leave nothing untried to drag their neighbours into the same troubled state. Montesquieu has observed, with his usual good sense, that nations seldom know how to avail themselves of natural advantages. What becomes a matter of hard necessity in one country, is frequently found to exist in another, from crooked and interested policy, or from ignorance in administration. Some countries are calculated to be neutral; some to avail themselves of insular situations; and to impose by maritime operations; and others, to make up for the natural disadvantages of continental position, by means of standing armies.
The former can almost always preserve their neutrality, especially if they pay due attention to their navy; the latter, on the contrary, must, more or less, be continually exposed to the jealousies of contending powers. Under these circumstances, it is certainly sound policy to delare openly for one side or the other; for, however sincerely disposed to observe the strictest neutrality, an intermediate or neighbouring country might feel, those who are actually engaged in war, will always question its conduct; so that it must either sacrifice its real interests by taking a decisive part with those who are so situated, that they can harass and invade the country, or join in an armed neutrality, whose system is equally precarious.—It has, indeed, been remarked, (with what justice we leave politicians to determine) that no power, being, or affecting to be neuter, should be allowed to arm itself, because it is impossible to have perfect confidence in a quarter from whence hostilities may commence according to the exigency of circumstances, (so properly called by the French, la force des circonstances,) or the alluring prospects of ambition. In which of these predicaments we might with propriety place Sweden and Denmark, may be matter of conjecture.—During the late war, they were called upon by Great Britain to give an unequivocal declaration of the principles of their armed neutrality, and from the resistance they made, it is fair to conclude, that the influence of their continental neighbours had the better of that neutral system which they pursued during the French revolution. How far they will be benefited, time must prove. As countries, dependent almost wholly upon a commercial intercourse with Great Britain, their assumption of that armed aspect which then excited the jealousy of the latter, may perhaps ultimately turn out short-sighted policy. Much, however, depends upon the final issue of that gigantic convulsion which has shaken Europe to its center. As long as England can maintain her superiority at sea, Sweden and Denmark will be more or less endangered by every measure they adopt. They are equally so while France has sufficient ascendency to secure Prussia, (after having completely paralyzed Austria) and to turn the scale of Russian politics in her favour. It is more than probable, that the armed neutrality of the North (not unjustly called by us the armed confederacy) sprung originally from a secret understanding with the agents of France, and manifested itself more strongly on the dereliction of Russia. Great Britain of course took the alarm; and, as a French writer very justly observes on the subject of armed neutrality, sent her fleets, on the failure of amicable negotiation, to ascertain the point at the gates of Copenhagen. Whether a measure, which was certainly bold and hazardous, will be productive of any good effect, it is impossible for us to determine. We only state what has happened, and account for the conduct of Great Britain with regard to Denmark and Sweden, on the right which every belligerent power possesses, of exacting from an armed neutral country a decisive explanation of its conduct and intentions. We do not in this place affect to give an opinion with regard to the manner which has been adopted, the preciosity of the attempt, but most especially on the tardiness of the execution. We barely state, that when a neutral country thinks fit to arm itself, any one of the powers actually engaged in war, may force that country to declare itself; because the latter, by remaining in an armed state, may at any time turn the scale of things, and side with the victorious party.

We have already observed, that there is not perhaps in human politics, a rule of conduct which is so intricate, and of course so difficult to be observed, as that of neutrality. La loi des plus forts, or the law of the strongest, so often tramples down natural rights, that necessity drives those to the adoption of questionable measures, who would otherwise remain strictly neutral; whilst others again, from being contiguous to contending armies, resort to various pretences, in order to remain in an armed condition for the purpose of taking advantage at a critical moment. Of this description was the system of armed neutrality which, Pope Leon X. is recorded to have pursued. When Francis I., king of France, was engaged in a war
war with the Swiss Cantons, respecting the Milanese, his Holiness resolved to remain neuter, or at least affected to be so, although he was strongly invited by both parties to take an active and decisive part. He drew his troops towards the frontiers of the Milanese, under a pretext of covering the ecclesiastical states, but in reality for the purpose of being at hand when the two armies should come to a decisive engagement, of unexpectedly falling upon the victorious army, at the close of an obstinate and bloody battle, of driving it out of Italy, becoming master of Lombardy, and finally establishing himself as the arbiter of the country. But all these imaginary triumphs of the Pope soon disappeared. His troops, which had already reached the frontiers of the Milanese, no sooner learned, that the French had been totally routed by the French, than they were panic-struck, and dispersed in the greatest disorder; as if they were conscious of being engaged in a crooked and illegal cause.

Ancient history affords us several examples of this species of neutrality. During the civil wars between the adherents of Vespasian and those of Otho and Vitellius, various means of duplicity were resorted to. We likewise read of the same sort of conduct having been observed by the inhabitants of Corcyra when they went to war with the Corinthians; and modern history is full of similar instances of specious neutrality. For farther particulars on this interesting subject, especially on the conduct to be observed by neutrals in war, see from page 531 to 533, of the English translation of Hugo Grotius, by William Evats, B. D.

NICK-NAME, (Sobriquet, Fr.) a surname, which is used in ridicule or good humour, to distinguish an individual. Nicknames among military men are familiarly used in a collective sense. Thus the light infantry are called Light Bobs, the grenadiers Tom Rows, and the battalion-men Flat-Foots; and in many instances whole corps have been particularized in this manner. The 28th of foot were familiarly called the Slammers; and a very respectable general officer in the British service used to be nicknamed General No-Flirt, from a circumstance which occurred during the American war, when he commanded a species of forlorn hope. During the campaigns of 1793 and 1794, in Flanders, &c. the 15th regiment of light dragoons were called Young Eyes by the guards, who received, or rather gave themselves the nick-name of Old Eyes.

NIGHER, Ind. any fortified city, measuring at least eight coss, or eight English miles, in length and breadth. NIQUIBS, Ind. men whose military functions among the Sepoys, correspond with those of corporals in the king’s service.

NITHING, a coward, or poltroon.

NITRE. See Saltpetre.

NIVEAU, Fr. a level.

NIVEAU de la campagne, F. the level surface of a country is so called, in contradistinction to the talus or slope of any rising ground.

De NIVEAU, Fr. level, even.

NIVEAU d’eau, Fr. a water level. This instrument is extremely simple, and of great use to engineers in the construction of works.

NIVEAU de charpentier, Fr. a carpenter’s rule or level.

NIVEAU de pateau, Fr. a parior’s level.

NIVELER, Fr. to level.

NIVELER les eaux, Fr. to find the true level for conveying water.

NIVELER le terrain, Fr. to find the true level of ground, and to ascertain the relative elevations of places.

NIVELER, Fr. a leveler: it is likewise sometimes used to express a trier; but it does not signify a leveller in the political sense which we apply the English word in these days; nor does it mean a Leveller belonging to a set of people in Oliver Cromwell’s army, who were for having an equal share in the administration of the government between the nobility and the commonalty.

NIZAM, Ind. a title which is bestowed by the Great Mogul on one of his principal viziers, on his being appointed to the command and administration of certain provinces. The word means, an adjuster, a regulator, an arranger, or manager, &c.

NIZAM ut Moolue, Ind. the protector of the country.

NIZAMUT, the office of Nizam.

NOBILITY, (Noblesse, Fr.) from the Latin, Nobilitas. This word has been
been variously defined. It is, however, generally understood to signify Illustrious Descent, and Conspicuousness of Ancestors, with a succession of arms conferred on some one (and from him to his family) by the Prince, by law, or by custom, as a reward for the good and virtuous actions of him that performed them. The only true purchase of nobility must, therefore, consist of great and good actions; which, in proportion as they dignified and ennobled the original owner, become objects of important trust with every descendant; who either reflects them back by a laudable imitation, or shamefully abuses the tenure by dishonourable practices.

To be merely descended from a noble family, is of little consequence in the eyes of true thinking men; and still less so, when the heir discovers no other proofs of his nobility, than shew and ostentation.

Nobility likewise means a quality that dignifies, or renders a person noble: particularly that raises a person possessed of it above a peasant or a commoner.—The quality or degree of a nobleman; also the whole body of noblemen separated from the commonalty.

Nobility also means Name, Reputation, Renown. N. Baily in his fourth edition of the New Universal Etymological Dictionary, has the following curious passages on this word:—

Nobility. The Italians thus satirised nobility: the dukes and earls of Germany, (every son of a duke being a duke, and every daughter of a duchess being a duchess) the Dons of Spain, the Monsieurs of France, the bishops of Italy, (every city having a bishop) the nobility of Hungary, the Lairds of Scotland, the Knights of Naples, and the younger brethren of England, make all together a poor company. He then classes nobility under five specific heads, viz.

Divine Nobility, which is also called Heavenly, or Theological Nobility, and relates to the supposed original of the soul.

Human or worldly Nobility, which regards blood, and a genealogy of many ancestors. This nobility is purely accidental, and depends upon our birth. This is called political or hereditary, and becomes the right of individuals, be their merit, virtue, and capacity, what they may.

Moral Nobility, refers only to virtue, is purely personal, and depends on our own free will. It is also called Philosophical; but is not hereditary, except by the influence of example, which renders it the general inheritance of all good men.

Native Nobility, is such as has been acquired by some merits or deeds, and has been conferred by the Prince, &c.

Native Nobility, is what passes from father to son, and makes the son noble, because his father was so. Of this species of nobility consists the British House of Lords; to which occasional additions are made by purchased peerages.

Nobles, are the grandees of NOBLEMEN, any kingdom or nation, by whatsoever title they are distinguished. Honorary distinctions have been very ancient. The Greeks distinguished their people into three ranks, viz. Noblemen, Land-holders, or Farmers, and Tradesmen. The first were indulged with great privileges, and wore the figure of a grasshopper, as a badge of honour, in their hair. The Romans wore a half moon upon their shoes.

Among the Romans, those persons were called Nobles who preserved the statues of their ancestors in their courts or cabinets. The faces of these statues were painted to resemble life. But it was necessary to be descended from the ancient magistrates, called Curules, to be entitled to have these statues. They were exhibited to the public on festival days; and when any of the family died, they were carried in solemn procession before the corps; so that under these circumstances, an individual might be a Patrician without being actually of noble blood or extraction.

That person was called Noble in France, who first received a letter patent constituting him such, and who thus gave rise to the nobility of his descendants. —Those born of him bore the title of gentilhomme, or gentleman. Un ancien gentilhomme, or gentleman of some standing, was stiled homme de condition, or person of condition. Those gentlemen who were descended from illustrious houses were called, Men of Quality, Gens de Qualité.
In England those only are called Nobles or Noblemen, who have the title of Duke, Marquis, Earl, Viscount, Lord, or Baron; which titles either descend to individuals from family-right, are gratuitously conferred upon them by the Prince (who is called the fountain of honour), or are obtained by the price of gold. The hereditary tenure becomes equally solid in all these instances, though not equally estimable, unless the title be itself ennobled by some great and good actions of the possessor. By those, and those only, can a purchased title be converted into sterling gold out of base metal.

NOBLESSE. See Nobility.

Noblesse Militaire, Fr. military nobility. Although most of our orders may be considered as appendages which confer a sort of military nobility, especially that of the garter, which was instituted by king Edward III. on the 19th of January, 1344, yet we cannot be strictly said to have amongst us, that species of military nobility or distinction that was peculiarly known in France, &c. under the immediate title of Noblesse Militaire. In order to reward military merit, an edict was issued by the French court at Fontainbleau, in November, 1750, and enregistered on the 25th of the same month by the parliament of Paris, whereby a Noblesse Militaire, or Military Nobility, was created; the acquisition of which depended wholly upon martial character, but did not require any letter patent for the purpose of ennobling the individual.

By the first article of this perpetual and irrevocable edict, as it was then stated, it was decreed, that no person, serving in the capacity and quality of officer in any of the king’s troops, should be liable to the land or poll tax, so long as he continued in that situation. In Great Britain and Ireland, subalterns only are exempted from the powder tax; but they are liable to all other imposts. 2dly. That by virtue of this edict, and from the date thereof, all general officers, not being otherwise ennobled, but being actually and bona fide in the service, should be considered as noble, and remain so, together with their children born, or to be born in lawful wedlock. 3dly. That in future the rank of general officer should of itself be sufficient to confer the full right of nobility upon all those who should arrive at that degree of military promotion; and that their heirs and successors, as well as their children, actually born and lawfully begotten, should be entitled to the same distinction; and that all general officers should enjoy all the rights and privileges of nobility from the date of their commissions. In articles IV, V, VI, and VII, it was specifically provided upon what conditions those officers, who were not noble, and were inferior in rank to that of Maréchal de Camp, or Major-general, but who had been created Chevaliers or Knights of the royal and military Order of St. Louis, and who should retire from the service after having been in the army during thirty years without intermission, were to be exempted from the payment of the land or poll tax, and how the same privilege was to be transferred to their sons, provided they were in the service. By the eighth article, it was enacted, that those officers who had risen to the rank of captain, and were Chevaliers or Knights of the order of St. Louis, but who were disabled by wounds, or diseases contracted in the service, should not be obliged to fill up the period of thirty years as prescribed in the recited Articles. By Article IX. it was provided, that when any officer, not under the rank of captain, died in the actual exercise of the functions, or bearing the commission of captain, the services he had already rendered should be of use to his sons, lawfully begotten, who were either in the service, or were intended for it.

It was specified in Articles X. and XI. that every officer, born in wedlock, whose father and grandfather had been exempted from the land or poll tax, should be noble, in his own right, provided he got created a Chevalier or Knight of St. Louis, had served the prescribed period, or was entitled to the exemption mentioned in Article VIII. that if he should die in the service, he would be considered as having acquired the rank of nobility, and that the title so obtained should descend, as matter of right, to the children, lawfully begotten, of such officers as had acquired it. It further specified, that even those who should have been born previous to their father’s being ennobled, were entitled to the same privilege.

Article
Article XII. pointed out the method by which proofs of military nobility were to be exhibited in conformity to the then existing edict.

Articles XIII. and XIV. provided for those officers, who were actually in the service at the promulgation of the edict, in proportion as the prescribed periods were filled up. This provision related wholly to the personal service of officers; as no proof was acknowledged or received, relative to services done by their fathers or grandfathers, who might have retired from the army, or have died prior to the publication of the edict.

The XVth, or last article, was a sort of register, in which were preserved the different titles that enabled individuals to lay claim to military nobility.

The whole of this edict may be seen, page 206, in the 3d volume, Des Éléments Militaires.

NOUE D'ARTIFICIER, Fr. a particular knot which artificers or fireworkers make use of to bind fusées together.

NOUE D'CHARMÊRE, Fr. a particular knot or stress, which is used in the artillery when ropes are passed under carriages, for the purpose of raising any piece of ordnance that has been overturned.

NOUE D'ÉPAULE, Fr. shoulder-knot: it signifies also the same as Aiguilette, a tagged point.

NOM DE GUERRE, Fr. See Guerre.

NOMADES, a tribe of wandering Arabs belonging to Mesopotamia, (the ancient name of Diabekr,) a province in Asiatic Turkey. They live on plunder.

NOMINAL, by name. Hence

NOMINAL CALL, which corresponds with the French appel nominatif; and, in a military sense, with our roll call.

NOTÉ, a peculiar method among the Romans of writing expeditiously. The invention is given to Tyro, who was Cicero's bondman. This art consists in being able to take down, correctly, every sentence that is spoken, let the enunciation be ever so rapid.

We call it tachygraphy, from the Greek compound, signifying swift and write.

NOTIFICATION, the making any thing known. Hence, a War-Office notification, respecting the appointment of an officer, &c.

NOTIFICATION-BOOK, among army agents, a book in which a regular entry is made of officers recommended for commissions in the army; also of such as are appointed by a notification from the War-Office.

NOURRICE, Fr. a nurse; a female who attends the sick. This word is likewise used by the French to express the means of subsistence, &c. which are supplied by the agricultural part of a kingdom. Hence une province est la nourrice d'une ville; the town is fed by the country round it. La Sicile est la nourrice de Rome. Sicily is the nurse of Rome; meaning thereby, that the latter was supplied with corn, &c. by the former.

NOURRIR, Fr. to feed. The French say familiarly, La soupe nourrit le soldat; broth feeds the soldier.

NOYAU, Fr. a long piece of iron, which is placed in the middle of a cannon mould, in order that the liquid metal may be poured round it, and the piece obtain an equal thickness on all sides.

NOYAU, Fr. likewise means the whole of the vacant space or bore of a cannon, under which are comprehended the diameter of the mouth, the vacant cylinder, the breech, and the vent.

With respect to bombs, grenades, and hollow balls, that which is called Noyau consists of a globular piece of earth, upon which the cover of bombs, grenades, and hollow balls is cast. The metal is poured in between this cover and the nøyau, after which the nøyau or core is broken, and the earth taken out.

NOWARRA, Ind. an establishment of boats, which is kept at Dacca, for a defence against the Mugs and other plunderers.

NUDEE, Ind. the name for a rivulet.

NULLA, Ind. This term likewise signifies a rivulet, and means the place which was once the bed of a river.

NUMEROS, Fr. round pieces made of brass, or other metal, which were numbered, and used in the old French service in the detail of guards. See Maron.

NURSE, a person, generally a female, whose whole business is to attend the sick in the general or regimental hospital. She is under the immediate direction
direction of the surgeon. According to the Regulations published by authority in 1799, there is to be one decent, sober, woman nurse, who shall receive at the rate of one shilling per diem, whose duty will be to prepare the slops and comforts for the sick, and occasionally to assist in administering medicines, cooking the victuals, washing, &c. and for every ten men confined to bed by fever, an additional nurse and orderly-man should be allowed. All the patients, who are able, are every morning and evening to assist in cleaning and airing the hospital, carrying away dirt, &c. and by every means to assist the helpless.

The additional allowance to the sergeants, orderly-men, and nurse, in regiments of the line, to be made by the paymaster; and in regiments of militia and fencibles, the surgeons are to pay them out of their allowances.

In every regimental hospital, a room should be appropriated to the accommodation of such convalescents, whose state of health will admit of their being placed on full diet. This hospital to be regularly visited by the surgeon once, twice, or oftener in the day, as circumstances may require.

A non-commissioned officer to be appointed to the particular charge of the Convalescent Hospital, with an orderly-man, and when the convalescents are numerous, more orderly-men are to be attached to it, to keep it clean.

It is particularly ordered, that none of the hospital tables and orders, which are to be hung up in a conspicuous place in every regimental hospital, shall be defaced by any person whatever, nor taken down, but by the surgeon or serjeant, the latter of whom will explain the allowance ordered for those patients who are not themselves in a situation to read the table for the distribution of diet.


OATH, a solemn asseveration made in the presence of a magistrate, and taken, on the Bible, in Great Britain and its dependencies, whereby an individual binds himself to observe certain conditions, or swears to specific facts which he knows of his own knowledge. Soldiers from time immemorial have been accustomed to take oaths of fidelity. These oaths were, however, observed with greater solemnity among the ancients than they are administered in modern armies, except upon very particular occasions. In the latter, indeed, it seldom or ever happens, that oaths are taken by bodies of soldiers assembled for the purpose.—Oaths are taken by men newly enlisted, but those oaths are individually administered, and separately taken.—The military oath, on the contrary, among the Romans, was of a more general and impressive nature. Kennett in his Roman Antiquities, page 188, gives the following account of it:—"The levies being finished, the tribunes of every legion chose out one whom they thought the fittest person, and gave him a solemn oath at large, the substance of which was, that he should oblige himself to obey the commanders in all things to the utmost of his power, be ready to attend whenever they ordered his appearance, and never to leave the army but by their consent. After he had ended, the whole legion, passing one by one, every man, in short, swore to the same effect, crying, as he went by, Idem in me. The same by me.

OATH OF Allegiance.—See Allegiance.

OATHS ON general and regimental
courts-martial. According to the amendments introduced into the last Mutiny Act, passed in 43 Geo. III. it is enacted, “That in all courts-martial (other than general courts-martial), which shall be held by virtue of this act, or of any articles of war, established by his Majesty, in pursuance thereof, every member assisting at such trial, before any proceedings be had thereupon, shall take the prescribed oaths upon the Holy Evangelists.

OATS, a grain which constitutes a principal portion in the feed of horses. The distribution of this article ought to be narrowly watched by every officer commanding a troop; since it is notorious, that government is frequently charged for quantities which are not delivered, by which means, the horse suffers, and the public are imposed upon.

OBEDIENCE, (Obéissance, Fr.)—submission to the orders of a superior. The first principle which ought to be inculcated and impressed upon the mind of every officer and soldier is obedience to all lawful commands. It is the main spring, the soul and essence, of military duty.

Préter obeissance, Fr. to swear allegiance, fidelity, &c.

Remettre dans l’obéissance, Fr. to recall to duty.

OBÉDIENCE of Orders, an unequivocal performance of the several duties which are directed to be discharged by military men. All officers and soldiers are to pay obedience to the lawful orders of their superior officers.

OBEIR, Fr. See OBEY.

OBELISK, (Obélisque, Fr.) a huge, solid piece of marble, or fine stone, four square, and all of one piece, growing smaller from the bottom, and ending in a point at the top, like a pyramid, set up for a monument, &c. Obelisks are sometimes made of different pieces of stone, &c.

To OBEY, in a military sense, is, without question or hesitation to conform zealously to all orders and instructions which are legally issued. It sometimes happens, that individuals are called upon (by mistake, or from the exigency of the service) out of what is called the regular roster. In either case they must cheerfully obey, and after they have performed their duty, they may remonstrate.

OBJECT, in a military sense, signifies the same as point, with respect to mere movements and evolutions. Thus in marching forward in line, &c. the leader of a squad, company, or battalion, must take two objects at least, upon which he forms his perpendicular movement, and by which the whole body is regulated. In proportion as he advances, he takes care to select intermediate and distant objects or points, by which his march is governed. See Marching in line.

OBLATE, any round figure flattened as the pikes. Hence the term Oblate Spheroid.

OBLIQUATION, a deviation from OBLIQUITY, the parallel or perpendicular line.

OBLIQUE, or second flank. The face of a bastion discovered from a part of the curtain, is so called.

OBLIQUE projection, is that wherein the direction of the striking body is not perpendicular to the body struck, which makes an oblique angle with the horizontal line.

OBLIQUE deployments. When the component parts of a column that is extending into line, deviate to the right or left, for the purpose of taking up an oblique position, its movements are called oblique deployments. See Regulations, Sect. 188, page 318.

OBLIQUE fire or defence, that which is under too great an angle, as is generally the defence of the second flank, which can never be so good as a defence in front. See Oblique Firing, at the word Firings.

OBLIQUE percussion, is that wherein the direction of the striking body is not perpendicular to the body struck, or is not in line with its center of gravity.

OBLIQUE position, a position taken in an oblique direction from the original line of formation. See Rules and Regulations, Sect. 195, page 325.

OBLIQUE radius, a line extending from the center to the exterior side of a polygon.

OBLIQUE step, to the left, is made in ordinary time, and consists in carrying the left foot 19 inches in the diagonal line to the left, bringing the right foot 30 inches forward, so that the heel may be
be 13 inches before the left foot; thus
obtaining a general obliquity of about
an angle of 25°. In obliquing to the
right the same is precisely done by the
reverse feet; the original squareness
of the body to its proper front being
preserved in both cases throughout.

To Oblique, in a military sense, is
to move forward to the right or left, by
stepping sideways in either of those di-
rections, according to the following
words of command:

Right Oblique. When the squad is
marching in front, and receives the word
To the Right Oblique, each man, the first
time he raises the right foot, will, in-
stead of throwing it straight forward,
carry it 19 inches in the diagonal di-
rection, to the right, gaining thereby
about 13 inches to the side, and about
13 inches to the front, without altering
his personal squareness of position. The
greatest attention is to be paid to the
shoulders of every man in the squad,
that all may remain parallel to the line
on which they first were placed; and that
the right shoulders do not fall to the
rear, which they are very apt to do in
obliquing to the right, and which im-
mEDIATELY changes the direction of the
front.—On the word Forward, the in-
cline ceases, and the whole march for-
ward.

In obliquing to the left, the same
rules are to be observed, with the dif-
fERENCE of the left leg going to the left,
and the left shoulder being carefully
kept up.

Obliquing to the right is to be prac-
tised sometimes with the eyes to the
left; and obliquing to the left, with the
eyes to the right; as being absolutely
necessary on many occasions; for if
one of the battalions of a line in ad-
Vancing be ordered to oblique to the
right, or to the left, the eyes must still
continue turned towards its center.

Oblique movements, though they
may be made by a squad, or division, in
quick time, must be executed by a larger
body in ordinary time.

To Oblique in file. When any body
of men is ordered to oblique to the right
or left by files, the center and rear rank
men (supposing the line to stand three
deep) will continue looking to their
leaders of the front rank. Each file is
to consider itself as an entire rank, and
to preserve the same front, and position
of the shoulders, during the oblique, as
before it began. The Regulations,
from which these passages are extracted,
observe, that as this is a very useful
movement, recruits should be often
practised in it. Pages 99 and 30.

Pas Oblique, Fr. oblique step.
Oblique à droite, Fr. right oblique.
Oblique à gauche, Fr. left oblique.
Feux Obliques à droite et à gauche,
oblique firings to the right and left.
Marcher OBLIQUEMENT, Fr. to
oblique, or march in an oblique direc-
tion.

OBLIVION. See AMNESTY.
OBLONG, (oblong, Fr.) any figure
which contains more in length than in
breadth is so called.
OBLONG Square. See SQUARE.
OBSEDER, Fr. to besiege, to beset,
to get possession of.
OBSEQUIES, (obsequies, Fr.) See
BURIALS.

OBSERVATION. See Army of Ob-
ervation.

To be under Observation, to be
carefully watched and looked after.—
Être vu de près; être suivi de près.

OBSERVATOIRE, Fr. See Ob-
servatory.

Observatory, a building, pub-
lic or private, which is erected and pro-
vided with all sorts of instruments,
proper for astronomical observations,
&c. The most noted observatories in
Europe are:

1. That of Tycho Brahe, a noble-
man of Denmark, at Uraniaberg, in
the island of Wern, between the coasts
of Schonen and Zealand, in the Baltic.

2. The observatory at Paris, which
was erected by Louis XIV. This build-
ing stands in the Fauxbourg St. Ger-
main, and is so constructed as to an-
swer the four cardinal points of the
world, east, west, north, and south.—
The foundation is laid 80 feet below
the ground, and the edifice carried as
much above it. It contains three stories
in height, and has a terrace at top,
from whence the whole horizon appears
flat. The stair-case of this observatory
deserves notice, from the singularity
of its construction, being in the form of
a screw, and so contrived, that from
the bottom there is a full sight of the stars
that pass the zenith of this place.

3. The
3. The royal observatory at Greenwich, which was founded by Charles the Second.

4. The observatory at Pekin, in China, which was erected by the late Emperor, at the intercession of the Jesuits.

To OBSERVE, to watch closely, &c. Hence to observe the motions of an enemy, is to keep a good look out by means of intelligent and steady spies or scouts, and to be constantly in possession of his different movements. No man can be said to have the talents of an able general, who neglects to observe his enemy in all directions; for if it be his intention to attack, you may thwart him by previous manœuvres; and if you are liable to be attacked yourself, you may assume the best possible position, and prevent surprise, &c.

OBSSESSION, the act of besieging.

OBSIDIONAL, belonging to a siege.

OBSIDIONAL Crown, (Couronne obsidionale, Fr.) a crown so called among the ancient Romans, which was bestowed upon a governor or general, who, by his skill and exertions, either held out, or caused the siege to be raised of any town belonging to the Republic. It was made from the grass which grew upon the spot, and was therefore called Gramineus, from the Latin word Gramen, signifying grass.

Monnoye Obsidionale, Fr. any substitute for coin, which has a value put upon it that is greater than its intrinsic worth; and a currency given, to answer the convenience of the inhabitants of a besieged place. On a employé le cuir à faire des monnoyes obsidionales. The inhabitants made use of leather as a substitute for coin.

OBSTACLES, (obstacles, Fr.) in a military sense, are narrow passes, woods, bridges, or any other impediments, which present themselves when a battalion is marching to front or rear. These are passed, by the formation, march, and deployment, of the close column. Such parts as are not interrupted still move on in front; such parts as are interrupted, double by divisions as ordered, behind an adjoining flank or flanks, and in this manner follow in close column in their natural order. As the ground opens they successively deploy, and again perfect the line. The columns are always behind the line, and march closed up. The formed part of the battalion, whether advancing or retiring, continues to move on at the ordinary pace, and in proportion as the obstacles increase or diminish, will the formed or column parts of the line increase or diminish.

The general attentions directed to be observed on these occasions are, that the columns formed shall be of sub-divisions, if the ground will admit. The first sub-division that is obliged to double, will be directed to which hand by the commander of the battalion; the others, as they successively double, will, in consequence, place themselves behind it, and behind each other, and the hand first doubled to, will be that which presents the opening most favourable to the subsequent march, and formation, and which the commanding officer will always hold in view, and order accordingly. The interrupted body will double to one or both flanks, according to circumstances, and the order it receives. Obstacles that impede a flank will occasion a single column to be formed from the flank towards the center. Obstacles that impede the center, or a central part of a wing, will, if considerable, occasion two columns to be formed, from the center towards the flanks. The columns will follow a flank of such part of the line as is not impeded; and either in doubling into column, or extending into line, the rear divisions will conform to the movements of their then leading one. No part less than the front of the column doubles or moves up, and when half or more of a battalion must be thrown into one column, it will be ordered by companies.

Obstacles whose fronts are parallel to the line. When such occur, the divisions impeded must all at once double behind such one, or two other divisions as clear them of the obstacle.

Obstacles whose first points continue to increase as the line advances. In these cases the doubling is successive, beginning with that division which is first interrupted, and continuing as it becomes necessary, till the column can advance in clear ground.

Obstacles passed, or diminished.—When obstacles are of such a nature as to allow the complete extension at once
once into line: the whole column performs it by the commands and deployments of the close column on the front division, which then makes part of the line. But when obstacles diminish by degrees only, then the divisions of the column must come up into line successively as the ground opens, and the remainder of the column must, in diminishing, shift towards the obstacle, in the same manner as it before shifted from it in increasing.

**Obstacles that are passed in presence of an enemy.** Under these circumstances, if the battalion, in advancing, should be obliged to fire, it halts in the situation it is then in, executes such firings as are ordered, and again advances.

If the battalion, in retiring, is pressed by the enemy, the part in line, will *halt! from! the part in column will move on till the last division arrives in line, and will then *halt, from*. The firing that is ordered, will be executed; and when it is again proper to retire, the whole will face about, the part in line will *march*, and the columns will also be put in march when the line arrives at their head.

**Obstacles whose points of opening are narrow, and continue so, more or less.** In such cases, the interrupted division will be ordered to face either to one or both flanks, and closely to follow in file such parts of the battalion as are not broken: the filing will increase as the obstacles increase, but as they diminish, file after file will successively and quickly move up to their place till the whole are again formed; and during this operation the leading file will always remain attached to the flank of the part in line. The same rules that direct the doubling in column, direct the doubling by files; when a subdivision files it will be from the flank only; when a company files, it may be from both flanks; and if a larger front than two companies is interrupted, it then doubles into column. Where the obstacles are of small extent, but frequently occurring, this mode is the readiest that can be applied in advancing; but in retiring it cannot be of use, if the enemy be at hand to press upon the battalion; and therefore the passing by column is to be looked upon as the general method.

For further explanations on the important operations of passing obstacles, we refer our military readers to pages 233, 234, 35, 36, 37, and 39, of Rules and Regulations, as published by authority.

**OBSTINATE,** in a military sense, determined, fixed in resolution. Hence obstinate resistance.

**OBSTINATELY,** persevering. The two armies fought so obstinately, that night only could separate the combatants.

**OBSTINÉMENT,** Fr. obstinately, stubbornly, inflexibly, with unshaken determination.

**SOBSTÎNER,** Fr. to persist in any thing.

**OBSTRUCTION,** any difficulty or impediment, opposing the operations of an army, &c.

**OBTUSE,** (obtus, Fr.) not pointed, dull.

**OBTUSE angle,** (angle obtus, Fr.) any angle which contains more than 90 degrees, is so called, and is therefore named irregular.

**OBTUSANGULAR,** having angles larger than right angles.

**OBUS,** (haubitz ou obusier, Fr.) ho- bits. A species of small mortar, resembling a mortar in every thing but the carriage, which is made in the form of that of a gun, only shorter. It has been frequently used at sieges; and is well calculated to sweep the covert-way, and to fire ricochet shots. They were usually loaded with cartouches. Béli- dor writes upon the subject at some length, in his *Bombardier François*, page 39.

**OC,** an arrow which is used among the Turks.

**OCCASIO,** L. among the Romans, an allegorical divinity, the goddess of time, who presides over the most favourable moment for success in any enterprise. She is represented as stark naked, with a long lock of hair upon her forehead, and bald behind. And also standing on a wheel, with wings on her feet, and is said to turn herself very swiftly round; by which is intimated, that we should lay hold of the present opportunity. Among modern nations, no people pay greater attention to the instruction which is conveyed by this allegory than the French do. It is common amongst them to say:— *L'Occasion est
est chauve. Occasion or opportunity is
tide—Alluding to the Roman allegory;
and in the same figure, il faut prendre
l'occasion par les cheveux. You must
seize Time (by which is meant Occasion
or opportunity) by the forelock.

OCCASION, F r. has the same sig-
nification, in military matters, that affair
bears among the French.

Une occasion bien chaude, Fr. a
warm contest, battle, or engagement—
It further means, as with us, the source
from whence consequences ensue. Les
mêleurs du peuple sont arrivées à l'occa-
sion de la guerre. The misfortunes of
the people have been occasioned by the
war, or the war has been the occasion
of the people's misfortunes. The French
make a nice distinction, which may hold
good in our language, between cause
and occasion, viz. Il n'en est pas la cause
—Il n'en est que l'occasion, l'occasion
innocente.—He is not the cause, he is
only the occasion, the innocent occasion
of it. Il n'est pas quelque occasion;
he took offence, or grew angry on
a very slight occasion, or for a very
slight cause.

Se servir de l'occasion, Fr. to take
advantage, or make a proper use of time
and opportunity. A French writer has
very properly observed, that to seize
with dexterity occasions as they occur,
is a certain proof of courage and ability,
especially in the general of an army.—
Opportunity or occasion, according to
Tacitus, is the mother of events. Oppor-
tunos magis comitibus transitus rerum.
One complete and decisive victory leads
us to a multiplicity of enterprises and
great designs, all of which grow out of
the first triumph.

A full and decisive victory, by which
the country is left entirely at the mercy
of the conqueror, must necessarily throw
the inhabitants into confusion, and open
fresh avenues to conquest; for one op-
portunity or occasion, well embraced and
executed upon, becomes the source of
many others. There is not, perhaps,
in human contingencies any thing which
spreads itself so rapidly, or ought to be
so little neglected. An enterprise which
grows out of another, though it be in
reality more arduous to get through
than the one which produced it, becomes
more easy in its execution: and yet,
how many brave and skilful generals
have existed, who could not make a pro-
per use of opportunity? In reading
over their gallant exploits, one would
be led to believe, that all their knowledge
consisted in merely knowing how to
fight. We have seen them with unex-
spected intrepidity, doing everything
that man dares to do, in the field of
battle: we have seen them make a de-
cisive blow, and place victory within
their grasp; and when they were in the
actual possession of all they fought for,
we have seen them suddenly relax, give
their enemies time to breathe, and fin-
ally lose all the fruits of their victory. The
courage and promptitude which they man-
ifested in a decisive battle, were the
effects of a transitory impulse, which was
soon wasted and extinguished.

Hannibal, so much celebrated for his
bold enterprise against the Romans,
was guilty of this error. After the bat-
tle of Canne it rested entirely with him-
self to march to Rome. He had only
to follow up his first blow, to take ad-
vantage of the consternation of the Ro-
mans, and to pursue them to their ca-
pital. By so doing he would have made
use of the glorious occasion which for-
tune had thrown into his hands by the
first victory, and would not have been
driven to the necessity of endeavouring
to obtain the original object of his en-
terprise, by fighting several battles that
proved abortive of it. Adherbal, on this
account, after having failed in his at-
tempt to persuade Hannibal to pursue
his first good fortune, and to march to
the gates of Rome, is recorded to have
used the following expression: Vincet
vinces Hannibal; sed victorius uti necis.
Hannibal, thou knowest how to conquer;
but thou dost not know how to make
use of a victory.

Gustavus Adolphus made the same
mistake. Had he, after having won the
battle of Leipsick, hung upon the rear
of the discomfited Imperialists, pushed
and harassed them to the gates of Vienn-
a, there is little doubt of the con-
sequences which must have ensued.

The Emperor Ferdinand was as weak
in effective forces at the capital, as the
Romans were at Rome, and the same
consternation prevailed among the inha-
bbitants. Had Gustavus profited by his
first success, and converted the means,
which so glorious an occasion offered,
into prompt and vigorous pursuit, he
would not indeed have reaped addition-
basions, that the entrance and outlet of the rivers may be in some of the curtains. By means of this disposition no person could come in or go out of the garrison without the governor's or commandant's permission, as the sentinels must have a full view from the flanks of the neighbouring bastions.

OCTAVON, (one, Fr.) any male or female that is born of a quarteron and a white woman, or of a white man and a quarterone.

OCTOEDRICAL, having eight sides.

OCTONS, Fr. a mathematical instrument, which contains 45 degrees or the eighth part of a circle.

OCTOSTYLE, the face of a building containing eight columns.

ODA, the different corps or companies into which the janizaries are divided, bear this appellation. The word itself means a room, and the companies are so called from messing separately.

ODEN, or ODIN, a deity so called in ancient times among the Swedes and Goths. He was their god of war, in the same manner that they acknowledged Thor to be their Jupiter, and Frigga their Venus.

ODOMETRE, (odomètre, Fr.) an instrument by which you may ascertain how much ground you go over on foot, or in conveyance.

OEIL, Fr. in architecture, any round aperture, which is made in a building.

OEIL de done, Fr. an opening made at the top of an edifice.

OEIL de boeuf, Fr. a round window or aperture, which is made in a wall or roof. The black spot in the center of a target is likewise called ait de boeuf, or bull's eye.

OEIL de pont, Fr. the opening, or vacant space, under the arch of a bridge.

Coup d'OEIL, Fr. See Coup.

OEUVRE, Fr. in architecture this word admits of various significations in the French language, and may be connected with different prepositions, all of which determine the signification, viz.

Dans OEUVRE, Fr. Within. Trente toises de long dans œuvre, thirty toises in length within doors.

Hors d'OEUVRE, Fr. Without. Un escalier hors d'œuvre, a stair-case without doors.

Sous OEUVRE, Fr. from the bottom.

Repren-
Reprendre un mur sous œuvre, to build up a wall from the foot or bottom.

Dans Œuvre et hors d'Œuvre, Fr. within and without.

OIN, or OING, Fr. cart-grease, such as is used to the wheels of ordnance-carriages, &c.

OFF, an adverb which is frequently conjoined with verbs; and, in a military sense, is used as follows:

To kill off, a term well known in this country, by its curious application during the late war, but rendered obsolete in the present, by the passive complexion of hostilities.

To march off, to quit the ground on which you are regularly drawn up, for the purpose of going upon detachment, relieving a guard, or doing any other military duty.

To tell off, to count the men composing a battalion or company, so as to have them readily and distinctly thrown into such proportions as suit military movements or evolutions.

OFFENCES, all acts that are contrary to good order and discipline, omissions of duty, &c. may be called military offences. The principal ones are specified in the Articles of War. No officer or soldier can be tried twice for the same offence; unless in case of an appeal from a regimental to a general court martial; and the appeal must then be grounded upon some pecuniary wrong; nor can any officer or soldier be tried for any offence committed more than three years before the date of the warrant for trial; except in cases where the offenders were not amenable to justice in that period, when they may be brought to trial any time within two years after the impediment ceased.

Offensive War. Military acts of aggression constitute what is called an offensive war. Those who assail an opposite or adverse army, or invade the dominions of another power, are said to wage an offensive war.

Offensive Weapons, are such as are fit for the purpose of carrying on offensive war, as cannon, mortars, swords, pistols, muskets, &c.

Offensive Fortification. See Approaches, Sieges, &c.

OFFICE, in a military sense, signifies any place or apartment which is fixed or appointed for officers, clerks, &c. to attend in, for the discharge of their respective employments; as, War-office—Adjutant General's Office—Commander in Chief's Office—Ordnance Office—Barrack Office—Paymaster General's Office, &c. &c.

Office and Board, are sometimes synonymous terms; as, Transport Board or Office—Barrack Board or Office—Ordnance Board or Office. Sometimes the term office is inapplicable to places where military business is transacted, viz.—Clothing Board—Board of General Officers, &c. The word Conseil is used by the French in the latter sense, the term Bureau, in almost all others.

Office of the Inspiring-general of recruiting, of which the depot is in the Isle of Wight.

Office of the Commissary-General of stores, &c. to the forces at home.

Office of the Commissary-General of musters.

Office of the Judge-Martial and Advocate-General.

Office of the Physician-General.

Surgeon-General's Office—Apothecary-General's Office, &c.

Office for auditing public accounts, consists of five commissioners, two inspectors-general of accounts, twenty-two clerks, two extra clerks, one solicitor, one office-keeper, and two messengers. The office is in Somerset House.

Upon the suppression of the office of auditors of the imprest in 1785, this commission was created by parliament to supply their place and discharge their duties, in a manner more expeditious and less burthensome to the public.

The present establishment consists of five commissioners, as above specified, two of whom, being controllers of the accounts of the army, have only 500l. per annum each, although they execute the same duties as the other three commissioners, each of whom has an annual salary of 1000l. The salaries of the other officers are unknown. The total expense of this establishment, in the year 1797, appears to have been 8,650l.

No fees or emoluments whatever are allowed.

It has been found, that the annual sum of 6000l. granted by the act of the 25 Geo. III. c. 52, (which together with 4000l,
4000l. voted for the commissioners makes a total of 10,000l. per annum) for the better auditing the public accounts, for the officers, clerks, and other persons, in lieu of all fees and gratuities whatsoever; and for stationary, coal, candles, and other incidental charges to be incurred in the office, was adequate to the payment of the present established numbers of such officers and clerks, according to the salaries allotted to each of them. It further appeared to the Committee of the House of Commons, that the number of persons so employed, was sufficient for the ordinary duties of the office, in the examination of the usual periodical accounts. It was at the same time represented, that the salaries of some of their clerks were not adequate to their labour, and to the trust reposed in them, when compared with the necessary expense of living in London; and the extraordinary accounts in consequence of the late war, required not only the labour of a greater number of persons than could be supplied from the existing establishment, but demanded also that such persons should be able and efficient, and some of them at least conversant in the knowledge of foreign languages, coins, exchanges, weights, and measures. In consequence of these representations, the establishment has been considerably increased.

Barrack-Office: The barrack department is at present upon a very large and extensive footing. It was originally formed in May 1793, at the commencement of the late war, and gradually increased until it was erected into an establishment completely distinct from all others, by a warrant from his Majesty, dated the 24th of March, 1794. Since that period it has also been further enlarged, owing to the additional number of temporary barracks and prisons, which were ordered in the autumn of 1796.

The barrack-master-general and the deputy barrack-master-general, are appointed, with fixed salaries, by warrant from the king. The salaries of all the other servants have, in the first instance, been fixed by the secretary at war, but they are appointed, and their numbers increased, by the sole authority of the barrack-master-general, who has also a discretionary power of making such extra allowance to any of the officers of the department, beyond their fixed salaries, as he shall think proper; with a control over the whole department, with regard to the appointments, as well as expenditure, in the secretary at war, from whom all such appointments originate; but several of the persons holding active stations in the general department, have other appointments and avocations, which must necessarily call them from the discharge of their duty in the barrack service, and thereby occasion a greater number of officers upon the establishment, and an increase of expense to the public beyond what otherwise might be necessary. No officer in the barrack department is allowed to take any fee or emolument on the receipt or issue of the public money, or to derive any advantage whatever on the purchase or issue of stores.

Among the advantages stated to accrue to the public, from the establishment of barracks; it is certainly no inconsiderable one, that the expense of keeping troops in barracks is less than keeping them in quarters; in proof of which, certain calculations were laid before the committee of the House of Commons, on the 19th of July, 1797, according to which it appeared, that there was a saving of 3s. 6d. per annum on each man, and of 4l. 7s. 11d. on each horse, which, calculating on 53,852 non-commissioned officers and private men, and 7887 horses then in barracks, amounted to 40,591l. 6s. 6d. of which sum the barrack-master-general represented to be fully sufficient to cover the expense incurred on account of the barrack-masters, the wear and tear of bedding, &c. and the repairs of building; and as the expense of the barrack-office itself is defrayed by funds arising from certain arrangements made by the barrack-master-general, which could not otherwise be brought to the credit of the public, it was judged fair to state, that, taking the whole of the expense of the department, it was then, (and may be now) full as cheap to keep troops in barracks as in quarters.

The military hospitals are considered to be within the barrack department.—All buildings belonging to this establishment, are erected according to settled plans made by the surveyors of the office; and the buildings are paid for by measure of fair valuation, according
ing to the rates usually given for such work, at or in the vicinity of the places where the same is executed. The money for carrying on and completing all buildings belonging to the barrack establishment, is provided for by parliament.

The appointments in this department have been considerably increased since 1796, and are likely to be more so.—With respect to any reduction, that must necessarily depend on the extent to which the barrack service may be carried upon a peace establishment; the branch of expence which has been the consequence of this establishment, will necessarily be only of a temporary nature, as the barrack-master general himself has stated to the committee of the House of Commons, that the barrack-office, as it then stood, and now stands, was not to be considered as a settled establishment. As to the extent to which the establishment may in future be carried, that must depend upon the circumstances of the country, and the future arrangement and regulation of the army.

Such is the substance of what was laid before the committee of the House of Commons on the 19th of July, 1797.—Since that period the barrack establishment has continued to increase: how far it may hereafter prove beneficial to the country, time and events must determine.

This office, which at present is kept in Spring Garden, consists of

One barrack master general, at 4l. a day.

One deputy barrack master general, at 1l. 10s. a day.

One assistant to ditto, at 39l. 5s. per annum.

One agent, who receives for himself and clerks, 530l. per annum.

Two architects and surveyors, salaries unknown.

We cannot forbear mentioning in this place, that although most of the public accountants are sworn, barrack masters sign and give in their returns, &c. on honour, only.

Commander in Chief’s Office, at the Horse Guards, Whitehall, consists of one commander in chief, with the rank of field marshal, at 3,457l. 10s. per annum.

Six aids-de-camp, at 172l. 17s. 6d. per annum.

One military secretary, at 172l. 17s. 6d. per annum.

One private secretary, with two assistants, salaries unknown.

One chaplain, at 115l. 5s. per annum.

One surgeon, at 172l. 17s. 6d. ditto.

Six clerks, one housekeeper, and one chamber keeper.

Office of the Comptrollers of Army Accounts. The comptrollers of the army accounts, whose duty tends to regulate and check the expenditure of public money, under the head of army services, consist of a board, to which accounts relating to the extraordinaries of the army are referred previous to payment. Among other objects there are two principal payments which fall immediately under the examination of these officers: they are distinguished by the terms, money paid without account, and money paid subject to account. The claims of persons for services to be paid without account, are subject to a strict examination before the comptrollers of army accounts, in such questions as come under their cognizance. Specific services, which require no subsequent examination, are so paid, viz. 1. Services, or pay at rates authorised by some previous instrument. 2. Subsidies and pay of foreign troops. 3. Purchases, or services which undergo a competent examination before payment. 4. Balances of settled accounts. The persons so receiving do not become public accountants, i.e. are not liable to account a second time; and finally, before the commissioners for auditing the public accounts. Persons receiving money on account are, public military officers, commissaries and contractors at home and abroad, who, in addition to an examination of their claims before advances are made, account finally also as public accountants before the commissioners.

With regard to the regulations and checks applied to control the expenses known by the term Extraordinaries of the Army, those which originate at home, are different from those which are wholly paid abroad, being paid in a different manner, and being subject to regulations and checks not only different in their form, but probably in some degree in their efficacy, from those applied to foreign expenditure.

The particular expenses, under the head
head of Extraordinaries of the Army incurred at home, are, 1st., on account of stores and provisions purchased at home for the use of troops serving at home or abroad. When these articles are supplied by contracts on advertisements from the Treasury, the tenders are referred to the comptrollers, and the lowest bidder being ascertained, the terms of the contract are settled by them; in the doing which every care is taken to ensure the due execution of the service, and to prevent frauds and abuses. 2. On account of bread, wood, straw, and forage, which are now supplied for the use of the camps in Great Britain, by small local contracts made by commissaries appointed for this purpose, and acting under instructions prepared by the comptrollers of the army accounts; one condition whereof has been, that the property in the article contracted for should remain in the contractor till the same is delivered to the troops. 3. On account of bread, for troops in barracks, which is supplied on a commission of two and a half per cent. on the value, the person supplied being obliged, before he can obtain any payment, to make oath, that he has not, directly or indirectly, received any part of it arising from the price of the article. 4. A farther head of this species of expenditure arises from the bills of the apothecary-general for medicines and surgeon's instruments supplied by him for the use of every corps serving at home, or abroad. 5. The remaining article (independent of all casual claims for supplies furnished, or services performed for the armies serving abroad, or at home, which are referred to the comptrollers of army accounts) arises from the supply of the invalid clothing.

All and every voucher proving the validity of claims for the supply of the above articles, namely, the certificates of quality, of price, from the proper officers, the receipts of the parties to whom they are officially delivered, with every species of proof connected with the case, must be produced to the comptrollers of the army accounts.—These vouchers, &c. are carefully examined by them before they advise any advance to be made on account, or any final payment to be directed for performance, of any of the above services.

The instrument directing any such payment is a warrant addressed to the paymaster general, and signed by three commissioners of the Treasury.

The extraordinaries of the army incurred abroad are; 1st. the contingent and extraordinary expenses of his Majesty's governments, the charges of fortifications, pay of militia, &c. abroad.—These several expenses are defrayed by the means of bills, drawn by the governors (to whom instructions for their conduct are duly given) on the Treasury, accompanied by a specification of the nature and particulars of the expenditure. Before these bills are accepted, they are referred, with their explanation, to the office of the secretary of state, to ascertain, that regular cognizance has been had of the nature and necessity of the service for which the expense was incurred. The quarterly accounts of the governors are referred to, and examined by the comptrollers of the army accounts, who report their remarks thereon to the Board of Treasury. These accounts undergo a second examination, and are finally passed by the commissioners for auditing the public accounts.

A second species of expenditure, under this head, arises from casual claims for foreign troops, under treaties, and for extraordinary services performed. These treaties are registered in the office of the comptrollers of the army accounts, and all claims depending thereon are referred to them for their report by the Treasury. In this case, the comptrollers compare the claims with the terms of the treaty; with the schedule of the persons composing each corps; with the rate of pay annexed to each rank; and with the muster rolls certified by the British commissary of musters. The sums, from time to time due, are certified to the Treasury before payment is made.

The third and last head of army services consists of the extensive and multifarious extraordinary expenses of active armies abroad.

Since the commencement of the present war, the whole system of conducting these extraordinary expenses of armies serving abroad, has undergone a careful revision. Among other wise suggestions it has been recommended,
1st. That no military officer should himself have a property, or interest, in any article which his duty obliged him to provide for the public service. The object of this suggestion has, in some instances, been fulfilled; but it still remains with the commander in chief, and with those persons particularly concerned with army matters, to recommend its adoption in the clothing of the different regiments, regular as well as militia.—The property which the colonels manifestly hold in this article, exposes the most honourable character to unmerited imputations, and affords ample means to the base and selfish of growing rich at the expense of public virtue. 2. That no payment should be made by the military officer belonging to any department (such as quarter, or barrack master general, inspector of hospitals, commanding engineers, &c.) but that every expense should be paid by the deputy paymasters general, in pursuance of a warrant from the commander in chief. 3. That all vouchers, proving any payment, should be subject to a careful and speedy examination by persons appointed for the purpose, on the spot where the expense was incurred.

All the extraordinary expenses of an army serving abroad, are conducted by the means of a commissary general, who receives and has charge of all provisions and stores sent for the use of the troops from this country; who purchases, or provides, under the direction of, or in concurrence with, the commander in chief (without whose authority no service can be performed, or expense incurred) such articles as may be more conveniently obtained on the spot, and who is responsible for all monies, provisions, or stores, whether actually used, damaged, lost, destroyed, or plundered, with the condition of procuring proper certificates to prove every mode of their consumption, before he can be discharged therefrom.

A commissary of accounts also attends each army where the numbers are of sufficient importance, with a proper establishment, for the purpose of examining and controlling accounts on the spot; both acting under specific instructions.

All monies, for the ordinary services of the army, are obtained by the means of bills drawn by the deputy paymaster abroad on the paymaster-general, which bills are negociated by the commissary-general, who is obliged to note the rate of exchange on the bill.

All monies, for extraordinaries, are obtained by drafts of the commissary general on the Treasury, which, on their arrival, are accepted, if drawn conformably to the rules laid down, as being in payment for services ordered by the commander in chief, and the value of which have been previously examined and ascertained by the commissaries of accounts on the spot.

The commissaries of accounts make returns of their examination; and on these documents the comptrollers of the army accounts found the best enquiry into the expenditure which the nature of the subject admits of.

The commissaries general and commissaries of accounts, are appointed by warrant under the king's sign manual, directing them to obey all instructions given them for the execution of their duty by the lords commissioners of the Treasury; which instructions, since the commencement of this war, have been prepared by the comptrollers of the army accounts, under the orders, and subjected to the inspection of the treasury. Instructions are also given by the secretary of state for the war department, to all commanding officers abroad, to conduct the service on which they are employed, with the utmost regard to public economy, and punctuality in their accounts.

The present establishment of this office is composed in the following manner:

Two comptrollers at 1000l. per annum each.

One secretary, 700l. ditto.

Civil department.

One first accountant and chief clerk 500l.

One second ditto, 300l.

One third ditto, salary not specified.

Military department.

One first clerk, one second clerk, one third clerk, salaries not specified.

One chamber keeper, one messenger, one necessary woman, salaries not specified.

Office of: Ordnance, or Board of Ordnance.—
Off

Ordnance.—It belongs to the office of ordnance to supply all military stores for the army and navy, to defray the expense of the corps of artillery, corps of engineers, and other military corps attached to the ordnance service; and also the charge of repairing and building fortifications, at home and abroad; excepting field works abroad, and excepting also those fortifications which commanders in chief may deem it expedient to erect without previous instructions from home; in which two cases the bills are paid by the Treasury, and placed to account in the extraordinaries of the army. All contingent expenses, attending ordnance stores, as well as camp equipage for the artillery, and the article of tents for the privates of the whole army, are included in the payments of the ordnance.

The hire of vessels for the transportation of ordnance for foreign service, has, since the establishment of the transport board, been transferred to that office; and the building of barracks belongs now to the barrack department, except when barracks are ordered to be built within a fortification.

The master general, who, in his military character, is commander in chief over the artillery and engineers, has, in his civil capacity, the entire control over the whole ordnance department: he can alone do any act, which can otherwise, if he does not interpose, be done by the Board. He can order the issue of money, but that order must be executed in the usual mode, by three board officers.

The lieutenant-general, who is second in command over the artillery and engineers, is, in his civil capacity, the first in rank among the members of the Board; which comprehends four other principal officers; the surveyor-general, the clerk of the ordnance, the store-keeper, and the clerk of deliveries.—During the absence of the master-general, or the vacancy of the office, the whole executive power devolves on the Board; and it belongs to them, though they are subject to the interposition of the master-general, to make contracts for stores, and for performance of services, and to direct the issue of stores and of money. The signatures of three members of the Board, of whose the clerk of the ordnance must be one, are necessary for the payment of money.

The principal store-keeper at the Tower, is also a board officer, and has the custody of the stores delivered in there: and the store-keepers at the outports and garrisons, have, in like manner, the charge of the stores issued to them. In general, a store-keeper and his securities are considered as personally liable to pay for any deficiency in their stores. At the appointment of every new store-keeper at the out-port, it is the practice of office to take an account (or a remain as it is termed) of the stores left by the predecessor. The quantity reported by the officer employed in taking the remains to be actually delivered over, is compared by the ledger-keeper with the quantity which it appears, by ledgers of articles formed from the journals of receipts and issues, that the predecessor ought to have had in his possession; and in case a deficiency arises, which cannot be satisfactorily accounted for, it is ordered by the Board to be made good by the predecessor, or his representatives. Remains of stores are ordered to be taken in like manner at all places at home, once in seven years, as also at the expiration of a war. In foreign parts, a remain is taken only on the appointment of a new store-keeper.—The store-keepers abroad send home annual accounts of their receipts and issues. When an expedition takes place, a commissary is specially appointed to take the charge of ordnance stores, who is liable himself, or by his securities, to make good any deficiency in the same manner as a store-keeper. In the event of the capture of ordnance stores by the enemy, the commanding officer's certificate of the quantity captured, is the voucher, on the faith of which alone the board of ordnance are accustomed to give credit to the commissary.

Whenever any business, either of receipt or issue, is going forward, the clerk is ordered personally to attend, and he must be present at the opening of the store early in the morning.

Fortifications are erected by the commanding engineer, pursuant to an order from the master-general, for carrying a project into execution, according to an approved plan and estimate. The estimate
mate is usually formed in the first place by the engineer, who is afterwards to execute the work; and its accuracy is examined into by a committee of engineers at home, the expediency of the measure being submitted to the master-general. All fortifications, works, and repairs are carried on by measurement, and by contract, except where the soldiers of the corps of royal military artificers have been employed; and even in such cases the materials worked up by the soldiers are usually supplied by contract. It belongs to the storekeeper at the place where the fortifications are carried on, to make the payments. Money is imprest to him for this purpose on account, in consequence of a letter from the engineer to the Board, in which he mentions the particular service. The store-keeper having been made debtor for the sums imprest, is afterwards discharged by producing vouchers for his disbursements, which consist of the receipt of the person receiving the money, together with the signature of either one, or two witnesses, who are usually persons in the ordnance service. The store-keeper’s own affidavit of the payment is also required. In respect to the payment of those services, which are not under the direction of the engineer, but under that of the storekeeper, the clerk of the survey, and the clerk of the cheque of the place, who “are called the respective officers,” a joint application is made by them to the Board.

In the case of the works, or services abroad, the payment is made by the means of bills drawn on the board of ordnance, by the store-keepers of the regular establishments, and by the commissary and paymaster, (who are usually the same person) attending the detachment of artillery, which is with his majesty’s forces. Those who draw are made debtors for their drafts, and account afterwards in the same manner, and are subject to the same checks as a storekeeper at home. It is further required of every accountant abroad, who draws bills, that he should take an oath, that he has made public advertisements of his intention to draw the sum which he had in contemplation: and that he has accepted the lowest proposal offered to him, and that he has not, either directly or indirectly, received any fee, or gratuity for drawing the bills. When any bill, drawn from abroad, is evidently improper, the acceptance is not refused; but the bill is accepted on the credit of the drawer, in order, as it is obvious, to save the charges attending its return. The drawer, on entering his office, having given security for the faithful discharge of it, it is assumed, that if a bill accepted on his credit should be afterwards disallowed on account of the service being, on investigation, deemed improper, the money is to be recovered from him, or his securities.

The sums voted for the ordnance consist of the three following heads:—1st. The ordinary, which comprehends the provision for the ordinary establishment, civil and military, for the year ensuing, 2dly; The extraordinary, which comprehends every service known beforehand, of a temporary and contingent nature, being a provision for the ensuing year also; and 3dly, the services unprovided for, consisting of services which either have been actually paid in the past year, as is generally the case, or which are supposed to have been paid, but which were not foreseen when the estimate for the past year was made up. Among these unforeseen expenses are included various exceedings, which have happened in the individual services voted in the past year’s ordnance estimates; to which are added, such sums as may be necessary to make up the deficiency of the sum directed to the ordnance use from the naval service.

The present establishment of the ordnance department consists of the following persons, with their appropriate salaries, viz.

The master-general, who, in his civil capacity, receives 1,500l. per annum, besides a sum for patent salary, about 180l. a year; and a military pay of 1l. 6s. a day, as captain-general of the company of gentlemen cadets.

The lieutenant-general, including 100l. for house rent, receives 800l. besides a small sum in like manner for patent salary.

The surveyor-general, including 100l. for rent, receives 800l.

The clerk of the ordnance, including 100l. for rent, receives 600l. The profits of this appointment in 1792, amounted
mounted to 188l. 3s. 6d. and in 1796, to 1,200l. 3s. 6d. including fees.

The storekeeper, including 100l. for house rent, receives 500l. The profits of this appointment in 1796, were 438l. 19s. 9d. making in the whole 938l. 19s. 9d.

The clerk of the deliveries, including 100l. for house rent, receives 500l. and in 1796 he received for fees, 438l. 12s. making together, 938l. 12s.

The salary of the board officers has been established at their present rate for a considerable number of years, with the exception of 100l. a year, which has been added to the office of surveyor general, ditto to the storekeeper, and 60l. to the clerk of deliveries.

The Board commonly meets about three times a week in winter, and twice a week in summer, at the ordnance office, Westminster. Three officers constitute a board. The master general and lieutenant general seldom fail to attend, except when absent on military duty. Some of the other officers take alternate months of attendance; and there is no one of them who is not frequent in his attendance at the board. The board officers have no regular hours and places of attendance on the duties of their own individual office, but interfere at their option, and as far as each of them may judge necessary, in the regulation of their respective departments of the Tower, where their chief clerks reside.

The treasurer receives, including 60l. for house rent, 560l.

The secretary to the master general receives, including 100l. for house rent, 300l. and in 1796, he received for fees, 458l. 15s. making together, 758l. 15s.

The secretary of the board receives 510l.

The solicitor, in lieu of his attendance, and for conducting causes, 300l.

The general hours of attendance of the clerks in the ordnance offices, are from ten to four, besides other hours if necessary. They are promoted usually by rotation, entering, for the most part, as junior clerks at 70l. per annum.

All salaries of clerks in the ordnance of above 100l. per annum, are subject to a deduction of 1s. 6d. in the pound; and all from 50l. to 100l. to a deduction of 6d. The land tax duty, to which these salaries would otherwise be liable, is defrayed, by a particular order, at the expense of the public, which order is said to have been made many years ago, in consideration of the lowness of the salaries.

All fees are expressly prohibited, except those taken by the clerk of the ordnance, the principal storekeeper, and the clerk of deliveries already mentioned. Officers of the ordnance are prohibited from holding a share in ordnance contracts or agencies, with the exception of agencies to any officer of artillery, or engineers. There are no sinecure places under the board of ordnance; nor is it conceived, that there are any persons in the ordnance service who hold other offices under government.

There is no regular fund for superannuated officers under this establishment; but the expense of that head of service is annually provided for by parliament in the ordinary of the ordnance, under the heads of superannuated and disabled men, half pay of reduced officers, widows' pensions, and allowances to officers for good services; the whole of which amounted in 1797, to 19,610l. 13s. 2d. The greatest rate of allowance lately given to the civil servants, for the greatest length of service, has been two thirds of the amount of the salary; a rate which appears to be very generally adopted in other departments.

The whole amount of the establishment of the office of ordnance, as it stood at Christmas 1796, was 51,618l. 10s. 2d. besides certain allowances for house rent, coal, and candles; besides also a per centage on the remittance of money to storekeepers, of 25s. per cent. in some cases 20s. and 10s. in others, but in general of 2d. in the pound.

The additions consist, 1st. of new officers in London, and also at Guernsey, Jersey, New Brunswick, and the West India islands, and some other places, of which the salaries amount to 12,966l. 10s. A sum exceeding 700l. appears to be on account of a new appointment of officers at the powder mills.—2dly, of an increase of the existing salaries, and of allowances, amounting to 5,531l. 11s. 2d. making together 18,490l. 1s. 2d. from which, however, is to be deducted, on account of diminutions in the establishment since 1782, the sum of 4,293l.
4,293l. 2s. 6d. making the actual increase, on a comparison of the two establishments, to be 14,304l. 18s. 8d.

The committee of the House of Commons, from whose report we have made these copious extracts, conclude by observing that the estimates for works abroad have been much oftener exceeded than those at home; that the frauds are more numerous; that the difficulties of prosecuting there are considered as greater; that additional precautions to prevent imposition in the drawing of bills are necessary; and that the taking of a periodical remain, as is done at home, is there omitted. The enormous frauds practised by so many servants, in various West India islands, while the vouchers sent home continued to be fair and regular, create a reasonable jealousy and suspicion, in respect to the manner of conducting this branch of the public service, in those possessions in general which are distant; and the money, asked for extraordinary services in those parts, should obviously, therefore, be voted only after having given due consideration to the case in question, and after full explanation of the extent of the projected service.

With respect to the establishment of the office of ordnance, and of the salaries and duties of its servants, it appears obvious, that from many things which have been stated, it is not so much on any general regulations, or instructions, however strict and prudently framed, that parliament must depend for the proper application of the money voted for ordnance service, as on the disposition strictly to execute those orders; on the proper choice of the inferior servants, and the careful superintendence of them; on the integrity, vigilance, and knowledge of business of the principal officers of the board of ordnance; and more particularly of the master-general, in whose hands almost all the patronage, and ultimately all the power, are placed.

The civil branch of this office consists of one master-general, one lieutenant-general, one surveyor-general, one clerk of the ordnance, one principal store-keeper, one clerk of the deliveries, one treasurer and paymaster, one secretary to the master-general, two clerks under ditto, one secretary to the board, two clerks under the lieutenant-general, one chief clerk under the surveyor-general, seventeen clerks under ditto, one chief clerk under the clerk of the ordnance, sixteen clerks under ditto, one chief clerk under the store-keeper, sixteen clerks under ditto, one chief clerk under the clerk of the deliveries, fifteen clerks under ditto, one chief clerk under the secretary to the board, nine clerks under ditto, one chief clerk under the treasurer and paymaster, eight clerks under ditto, one clerk to the chief engineer, one solicitor, one assistant ditto, one architect, one clerk of the works, one clerk to ditto, one superintendent of shipping, one clerk to ditto, one purveyor of shipping, one clerk of the cheque, one master furbisher at the Tower and Hampton Court, one assistant clerk under ditto, one armourer, one store-keeper of saltpetre, one engine-keeper, one clock-maker, one barge master, fourteen porters, messengers, &c. at the Tower, and secretary's office, Westminster. Salaries unknown.

**Officers belonging to the Military Branch of the Ordnance.**

One master-general, one lieutenant-general, one chief engineer and colonel, five colonels, six lieutenant-colonels, fifteen captains, thirteen captain-lieutenants, twenty-seven first lieutenants.

**Officers belonging to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich.**

One governor, one lieutenant-governor, one inspector, one professor of mathematics, one professor of fortification, one mathematical master, one arithmetical master, two French masters, one assistant fortification-master, two drawing-masters, one fencing-master, one dancing-master, two model-makers, one clerk. Salaries unknown.

We have been as explanatory upon this important branch of the public service as our source of information would allow; and have exceeded the proposed limits of our undertaking by entering into the details of the ordnance office, because we humbly conceive, that too much light cannot be thrown upon a department, whose utility is confessed, whose expenditure is immense, and whose responsibility is at once so chequered and mysterious. We lament, that it should not be within our grasp to
to take the same general and extensive view of other offices.

PAY-OFFICE, and Paymaster General of the Forces. From a return which was made to a committee of the House of Committee on the 19th of July, 1797, it appeared, that the establishment of the pay-office, previous to the act of the twenty-third of his present Majesty, consisted of the paymaster and deputy-paymaster-general, cashier, and other clerks and officers, making in the whole eight; that there were also eight junior clerks employed, with an office-keeper, two messengers, and a housekeeper, being in the whole twenty.

It appeared also, that there were ninety deputy-paymasters abroad, six of whom were employed on a salary of 30s. per diem, and three at 3l. per diem each.

The nett receipt of the whole establishment of the paymaster-general, his officers and clerks, (exclusive of the salary paid to the deputy paymasters abroad) was £16,973 1 8.

Payments to deputy paymasters abroad £- 6,588 0 0

£23,561 1 8

of which 11,578l. 19s. 1d. consisted of fees and gratuities paid to certain officers exclusively. In pursuance of the pay-office act, at present no fees, perquisites, or gratuities are taken in the pay-office of the army. The establishment, made immediately on the passing of the act, consisted of the paymaster, and deputy paymaster general, and six principal clerks and officers, making in the whole eight; and also of eight junior clerks, a storekeeper, two messengers, and a housekeeper, the nett salaries of whom amounted to 11,000l. Since that period, there has been an addition of two clerks, and increase of salary to two others as assistants, in the departments of the accountant and cashier; the increase in point of salary being 340l. The total thereof, independently of the salaries of the deputy paymasters abroad, was 11,340l. in 1796.

In consequence of the pay-office act, the paymaster-general has been deprived of any profit that might accrue from the custody of the public money.

The paymaster-general has not any active control over the public expendi-
ters, whether serving abroad, or at home, had not, generally speaking, transmitted their accounts within the periods fixed by the pay-office act. In consequence of this examination, and from a manifest defect in the system altogether, fresh regulations respecting regimental paymasters have been made.—These, we make no doubt, will be gradually improved; so that in process of time the actual payment of the British army will correspond with the estimates laid before the Commons.

3. The remaining office through which the regimental accounts pass, on their way to the paymaster-general, is that of the secretary at war, who by the pay-office act is directed to examine and settle, or cause to be examined and settled, the annual accounts, and to transmit the same, together with certificates of the several charges allowed in the same accounts, and the balance of the same, within three months after the receipt of the said accounts respectively, to the office of the paymaster-general of his Majesty's land forces.

After the account of a regiment is made up by the agents, and examined at the war-office, the debenture warrant is addressed by the secretary at war to the paymaster-general, which states the amount of the charges allowed to be due to the regiment, and directs him to make out a debenture complete for the regiment, being an account of what is due to it, both under the authority of the establishment, and for contingent services allowed. This debenture warrant is accompanied by a state of charges which is an account in four columns, the two first of which state severally, "The sums expended or due," and the "sums received." The latter state severally what is "received over, or received short," under each head of service. The account being balanced, the statement of sums expended, or due, is certified and signed by the secretary at war. On the receipt of this warrant at the pay-office, the debenture is made out, founded on the statement delivered to them, and being transmitted by the pay-office to the secretary at war, the clearing warrant under the king's sign manual, is issued countersigned by the secretary at war, and three lords of the treasury, which directs the final pay-ment of the account by the paymaster-general, (where money is due to the regiment) and is among his vouchers before the commissioners for auditing public accounts.

That no larger balance of the public money might remain in the hands of the paymaster in office than was necessary to answer the demands of the public service, it was recommended in 1797, to take away from the paymaster-general of the forces, the custody of the public cash, and place it in the Bank of England, by which means this treasury would be converted into an office of mere account, and the paymaster general, instead of being the banker of the army, would be the instrument only through whom the army services are paid, without having the power of applying the public money to any other purposes whatever. It was further observed, that all official books and papers are, and should be considered, as the property of the public, and as such left and deposited in the pay-office, for the use and information of posterity.

The establishment of a regiment, with the king's regulations, and warrants, is the instrument that regulates the pay of the army, and is consequently the basis of all the documents which enter or go out of the pay-office under that head of service.

In the pay-office, this sum, constituting the full pay, &c. of a regiment, was formerly divided into six parts, according to the establishment, the king's warrants and regulations:—1. Subsistence. 2. Widow's allowance. 3. Poundage. 4. Hospital. These two last being deductions from the pay of one shilling in the pound, and one day's pay for miscellaneous services, and Chelsea hospital. 5. Off-reckonings, being the fund allotted to the colonel for clothing, from the pay of the non-commissioned officers and privates. 6. Clearings, being the arrears of officers, and whatever may remain due to the regiment.

In consequence of the great inconveniences which grew out of the system of arrears, &c. the following general principle was recommended by the commissioners appointed to examine the public accounts of the kingdom in 1797, that the establishment should contain the
the real full pay of every person described therein, and nothing more: and that five separate funds, independent of the establishment, should be created, viz. 1. Clothing. 2. Recruiting. 3. Widows. 4. Chelsea. And 5. Miscellaneous services; in lieu of those then existing; to be balanced annually at the pay-office, as soon as possible after the expiration of the year, and before the supply for the subsequent one was voted, as a guide to the secretary at war in forming his estimates. They recommended also, that the regimental paymaster and surgeon, instead of being paid by a deduction from the subsistence of the non-commissioned officers and privates, should be provided for in some more convenient form; (see regimental paymasters, surgeons, ditto.)—That subsistence should be issued to effectives only, and according to muster; which is now done on the 24th of every month, by the regimental paymasters. That one fund should be formed for clothing the whole army, to be managed by the clothing board, and not by the colonels of regiments. Such board consisting of a certain number of general officers, chosen annually by the board of general officers.

Since that period a fresh regulation, bearing date the 19th of April, 1800, has taken place relative to the clothing of the army. It is therein directed, that the clothing should be viewed by two permanent inspectors of clothing, instead of being viewed, as heretofore, by a general officer of the clothing board. The said inspectors, or the inspectors for the time being, are to view and compare with the scaled patterns the clothing of the several regiments of cavalry and infantry, as soon as the same shall have been prepared by the respective clothiers; and if the said clothing appear to be conformable to the scaled patterns, they are to grant two certificates of their view and approval thereof; one of which certificates is to be delivered to the clothier, to be sent with the clothing to the head-quarters of the corps, and the other to be lodged with the clothing board, as the necessary voucher for passing the assignment of the allowance for the said clothing.—The clothing board join to the colonel’s assignment their certificate to the pay-master-general, that the clothing has been viewed and approved, and desiring him to pay the assignee the sum mentioned in the assignment. The commissioners recommended as an essential part of their plan, that the colonel should receive a liberal equivalent for any emolument he had derived from this source, by an increase to his subsistence.

The commissioners, with a view of saving expense, and preventing unnecessary labour, gave it as their opinion, that the accounts of the paymaster-general should be finally passed in the office of the comptrollers of the army accounts, and not in that of the auditors of the impost.

With respect to balances in the hands of paymasters in office, the paymaster is directed to address his memorial to the treasurer, praying that money may be lodged for army services (specifying the same) in the Bank of England, to be placed there on account of the paymaster-general of his majesty’s forces. Such money to be liable, in the hands of the bank, to answer the drafts of the paymaster for the army services, duly specified, and not otherwise.

The paymaster is also directed, in the monthly memorials to the treasurer, to state the balances due to him at the bank on the preceding month’s account, oftener, if required so to do, together with an account of all the demands with which such balances are chargeable; such balances, on death, resignation, or removal of any paymaster, to vest in his successor, and be liable to the same demands.

The paymaster is also directed, within twelve months after the accounts enabling the said paymaster to complete certain specified accounts shall be received, to make up, or cause to be made up, an annual account of the ordinary and extraordinary services of the army.

The account of the paymaster-general of his majesty’s forces, from the 25th of December in each year, to the 24th of December following, is to be transmitted, with proper vouchers, to the commissioners for auditing the public accounts, two of whom must be comptrollers of the army accounts.—This account was formerly lodged with the
the office of the auditors of the impress; but it became subject to the examination already mentioned, by stat. 25 Geo. III. c. 22. The same statute, with a view of rendering the pay of the army simple, expeditious, and intelligible, directs that all estimates, debentures, warrants, and accounts, belonging to the army, should be made out from the 25th of December in each year; and enacts that the establishment should be divided under their several heads of service; and that the secretary at war should form estimates of the charge of pensions to officer's widows, clothing, agency, and allowance to agents by the subsistence of non-effective, called warrant men, the actual pay of commission, non-commissioned officers, and privates, allowances to captains, paymasters, and surgeons, and of all expenses defrayed by poundage and one day's pay: the paymaster is also directed to form his memorials to the treasury for clothing, and issue his drafts on the bank in respect thereof, in equal payments, on the 24th of June, and the 24th of December, in each year, in favour of the persons having regular assignments from the colonels, &c. commanding regiments.

Although it has been strongly recommended by the commissioners, that a more speedy and regular settlement of army accounts should be produced, by introducing a greater simplicity in their form, &c. one of the principal heads of service which requires amendment, has hitherto been left unnoticed; it relates to the whole clothing of the army, which is still managed by the respective colonels of regiments (both regular and militia) and not by the means of a single fund under the management of the clothing board, accompanied by a liberal indemnity to the colonels. The committee of the House of Commons felt it more necessary to make this remark, finding by the evidence of Mr. Greenwood, the army agent, and also by a return from the war-office, that the money for clothing both regular and militia regiments, was issued not to effectives only, and according to muster, but for the numbers on the establishment of the regiment.

The clothing for the militia regiments is not subject to the inspection of the clothing board, or of any board whatever before the same is delivered to the regiments. It was suggested, that no reason had occurred why this part of the public expenditure should not be liable to the same inspection and control as is applied to a case which appears, at least while the militia is embodied, to be nearly similar. The sum allotted for the clothing of the militia differs materially from that allowed to regular regiments, in the case of the serjeants, corporals, drummers, fifers, and privates. The curious may form some idea of the profits which accrue to militia colonels, by referring to pages 98, 99, 100, &c. of a pamphlet, intituled, A Comprehensive View of the Interior Economy of Infantry Regiments, &c.

With respect to deputy paymasters abroad, it was recommended by the committee to discontinue a practice which could not be justified on any ground where sufficient security can be obtained from persons qualified, and willing to execute the office in person. This related to persons being employed to act as deputies by others of the same description. The commissioners of accounts observed on this subject, that with the exception of the deputy paymaster at St. Domingo, and possibly the deputy paymaster at Madras, all the deputy paymasters, though deputies themselves, execute their office by deputy, being themselves engaged in very different employments under government.

This department is composed of two paymasters-general, at 2000l. per annum. Two deputy paymasters-general, at 500l. per annum. One comptant-general, at 1200l. per annum. One cashier, at 1000l. per annum. One ledger-keeper, at 800l. per annum. One cashier of half-pay, at 700l. One computer of off-reckonings, at 600l. One entering clerk; fourteen clerks; one keeper of the stores; one office-keeper and messenger; one second messenger; one housekeeper; eight deputy paymasters abroad; salaries unknown. Among the latter are included; the deputy paymasters that attend expeditions; as may be seen in the Royal Calendar, page 200.

Office for Sick Prisoners of War; consists of 4 clerks at 300l. 150l. 199l. and 100l. per annum, according to seniority; two
two messengers, one housekeeper, one porter.

Ship-Letter Office. During the continuance of the British army in Holland, a mail was made up every Tuesday and Friday night, and forwarded to Yarmouth, where two packets, taken from the Cuxhaven station, were appointed to convey them to the Helder. A gentleman (the deputy comptroller of the foreign office) was sent to the head quarters as army postmaster, and in like manner made up two mails per week, but they were sometimes detained for dispatches.

On application from the Duke of York the letters of soldiers (being subscribed by the commanding officer) were suffered to pass at the reduced charge of one penny, although that sum was not paid at the time of the letter being put into the post-office as the act of parliament on the subject requires.

The following particulars, relative to this useful and humane establishment, were issued from the general post-office, on the 20th of September, 1799.

"Notice is hereby given, that letters addressed to persons serving with the army under the command of Field Marshal his Royal Highness the Duke of York, will be received at the ship letter office twice, instead of once in the week, viz. on Tuesday and Friday from ten in the morning until ten o'clock at night, and not on Thursday as mentioned in the advertisement from this office of the 10th instant.

"And that such letters will be regularly forwarded in vessels from Yarmouth to the Helder Point on the same days as the mails are sent to Cuxhaven.

"Letters by this conveyance will be chargeable with an half-rate of postage, under the act of the 39th of his present majesty, of sixpence each single letter, one shilling double, one shilling and sixpence treble, and so on in proportion, excepting single letters to and from private soldiers and sailors, which are chargeable with one penny only, under the act of the 35th of his present majesty.

"And that newspapers will also be forwarded at a rate of three-pence upon each, provided such paper is sent without cover, or in covers open at the sides.

"Two mails from the army may be expected to arrive in each week.

"By command of his majesty's postmaster general.

"F. Freeling, Secretary.

Transport-Office. The transport-office is a newly created board, and was instituted in July, 1794, at first for the superintendence of the transport service only; but to that employment has since been added the management of the prisoners of war, in health at home, and abroad.

The establishment consists at present of five commissioners, a secretary, six clerks, a surveying officer, an inspecting officer, two storekeepers, six messengers and porters, and a housekeeper, with eleven clerks in the department of prisoners of war.

The immediate duty of this office, so far as related to the transport service, used to be performed by the commissioners of the navy; except in some instances, where the ordnance, or other departments hired the transports wanted for their own immediate service; and the present transport board have pursued the modes of engaging transports which were practised by the navy board, when the transport service was under its directions; but it was thought expedient to constitute a distinct board, to transact the business of that extensive branch of the naval service; and from the unparalleled extent to which that service has been carried during the late war, it is highly proper that every possible check and control should be put over so vast an expenditure of money.

How far (to use the words of the committee) this board has contributed to lessen the amount of the expenditure in this article, or to forward the due execution of the service, beyond what the commissioners of the navy might have done, if it had continued under their direction, is a point upon which the committee had not the means of forming any opinion; but as the board was constituted for the express purpose of directing the transport service, and of regulating the care and custody of the prisoners during the war, it is presumed that the duration of the establishment will not be longer than the continuance of the war; at the termination of which, no reason appeared to the committee, why
why the transport service might not be put wholly under the direction of the commissioners of the navy, as recommended by the commissioners of inquiry in their report on that office, and the expense of a separate board for the transport service be saved, without any detriment to the public.

Without hazarding an opinion upon these general observations, we shall briefly add, that, by means of the transport office, many important objects, which relate to the public as well as to individuals, have been facilitated, that formerly were subject to the most embarrassing and expensive delays.

The present establishment consists of five commissioners, one secretary, one chief clerk, five clerks, and seven extra clerks.

**Clerks for the department for prisoners of war.**

**Home department.** One chief clerk, one assistant to chief clerk, three clerks, and one extra clerk. Salaries unknown.

**Foreign department.** One chief clerk, one translator, one assistant to chief clerk, three extra clerks, one office-keeper, four messengers, one porter, and one housekeeper. Salaries unknown.

**WAR-OFFICE.** The establishment of the war-office, at Christmas, 1796, according to the last public document on that head, consisted of the secretary and deputy secretary at war, a first clerk, and three principal clerks, and eight persons or their assistants, placed at the head of different departments of the office. The amount of the salaries of these offices, (independent of emoluments) at Christmas, 1796, was 5991l. 12s. The following persons had their salaries increased in consequence of the war, viz.

- Deputy secretary at war: £500 0 0
- Examiner of army accounts: 300 0 0
- Salary of an assistant to ditto: 400l.
- Ditto to another: 340l.
- Clerk for the entry of commissions: 118 12 0
- Clerk for the accounts of deserters: 40 0 0
- Clerk for widows' pensions: 114 8 0
- Salary to the examiner of army muster rolls: 200 0 0

The total of the actual increase is £1,927 18 0.

The number of other clerks at the war-office in 1782, was twelve. The total of their salaries was 1,190l. 13s. The number of other clerks in 1796, was twenty-one, and the total salaries was 1,810l. The increase of persons of this description, since 1782, has been nine, and in the total of their salaries 619l. 7s.

The number of retired clerks, in 1782, was two, and their salaries 400l. The number of retired clerks in 1796, was four, and their salaries 455l. 2s. making the increase in number of retired clerks two, and the total of the increase of their salaries 535l. 2s.

With respect to the emoluments which certain persons in the war-office receive under the head of fees, it appeared upon examination before the committee of the House of Commons, "that no document is to be found at the war-office, authorizing the several and respective fees, which may be demanded therein; nor does any officer belonging to the department, or retired therefrom, know of any orders having been given on the subject."

In a schedule of the fees paid at the war-office, and a paper describing the application thereof, it appeared, that (with the exception of an occasional arrangement made in favour of two retired principal clerks) they have been exclusively paid in certain proportions to the following clerks and officers:

1. Deputy secretary at war.
2. First clerk.
3. Principal clerk.
4. Ditto.
5. Ditto.
6. Clerk for the entry of commissions.
7. Clerk for accounts of deserters.
8. Clerk for bus'rs of widows' pensions.
10. Assistant to the examiner of army accounts.

It appeared on examination, that during the years 1792, and 1796, (being respectively periods of peace and war) the amount of all fees received and distributed at the war-office, was in the year 1792, 4,991l. 3d. 4d. In the year 1796, 42,731l. 11s. 11d. The total of the salaries in the year 1796, was 8,559l. 4s. which, together with...
with the fees above stated, makes the
sum of 51,290l. 15s. 11d.; of which
there was paid to the public, 46,127l.
7s. 3d. and by individuals, 5,163l. 8s.
8d. subject to deductions of 52l. for
taxes, leaving the total net receipt in
the year 1796, 51,238l. 15s. 11d.

A table is annexed to the report made
by the committee of the House of Com-
mons in 1791, stating the receipt of the
above-mentioned officers and clerks, on
an average, from 1782, to 1796, both
inclusive, consisting of the salaries and
fees (distinguishing each) received by
the same officers and clerks in the year
1796, including also the salaries and
fees allotted to two retired principal
clerks. With respect to the emolu-
ments which were received by the re-
tired clerks, an explanatory letter was
written on that head by Mr. Lewis,
under secretary at war, in which the
claims of these gentlemen to public
remuneration, were stated.

It likewise appeared, that there were
emoluments not arising from places in
the War Office, but received by officers
belonging to this department, amount-
ing in the whole to 4,611l. 6s. to which
is to be added, the pay of an individual
as captain in the navy, and of another
as second lieutenant colonel in a march-
ing regiment.

In consequence of the several state-
ments which were laid before the com-
mittee of the House of Commons, rela-
tive to the fees and gratuities of var-
ious offices, but especially of those
received at the War Office, it was rec-
ommended, that the whole fees and
gratuities received in them, should con-
stitute one general fund in the hands of
the chief clerk of each office, towards
defraying the expense of the office, and
that the salaries of the under secreta-
taries, clerks, and other officers, toge-
ther with every other attendant ex-
 pense, be paid thereout quarterly, as
far as the said fund will produce.

It likewise met the approbation of
the committee, as a general principle,
that those persons who have retired
through age or infirmities, should re-
ceive a liberal compensation for their
past services; but this compensation
was recommended to be limited in its
extent, and to be given in conformity to
certain regulations which were proposed
respecting the future application of the
fees paid at the War Office.

With respect to the nature of the ac-
counts which come into the War Office,
and the form of the examination which
they undergo there, it has been stated
to the House of Commons, that the
first head consists of the annual ac-
counts of the ordinary and incidental
charges of established regiments; the
second may not inaccurately be defined
regimental extraordinaries, or incidental
expenses more properly belonging to
established corps than to the army in
general, which latter are known by the
term, "Extraordinaries of the Army."
All claims made by the regimental agents
come under the inspection of the "Ex-
aminer of Army Accounts," to whose
office they are transmitted of course,
in virtue of a general delegation of that
duty to him by the secretary at war:
after his examination and report, the
secretary at war, in many instances,
orders partial issues of money by letter
to the paymaster general. No final
payment is made, except under the au-
thority of a warrant countersigned by
the secretary at war, and, in most in-
stances, by three lords of the treasurer.
The regimental agents account finally
to the secretary at war. They are like-
wise accountable to him and to the com-
mander in chief, for every species of
mismangement or misconduct with re-
spect to the officers and soldiers, &c.

The forms under which all payments
derived from the establishment are con-
ducted, consist of the following pa-
pers:—

1. The establishment of a regiment.
2. The warrant from the War Office
to make out debentures, with the state
of charges annexed.
3. The debenture made up at the
pay-office.
4. The final or clearing warrant.
5. The pay-office state.
This department consists of:—
One secretary at 2480l. per annum.
One deputy secretary and first clerk
at 3200l. per annum.
Four senior clerks, seven clerks, sa-
laries unknown.
One paymaster of widows' pensions.
One deputy ditto.
One examiner of army accounts, at
1500l. per annum.

Three
Three assistants, one messenger, one office keeper, one store keeper.

For a minute and specific account of this office, see pages 205, 228, 236, 237, 241, of the Reports from the Select Committee of the House of Commons in 1797.

The War Office department has no concern in framing or executing the interior and local regulations of the militia forces. These are made, altered, and amended by the lords-lieutenants of counties, after having been submitted to parliament.

Office of Secretary of State for the War Department.—The office of secretary of state for the war department, was first established on the 11th of July 1794, the whole business of the war department having from the commencement of the war in 1793, down to that period, been transacted by Mr. Dundas, in addition to the ordinary business of the home department.

The accumulation of affairs occasioned by the war, had, however, as it is stated, rendered it necessary to add four clerks to the ordinary establishment, and to employ two others, belonging to particular branches, almost constantly and exclusively, and had in such manner overloaded every individual then existing in the office, that the necessity of a separate establishment for managing the affairs of war exclusively, was soon felt, and produced the present additional office of secretary of state for the war department. Notwithstanding the resignation or dismissal of those ministers who first created this establishment, the necessity for its continuance has been equally felt, and Mr. Dundas is succeeded by Lord Hobart, as secretary of state for the war department.

It is here necessary to acquaint the reader, that the matter which relates to our principal offices in the military department, has been extracted out of the journals of the House of Commons.—Some alterations have occurred since the inquiry in 1797, (of which the present speaker was chairman,) and a complete revision of the whole system will, most probably, take place, in consequence of the new military commission that has been instituted. The inquisitive reader will, however, find under war-department, a more specific and more recent account of that office.

In thus quitting the subject, as to its general view, we cannot help mentioning, that much trouble would be obviated, were the names and designations of the several offices marked in large legible characters, at the entrance of each department. This mode has already been adopted in Somerset House.

Delays of Office. The disappointments and embarrassments to which many individuals, but most especially military men, are exposed, through the tardy progress of official business, and which have obtained a sort of proverbial curse under this term, show the necessity of regulations being made out in the clearest manner; and when made out, of their being speedily and faithfully complied with. If procrastination be the chief of time, delays in office are secret abettors of it.

Insolence of Office, a self-assumed importance, against which little minds are never proof, and of which great minds are almost always the unfortunate victims. Clerks in office and petty secretaries are subject to this weakness.

OFFICER. Amongst the ancients, the profession of arms was not a distinct and separate avocation, to which men devoted the whole of their application and their lives: the great generals of the Greeks and Romans were the ministers of the state, and the leaders of popular assemblies. Pericles was the most distinguished orator of his time; Xenophon was excellent as an historian, and in every branch of prose composition. All the great generals of the different Grecian states appear to have been men highly endowed; strangers to no branch of literature or learning then known. The first Scipio was the protector of genius, the patron of the arts, the friend of talents. Pompey was distinguished as a public speaker: Quintilian says of Caesar, that he was the only man who could have rivalled Cicero in eloquence, and that Tanta in eo vis est, id aeumen, ea concitatio, ut appareat illum eodem animo divinse quo bellavit. It, therefore, does not appear to have been the opinion of those two, the greatest nations that have ever trodden the earth, that military pursuits ought only to be followed
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followed by lesser and more ignoble minds; that a man might be little in the other avocations of human life, and great in the field of battle. That happy discovery had not yet been made, that an army was the sink of the state, a drain for the trash and refuse of its population of every description; the asylum of the idle, the ignorant and the profligate; the temple of blockheads, where the chief priest might be the most contemptible of the human kind. Send your son into the army, for he is fit for nothing else, has, in a certain country, become a common phrase.

Fortunately for that nation, she has not yet to contend for her existence. Predatory war in Asia, or the attacks of islands, when you are masters of the sea, do not require natural abilities of the first magnitude, or extensive military knowledge to conduct them; but the hour may yet arrive, when a great general may be wanting; when the war-hoop may be heard at our door and the battle be in our plains. In the moment of peril our Deliverer will probably not be found in that wretched class of men, who are unfit for all other professions.

Let us invoke the manes of the illustrious dead of all nations, who have filled the world with the glory of their military exploits, to interfere with the splendour of their sacred and departed names, and to rescue the profession of arms from the scots of folly, and the malignant revilings of men who conceive they belong to graver professions; as if there could be any profession so grave, as that of those who are charged with defending the state. As long as the glory of nations, and the fate of empires shall depend upon the fate of battles, so long may the army be justly denominated the most serious of human avocations, the most grave of all professions; and that, in the conduct of whose members governments ought to feel the most sincere and lively interest. Does then the army require no attainments?—To be an officer, is no previous mental discipline necessary, no study, no reflection, no power of comparison?—To teach others, ought you to be untaught yourself? From what has been seen and heard in other countries, one would suppose, that it was imagined military skill was a certain legerdemain trick, the art of a conjuror, which might as well be known and practised by a fool as by a wise man. How often has it been dinned into our (not offended, because ignorant) ears, that such and such an individual, though not a sensible man, is a most excellent officer! The time has at length arrived, that such wretched prejudices, contradicted by the experience of all ages and all nations, should cease.

There is no profession that requires greater knowledge and capacity than the army. A British officer is often employed at such a distance from his own country, and has so few opportunities of communicating with his government, that he must teach himself to depend more on the resources of his own mind, than the general of any other nation. He is likely to be occupied with many things not strictly military, the whole responsibility of which, the exigencies of public affairs may require him to take upon himself. There is no service in which extensive views and great knowledge and information will be found so essentially necessary on particular occasions, as in ours. We would therefore give the best possible education to an officer; we would instil into his young mind, that if he wished to distinguish himself in his profession, he must commence by laying the foundation of his superiority as a man. To laugh at learning, and to hug our ignorance, is the miserable fashion of coxcombs, and the imitation of those who never were born to be eminent in any profession, or to be excellent in any human pursuit. An officer, because he is learned in the closet, is not less brave in the field. Knowledge would not only be useless, but mischievous, if it did not tend to strengthen the understanding, purify the heart, and elevate the mind. On this subject there is a fine observation of Addison in the Spectator: he says, "that the mind which lays fallow, even for a single moment, vegetates weeds and blemishes, which afterwards require the labour of weeks, months, and years to eradicate." Certainly there can be no better preparation for the performance of great actions, than the continued exertion of...
the mind. Men, who have the habits of thinking early, transfer those habits from one subject to another. Many of the officers employed on the staff of the French army had been educated as physicians and lawyers. They consequently possessed that tone and energy of understanding, which belonged to men who have exerted all the powers of their minds. They adapted their old and early habits to their new profession.

A considerable number of the officers who made a figure in the civil wars of England, had been brought up to the Bar. Some men have certainly particular aptitude for particular pursuits; yet general powers of thinking, comparing and combining, may be applied with the greatest effect to things in their own nature entirely different.—But the difficulty is to enable a man, who has never thought at all, except on trifling subjects, to expand his mind, and to arrive with promptness, decision and exactitude, at some of the most arduous combinations of the human intellect. We would wish to raise officers in their own estimation; but above all, to eradicate some foolish opinions which have been adopted by the public on this important subject, without due consideration. We shall be asked by some pedant, perhaps a military one (because there are pedants in all professions, and bigots in all religions), whether we would make a scholar of an officer—we say yes; and defend ourselves by the practice and the example of the ancients, and by the precept of intuitive reason, all of which tell us, that though knowledge may be power, yet ignorance cannot be strength. The army is at times the most active of all professions, but there are long intervals of leisure and inaction which cannot be filled up by the mere routine of military duty. The vacant mind preys upon itself, and acquires those listless lounging habits which are a curse to the possessor, and the constant theme of ridicule to those who do not estimate the importance of the army to the state, and who know nothing of a soldier but that he is dressed in red or blue. Temperance, courage, perseverance, moderation in prosperity, constancy in adversity, are the virtues of an officer. What is the best mode of acquiring, practising, and confirming these noble qualities, so that at length they become inherent in us, and constitute, as it were an inseparable part of our nature? Why, study and reflection; together with examples, drawn from books and history. A man is unfortunate if books do not make him wiser; but he must have pursued a very ill-arranged course of studies indeed, if he has not become better for their perusing. We should recommend reading, above all things, to officers, because it is apt to inspire young men with that necessary respect for morals and virtue, which tends in the highest degree to elevate the character, and is the pure source from whence great actions generally spring.

Various are the disputes, how and where officers are to be educated, and what they ought to know? In our opinion there can be little doubt upon the matter: give them the best possible education, and teach them every thing which is necessary to be known by an accomplished gentleman in a free country. All knowledge expands the mind; and it cannot be doubted, that the highest branches of the military duties can only be practised with success and effect by men of the greatest reach of thought, and quickness of intellect. Away with those silly notions, that the practice of the profession of arms only belongs to inferior men. Ignorance, prejudice, and trade may maintain the position, but history, truth, and philosophy all contradict it. An officer must be cool and collected, and rise above himself in those moments of peril and danger which appal other men. He must become more fearless as the causes of fear increase; he must possess a mind of the greatest possible extension, which embraces the entire of a subject in one grasp, and can think, decide, and act in the same moment. These moral and intellectual qualities, these powers of mind are certainly not the portion of ordinary men, but of those fortunate beings who are born under the influence of the most auspicious planets. They are innate, they may be improved by study, labour, and reflection, but they are implanted by the hand of Nature alone. We think it can be proved from the example of the ancients, that the
men who performed the most glorious achievements in war, were often the distinguished writers, the splendid orators of the arts in which they flourished.

We certainly want a fixed standard by which we can estimate the comparative degree of merit of distinguished generals in different ages in different countries. The King of Prussia thought, that Caesar and Hannibal were the greatest generals who appear in the annals of warfare, and that the contest for superiority lay between them. Without any servile submission we incline to be of the same sentiment. But at all events it must be allowed, that the great generals of antiquity were more distinguished as men, than those of modern times. From whence it appears to follow, that military knowledge has not gained ground by making the army a distinct and separate profession. There are many and long intervals of leisure in the life of an officer, which cannot be filled up by the mere constant recurring details of petty duties. Unoccupied minds can produce those weeds and noxious herbs of which Addison speaks. The best preparation for actual warfare is, that the mind of the officer should be tutored by study and application, and the body of the soldier strengthened by exercise, and labour, useful to the state, and necessary for the purpose of preserving his own health and vigour. Instead of spending their whole lives percutting on a parade, and performing evolutions which are practised every where but in a field of battle, the generals of the ancients found time for all employments, and their soldiers executed the most stupendous works; the remains of which are still the admiration of posterity.

We have dwelt so long on the example of the Greeks and Romans, in order to persuade officers that learning, science, and eloquence, are not incompatible with their profession, and the main pursuit of their lives; but on the contrary, that they are the ornaments which have added lustre to the character of the most illustrious warriors, who have appeared in the most military ages of the world. Perhaps we have digressed too much on this subject; but we think we have perceived that there is a bearing and an inclination to form conclusions on this question, which may ultimately become extremely injurious to the public, and tend to impress opinions on the officers of the army, highly detrimental to themselves and the service in which they are engaged. Many causes have operated to damp the military spirit in England; the clamour and jealousy which existed against standing armies for many years after the Revolution, the wealth poured in by trade, the superior rewards offered by all other professions, the enormous increase of the taxes and all the necessaries of life, the consequent reduction of the pay (which now, for a century, except in the inferior ranks, has always remained the same). Till the very end of the reign of the Stuarts, the European armies were full of the nobility and gentry of England. In an action in the Dutch war, the Duke of York's ship was crowded with volunteers of the first fashion; three of whom were killed near his person. Amongst this class of men, at present, there appears to be little ambition to acquire military fame. An attachment to party, a speech delivered with effect in either House of Parliament, is a more sure road to power and influence, than half a dozen victories. In other countries the army, though it does not lead to wealth, has always been considered as the first of the professions, and makes some compensation for the various mortifications and privations to which officers are every where more exposed than any other class of the community. Every means ought to be taken to excite a military spirit in England: there are difficulties in the way, and serious ones too. Our commerce, our manufactories, our navy, occupy so much wealth, time, and attention, that our army must naturally be in the background. Men of ambition and talents will not pursue an inferior line, where they may pass their whole lives without having a single opportunity of exertion or arriving at those distinctions in the state, which fall to the lot of men in other trades and professions. In peace they are neglected by the government: in war they pass years in pestilential climates without the prospect of wealth, the hope of glory, or where industry is
unavailing and talent is buried; where they drag a miserable existence without consolation, and die unknown, unpitied, and unmourned by that country to whom they have made a sacrifice of their time, their fortunes, their health, and ultimately of their lives.

Having received this article from one of the best informed sources, we give it to our military readers without any alteration or comment of our own. We shall only conclude by observing, that commanding officers, and indeed all officers, should invariably recollect what has been so well said of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. He finished his course (to use the historian's own words) as an hero ought to do, with his sword in his hand, the word of command between his lips, and victory in expectation, concluding all with this religious ejaculation, My God! My God!

Officers, in a military sense, are of several denominations and ranks, viz.

Commissioned Officers, are those appointed by the king's commission; such are all from the general to the cornet and ensign, both inclusive; and in the Blues, or Royal Horse Guards, the quarter-master bears the king's commission.

Warrant Officers, those who have no commissions, but only warrants from such lords, or persons, who are authorized by the king to grant them.

Non-commissioned Officers, are serjeant-majors, quarter-master serjeants, serjeants, drum and file majors, who are appointed by the commanding officers of regiments, and by them may be reduced without a court martial. But it is not in the power of any captain of a company, or other subordinate officer, to reduce a serjeant without the sentence of a general or regimental court martial.

General Officers, are those whose command is not limited to a single company, troop, or regiment; but extends to a body of forces, composed of several regiments: such are the general, lieutenant general, major general, and in some armies brigadier general.

General officers, having regiments, may be summoned to attend the board at the Horse Guards, either for the purpose of inspecting the patterns for clothing, or of deciding upon any other point which concerns the interior economy of the service. They are summoned from the judge advocate's office, to whom they must apply for leave of absence in case of sickness. Their letter of excuse is transmitted by him to the adjutant general, who lays it before the board.

Field Officers, are such as command a whole regiment; as the colonel, lieutenant-colonel, and major.

Staff Officers, are the quarter-master-general, and the adjutant-general, brigade officers, and aids-de-camp, also the quarter-masters, adjutants, the physicians, surgeons, and chaplains.

Subaltern Officers, are lieutenants, cornets, and ensigns.

Flag Officers, are admirals who hoist flags at the mast heads.

Sea Officers, are, in general, all those who have any command in the navy.

The following observations, which more specifically relate to guards, are so generally applicable to every other military situation on service, that we recommend them to the serious attention of every officer:

It is the duty of all officers, to take notice of any negligence, or impropriety of conduct, in the men, whether on duty or off duty, although the person or persons offending, should not belong to their particular regiments. They are immediately to report all neglects of duty to the officer commanding the guard; and they are enjoined to confine, and to report to the commanding officer of the regiment to which they belong, any non-commissioned officers or soldiers, they may detect in disorderly practices, or who appear out of their quarters, conducting themselves either in point of behaviour or appearance, in a manner unbecoming soldiers.—Regulations and Orders, p. 20.

Brevet Officer, one who in doing duty with other corps takes rank according to the commission which he holds from the king, and which is superior to the one for which he actually receives pay, or by which he can do duty in his own. A captain for instance, in the twenty-third regiment of foot, who has the rank of brevet-major in the army, may, when that corps does brigade duty, command every captain on
on service with him. The word brevet is taken from the French, and in the instance before us means rank without pay. During the French monarchy there were various instances in which individuals held posts of honour during the king’s pleasure, or during their own natural lives. Hence *dues à brevet*, dukes by brevet; or to use an expression more familiar to us, persons who received the patent letter of a dukedom during their natural lives.—Brevet likewise signified a sum attached by order of the king to the sale of a commission or place for the benefit of a deceased person’s wife, heirs, or creditors: this was called *brevet de retenue*. So that the word *brevet*, though limited to one sense amongst us, was applicable to rank and emolument among the French. Hence *breveter* signified to give a person a commission, place, or employment; to invest him with honorary rank; or to authorize him to receive a pension. *Brevet de capitaine* signifies the commission, or rank of a captain.

We have already given an account of the civil officers belonging to the several military departments under their specific heads. The following are connected with Chelsea and Woolwich.

**Civil Officers belonging to the Royal Hospital at Chelsea:**—

The civil department consists of—The president of the council. First lord of the treasury. The two secretaries of state. The paymaster general of land forces. The secretary at war. The two comptrollers of army accounts. The governor and lieutenant governor. Salaries unknown.

The military department consists of—Governor at 500l. per ann. Lieutenant governor at 400l. per ann. Major 250l. Adjutant 100l. Treasurer, who is the paymaster general for the time being, salary unknown. Deputy treasurer, one clerk, two chaplains, one secretary, and registrar, two clerks, one agent and paymaster to the out-pensioners, one physician at 100l. per ann. one comptroller, one steward, one surgeon at 100l. per ann. two surgeons’ mates, one apothecary, one truss maker, one whitster, one wardrobe keeper, one porter of coal yard, one organist, one clerk of the works, one master lamp-lighter, one master butter, one master cook, one second cook, two under cooks, one scullery-man, one gardener, one master barber, one engine keeper, one clock keeper, one canal keeper and turncock, one sexton, one usher of the hall, one porter, one cellarer, two sweepers, one matron, one master mason, one master smith, one master painter, and one plumber.

**Field Officers belonging to the several regiments of militia in Ireland:**—

By an act passed on the 24th of March, 1801, the number of field officers of this description has been increased by adding one additional lieutenant colonel, and one additional major to such of the Irish regiments as consist of eight companies, or upwards, and one additional major to such of the said regiments as consist of seven companies or under. The following counties consist of eight companies and upwards:—Antrim, Armagh, North Cork, South Cork, City of Cork, Donegal, City of Dublin, Galway, Kerry, King’s County, County of Limerick, Londonderry, Louth, Meath, Monaghan, Roscommon, Tipperary, Tyrone, Waterford, and Wexford. The Carlow, Cavan, Clare, North Downshire, South Downshire, County of Dublin, Fermnagh.
The Commander of the camp of the Reserve in the
interest of each regiment is responsible for the
maintenance of order and discipline among all of
the officers and men of said regiment. In addition,
the Commander is responsible for the general
administration of the camp, including the
maintenance of the drill of the camp, the
promotion of the welfare of the personnel, and
the enforcement of military law.

The General of the camp is responsible for
the general administration of the camp, including
the promotion of the welfare of the personnel,
the maintenance of the drill of the camp, and
the enforcement of military law.

The officers of the camp are responsible for
disciplinary matters, including the
enforcement of military law.

The camps are under the command of the
Commander-in-Chief, who is responsible for the
general administration of the camp, including
the promotion of the welfare of the personnel,
the maintenance of the drill of the camp, and
the enforcement of military law.

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Commander-in-Chief, who is responsible for the
general administration of the camp, including
the promotion of the welfare of the personnel,
the maintenance of the drill of the camp, and
the enforcement of military law.
The officers on duty and those in waiting, as next for duty, who are always to be mentioned in the orders of the day, are constantly to remain in camp, or within their cantonments.—No officer is, on any account, to sleep out of camp, or cantonments, without leave.

Officers making written reports, are to sign them, specifying their rank and the regiments to which they belong.

All orders relating to the men are to be read to them by an officer per company, at the next parade after such orders are given out.

When there is a field officer of the day, it is his duty to visit all guards frequently, during the day and night; in the morning, on the dismounting of the guards, he will collect the reports, and carry them to the governor or commandant, together with any observations he may himself have made, in the course of his duty in the preceding day. When there is no field officer of the day, the reports will be collected, and delivered to the governor, by the captain of the main guard. Each regiment must have an alarm post assigned to it, to which it will repair in case of fire, or any other extraordinary alarm, either by day or by night.

The officer of the day (and indeed the officer in waiting), formerly wore his sash, to distinguish him from the officers on guard, &c. At present no such distinction can exist, as every military man, in commission, and regimentally dressed, must invariably wear his sash. This regulation has been necessarily resorted to on account of the volunteer corps; the privates of which, in several battalions or companies, are dressed like their officers. We still lament, that one rule should be wanting to render all armed establishments subject to one system, as far as relates to dress and discipline.

Marine Officers, all those who command in that body of troops employed in the sea service, under the direction of the lords of the admiralty.

OFFICIAL. All orders, reports, applications, memorials, &c, which pass through the regular channels of communication, are called official.

OFFICIER, Fr. See OFFICER.

OFFICIER du génie, Fr. an engineer.

OFFICIER sur terre, Fr. a land officer.

or any commissioned person in the land service.

OFFICIER sur mer, Fr. a sea officer, or any commissioned person in the sea service. The term, however, is not confined to this class only; it likewise signifies the master, pilot, boatswain, &c. of a ship, in which case the latter are called officiers marins, in contradistinction to the former who are stiled officiers de la marine, or persons who have naval rank, and whose immediate business is to fight their ships. These consisted, in the old French service, of admirals, vice-admirals, lieutenant-generals, commodores, captains of ships, or post captains, majors, captains of light frigates, captains of fire ships, captains of stores or ordnance vessels, port captains, to which may be added, capitaines en second, together with the lieutenants and enseignes de vaisseau, whether actually employed, and bearing rank, or being only en second. There were beside various employments and situations under the old French government, which entitled individuals to the appellation of officier. Those of a military or naval nature were generally and specifically as follow:—

OFFICIER de guerre, Fr. a military man or officer.

OFFICIER dans les troupes, Fr. any person holding a military situation in the army.

OFFICIER général, Fr. a general officer.

OFFICIER subalterne, Fr. a subaltern officer.

Les hauts Officiers, Fr. Commissioned officers.

Les bas Officiers, Fr. non-commissioned officers.

OFFICIER de la garnison, Fr. an officer belonging to the garrison of a town, or fortified place.

OFFICIER en garnison, Fr. Any officer in garrison.

OFFICIER au régiment des gardes, Fr. an officer belonging to the guards, familiarly stiled with us a Guardsman.

Officiers à la suite, Fr. During the existence of the French monarchy a certain number of individuals were permitted to wear the uniform of a regiment, without being otherwise connected with it. These were divided into two classes, viz,
OFFICIERS à la suite d'un regiment, Fr. officers nominally attached to a regiment. Of this description were the gentlemen appointed by the German princes who were in alliance with France. It is mentioned, as a fact, that before the French Revolution took place, there were 42 lieutenant colonels à la suite du regiment Deux Ponts; the Prince of that name having been permitted to extend this strange brevet to any number, provided the officers so distinguished, never went into the town where the regiment lay, or interfered with regard to quarters, &c.

The other class consisted of noblemen and gentlemen, who were appointed by the Court of Versailles, and received their brevets from the war minister. These were called officiers à la suite de toute l'armée; or officers bearing brevet rank without being attached, even nominally, to any specific corps.

OFFICIER dans la marine, Fr. an officer in the marine service. OFFICIER marinier, Fr. See Officer sur mer.

OFF-RECKONINGS, a specific account so called, which exists between government and the colonels of British regiments for the clothing of the men. This account is divided into two parts, viz. gross off-reckonings, and net off-reckonings.

**Gross Off-Reckonings** consist of all the pay of the non-commission officers and private men above the subsistence.

**Net Off-Reckonings** are the produce of the gross off-reckonings, reserved for the clothing of the men, after the warrant deductions of one shilling in the pound, and one day's pay of the whole regiment for Chelsea hospital, and also the deduction of two-pence in the pound for the agent, are made at the pay office. The balance of the pay of the officers, over and above their subsistence, after the warrant deductions are made, and the respited pay, if there is any, is charged to the officer, is called clearings; which are paid by the paymaster to the agent, who pays them to the officers, and there finds his two-pences.

Colonels of regiments either pay the clothier ready money, or allow him interest for forbearance. But no colonel can make a valid assignment of the off-reckonings, till the clothier has exhibited to a board of general officers, appointed by his Majesty for that purpose, the patterns of each species of clothing he is to provide; which patterns are left with the secretary to the clothing board, at the office of the comptrollers of the army, and compared with sealed patterns, already approved by the king; and if found conformable thereto, are sealed by all the general officers, who compose that board, in testimony of their approbation; and when the clothier has completed his clothing, ready to be delivered, the inspector of clothing is directed to view the said clothing, who certifies, in writing, that he has found it conformable to his Majesty's instructions in quantity and quality; which certificate, together with the colonel's assignment of the off-reckonings, is produced by the clothier to the board of general officers, who pass the assignment; but the contract between the colonel and clothier is not laid before any officer whatsoever; nor is any account brought afterwards of the expense of that clothing. Clothiers provide clothing for complete regiments, as upon the establishment.

There are several other articles of expense defrayed out of the clothing fund, as the charge of package, of carriage by land or water, of insurance, when sent abroad, of interest, more or less, as the off-reckonings are paid, of fees of offices, of clothing lost by desertion, of small accoutrements, colours, drums, and other contingent charges. The subsistence of the men, allowed for clothing lost by deserters, is paid to the respective colonels; and the off-reckonings only are included in the assignment.

**OFFUSQUER, Fr.** literally means to darken, or conceal. Ce bâtiment est offusqué par les maisons voisines. This building is darkened, or concealed from the eye, by the neighbouring houses. It likewise signifies, in a figurative sense, to be out-done or out-matched. Il est sent offusqué. He feels himself out-done.

**OGNON, Fr.** literally means an onion. The word is sometimes used in a familiar manner by the French to express persons standing in a row. Ils étaient tous en rang d'oignon. They all stood, like onions, in a row.
ON

OGEE, in pieces of ordnance, an OVAL, ornamental moulding, in the shape of an S, taken from architecture, and used in guns, mortars, and howitzers. See CANNON.

OGIVE, (Ogive, Fr.) In Gothic vaults those arches are stiled ogives, or ogees, which cross one another diagonally. The French likewise call them croisées d’ogives.

OIL. Every soldier is supplied with a given quantity of oil and emery, for the purpose of cleaning his arms, accoutrements, &c. This is paid for by the captains of companies, who charge the actual expenditure every half year, under the head, "Emery, Oil, Crocus, &c."

OLISANT, a small horn which was formerly used by the Paladins and nights-errant, when they challenged our enemies to fight, and set them at defiance.

OLYMPIA, in chronology, the age of four years; for on the 5th the Olympic games were celebrated in honor of Jupiter Olympius, near Olympia. The Greeks began to use this epoch a little before the building of Rome.

OLYMPIC GAMES, were instituted Hercules, A. M. 2856, in honour of Jupiter, at Olympia, a city Elis, in Peloponnesus. They were brated every four years, about the mer solstice. The design of them to accustom the young military to running, leaping, and every military exercise.

OMBRE, (sécher à l’ombre, Fr.) term is in use among the French officers of artillery, when they put the putty, which serves to form the moulds, out to dry, without any fire for the purpose.

OMBA, or OMBA, Ind. plural of a lord. They are persons of considerable consequence in the dominions of Great Mogul. Some of them commanders of 1000 horse, others and so on to 12,000: their pay is regulated according to the number of horses. The governors and officers of state are chosen out of the army.

OPEN, a preposition frequently used in tish service. It precedes those of command which direct the or formation of bodies of men whose points that are fixed, viz.

By companies on the left backwards wheel. The left pivot man of each company faces at this cautionary word, and remains a fixed point, on which the rest wheel back when they receive directions so to do. When the column of companies is to be wheeled into line, the word on is equally understood to direct the moveable parts of each company towards the given pivot which faces, and remains a fixed point. General Dundas in his drill instructions, says, To the left wheel into line; but in the third part of the Regulations To is wholly omitted, and the commanding officer uses the term Left wheel into line, et vice versa. We humbly conceive, that the preposition on is here understood; for it is evident, that in breaking into column the component parts of a line wheel as much from a given point, as they do to a given one, when the column returns into line. Whereas by using on, or understanding it to be used, when, for the sake of abbreviation, it is omitted, we preserve the true meaning of the preposition, keep the men in the recollection of the necessary adhesion, and shew, that whether you wheel backwards or forwards, from line into column, or from column into line, there is one invariable fixed point on which you move. Perhaps it might be as well to say, on the right or left forwards wheel into line, in lieu of to.

ONAGRA, (Onagre, Fr.) a warlike machine, which was used by the ancients to throw stones of different sizes. It is mentioned by Vegetius.

ONDECAGON, a figure of eleven sides and angles.

ONSET, assault, storm, attack.

OPEN, in military movements and dispositions is frequently used, but it is seldom applicable to any operations in face of an enemy; the ranks, &c. on such occasions being generally compact and close. In formation, the word open is opposed to close, viz. open column, open distance, open order. It also constitutes part of a word of command; as rear ranks take open order; in opposition to rear ranks take close order.

OPEN distances in column. (Distances entières en colonne, Fr.) The intervals in these cases are always equal in depth to the extent in front of the different component parts of the column.

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Open flank, in fortification, that part of the flank, which is covered by the orillon. See Fortification.

OPENING of trenches, the first breaking of ground by the besiegers, in order to carry on their approaches towards the place.

Line of operation. All the forward movements of an army for the purpose of attacking an enemy, penetrating into a country, &c. may be properly called a line of operation. There is so intimate and so necessary a connection between this line and the line of communication, that no army can be in security, let its temporary successes be what they may, without a strict and unremitting attention being given to their relative points of continuity and correspondence. The line of operation in a siege is partial and extremely limited, so is that of communication; but upon the large scale of war these two lines are of considerable extent and importance. No man, in fact, can be called a good general, or even an officer, who carries his views so far forward as to venture upon a long line of operation, without having previously secured his line of communication, by a perfect knowledge of the countries through which he moves, and having his flanks so thoroughly covered, that he may fall back or retreat according to circumstances.

Opinions. Officers on courts-martial give their opinion by seniority, beginning with the youngest in rank.

Opinion, abstractly considered, may be defined an assent of the understanding, with some fear or distrust of the contrary. In a political sense, it is the acquiescence of the mind to certain principles. In some instances opinion and principle are synonymous terms.—Hence, French revolutionary opinions, or revolutionary principles.

A war of opinion, (Guerre d'opinion, Fr.) This expression has grown into familiar use since the commencement of the French Revolution, and was never, perhaps, so strongly illustrated as by the perseverance or infatuation, call it which we please, of the French people. They have shewn, that the influence of opinion is paramount to every consideration in life. Friend, parent, and relation, have given way to the superior calls of public duty, growing out of and sanctioned by public opinion.

Opinion, Fr. This word is variously used among the French, and as we have already observed, is now generally attached to the contest in which they have been engaged for the maintenance of certain principles that seem to have altered their character. The nation at large bad, in fact, taken up an opinion, grounded upon certain principles, which were diametrically opposite to those their forefathers had implicitly followed for 1400 years. On the policy or impolicy of the new creed or opinion, we shall not presume to offer our sentiments. The subject has been amply discussed amongst us, and continued for some years, to be as obstinately supported by them. When Great Britain formed a part of the well known coalition, the preservation of the balance of Europe was the ostensible, perhaps the real cause on our part for entering into hostilities against France; so that the war in 1792, &c. might not improperly be called a war of policy or political necessity, as far as it regarded the coalesced powers; but it has unquestionably been, all along, a war of opinion on the other side.—That the opinion of the French nation is more variable than their climate, the stupendous elevation of the present emperor sufficiently proves. The French familiarly say, Il faut respecter l'opinion publique;
publique; le pouvoir, l'empire, l'influence de l'opinion.—Public opinion must be respected or attended to; the power, the dominion, the influence of opinion. L'opinion est la reine du monde.

Opinion is the queen of the world.—When the allied armies, under the command of the Duke of Brunswick in 1792, were within a few days march of Paris, it was observed by a firm adherent to the royal cause: Que malgré l'air impotent d'une telle force, ou combinaison, on avait tout à craindre pendant qu'il existait un ennemi à combattre, aussi terrible qu'ètait l'opinion. That notwithstanding so formidable a force or combination, every thing was to be apprehended so long as that terrible enemy, opinion, remained to be combated against.

OPIUM, a juice, partly of the resins, partly of the gummy kind. According to Dr. Johnson’s extract from Hill, it is brought from Natolia, Egypt, and the East Indies, produced from the white garden poppy, with which the fields of Asia Minor are in many places sown. The first effect of opium is making the person who takes it cheerful; it removes melancholy, and dissipates the dread of danger. The Turks always take it when they are going to battle: it afterwards quiets the spirits, eases pain, and dispenses to sleep. A remarkable instance of the powerful influence of opium over the natives of the East is related by Mr. Orme, in his history of the Carnatic, page 270. His words are:—The enemy remained quietly until noon, when having sufficiently intoxicated themselves with opium, they began to swarm out in great numbers; but the field pieces (which were served by Europeans) kept them for some time at a distance; every shot doing execution. During the cannonade a party of the nabob’s sepoys crossed the river, and taking possession of a small choultry, (an open house for the accommodation of travellers, so called in India) at a little distance to the right of the other, began to fire from this untenable post, upon which a body of 300 Moratooe horse galloped up to attack them; but before they arrived the sepoys took flight; several of them were cut to pieces, and the rest re-crossing the river ran into the city: the Moratooes encouraged by this success, (and still flushed with the opium) now galloped up towards the entrenchment of the great choultry, where they were suffered to come so near, that several of them made use of their sabres across the parapet before the troops within gave fire, which then began, and seconded by that of the four pieces of cannon on the other side of the river, killed and wounded a great number of men and horses, and obliged the enemy to retire in confusion; in this instant an officer unadvisedly took the resolution of quitting his post, and passed the river, in order to give Captain Dalton, (who commanded the detachment) some information concerning the artillery; some of the soldiers seeing this, imagined that he went away through fear, and concluding that things were worse than appeared to them, followed his example, and ran out of the entrenchment; which the rest perceiving, a panic seized the whole, and they left the post with the greatest precipitation, notwithstanding they had, the minute before, given three huzzas, on the retreat of the Moratooes: a body of 3000 Mysore horse, who were drawn up on the bank, immediately galloped into the bed of the river, and charging the fugitives with fury, cut down the whole party excepting 15 men: flushed with this success, they made a push at Captain Dalton’s division on the other side. All these motions succeeded one another so rapidly, that he had hardly time to put his men on their guard; more especially as many of them had caught the panic, from having been spectators of the massacre of their comrades; however, some of the bravest bearing to his exhortations, stood firm by the artillery: their behaviour encouraged the sepoys, who made a strong fire from behind the low wall in their front, which accompanied by the grape shot of the four field pieces, soon abated the ardour of the enemy, and obliged them to retreat, leaving some horses, whose riders fell within 20 yards of the muzzles of the guns: Captain Dalton then advanced a little way into the bed of the river, where he remained until he had collected the dead and the wounded. Not a man who escaped could give any reason why he quitted his post, all of them ac-

knowledging
knowing that at the time when they took flight, only one man in the entrenchment was wounded, and that they had nine barrels of ammunition.

OPPORTUNITY. In addition to what has been said respecting occasion, which is nearly similar to opportunity in its import, we shall extract the following account of the latter, which was also honoured as a goddess among the Pagans. Opportunity was represented by them as a naked woman, with a long lock of hair, but bald behind, to intimiate, that opportunity, if not laid hold on when it offers, soon slips away; also standing with one foot on a wheel, and the other in the air, holding a sail in one hand, and a razor in the other; her feet likewise being winged, and the wheel in continual motion, to show that opportunity is always inconstant and in motion.

To OPPOSE, to act as an adversary against another, to resist, &c. It likewise signifies to place as an obstacle.

OPPUGN. To oppugn, is to attack by force of arms. The term is not used.

OPPRESSOR, (Oppresseur, Fr.) Although the terms oppressor and tyrant may appear synonymous, there is, nevertheless, a shade of difference between them. Oppressor means more immediately that prince, general, or governing power, which levies contributions, and imposes taxes, beyond the means of the wretched and degraded victims to superior force.

ORANGE, a term applied to those persons who adhered to the Stadholder. Hence, orange party. The troops of the Prince of Orange were taken into British pay in Sept. 1799. Also a faction which has prevailed for some time in Ireland.

ORB, in tactics, is the disposing of a number of soldiers in circular form of defence. The orb has been thought of consequence enough to employ the attention of the famous marshal de Puysegur, in his Art of war, who prefers this position, to throw a body of infantry in an open country, to resist cavalry, or even a superior force of infantry; because it is regular, and equally strong, and gives an enemy no reason to expect better success by attacking one place in preference to another. Cesar drew up his army in this form, when he fought against Labienus. The whole army of the Gauls was formed into an orb, under the command of Sabinus and Cotta, when fighting against the Romans. The orb was generally formed 6 deep.

ORDER, the arrangement or disposition of things in their proper place; custom or manner, rule or discipline; as order of march, &c.

Order of battle, the arrangement or disposition of the different component parts of an army in one or more lines, according to the nature of the ground, for the purpose of engaging an enemy, by giving or receiving an attack, or in order to be reviewed, &c.

Parade Order. When a regiment of horse or foot, a troop, or company, is drawn up with the ranks open and the officers in front, it is said to be in parade order.

Close Order. When a battalion or company is commanded to take close order, at the word march, the ranks (supposing the men to stand three deep) close within one pace, marching one and two paces, and then halting. So that close order in ranks comprehends an interval of one pace between each.

Open Order. When a battalion or company is commanded to take open order, on the word march, the dressers front, and the center and rear ranks fall back one and two paces, each dressing by the right the instant it arrives on the ground. So that open order comprehends an interval of two paces between each rank.

Extended Order, is preparatory to rank entire, and is frequently practised in light infantry manoeuvres. In order to execute this movement the files of a battalion or company, standing two deep, open from a given point, leaving just space enough for one man. Sometimes, and indeed almost always, when the ground will permit, extended order is taken by facing the battalion or company to the right or left, and by marching to either flank, until the whole has gradually doubled its original front.

This mode is extremely simple, and consists in nothing more than open order of files from the right or left. The battalion or company, after it has obtained all its relative distances, and been halted, is fronted, and each rear rank man springs into the vacancy on the word of command—Form rank entire.
Entire, when applied to rank, means a straight line composed of half files. See rank entire.

Extended order may likewise be taken without facing to the right or left. This is effected by every file moving sideways to a given distance; say one pace, or twenty-two inches, (which extent of ground a man generally covers,) from the centre file. The word of command in this case would be, Battalion or company, side step to the right and left, march, halt. The center file stands fast.

Watering Order. In cavalry arrangements, the men are in their stable dresses; horse-cloths on the horses, and snaffle-bridles; the horses are watered, walked and trotted for exercise.

ORDER Arms, a word of command, on which the soldier brings the butt of his musquet to the ground, the barrel being held perpendicular in a line with the right side.

ORDERS, in a military sense, all that is lawfully commanded by superior officers. Orders are given out every day, whether in camp, garrison, or on a march, by the commanding officer; which orders are afterwards given to every officer in writing by their respective serjeants.

After Orders, instructions which are given, subsequent to the regular communication of orders, through the brigade-majors, &c. All orders, whether general, garrison, or regimental, that are issued after the first distribution of military directions, are so called.

Beating Order, an authority given to an individual, empowering him to raise men, by beat of drum, for any particular regiment, or for general service. It consists of a warrant which is originally signed by the king, and from which copies are taken and signed by the secretary at war, and countersigned by the under-secretary.

Brigade Orders, orders which are issued by the generals commanding, through the brigade-majors, to the several adjutants of regiments, for the government of corps that do duty together, or are brigaded.

Commander in Chief's Orders. Such orders as issue directly from the commander in chief's office for the government of the army at large, or for any specific purpose. These orders are sanctioned by the king, and are irrevocable elsewhere.

District Orders, orders which are issued by the general commanding a district.

Garrison Orders, such orders and instructions as are given by the governor or commanding officer of a town or fortified place.

General Orders, are such as are issued out by the general who commands, who gives them in writing to the adjutant-general, who first sends exact copies to the general officers of the day, and distributes them at his own quarters to all the brigade-majors, who daily go to head-quarters for that purpose: where they write down every thing that is dictated to them; from thence they go and give the orders, at the place appointed for that purpose, to the different majors or adjutants of the regiments which compose that brigade, who first read them to their colonels and lieutenants-colonels, or majors, and then dictate them to the serjeants of companies. This is more frequently done by the serjeant-major. The different serjeants write them correctly down in their respective orderly-books, and bring them to all the officers belonging to the company.

Regimental Orders, such orders and instructions as grow out of general or garrison orders, or proceed immediately from the commanding officer of a regiment.

Sailing Orders, final instructions which are given to ships of war.

Standing Orders, certain general rules and instructions which are to be invariably followed, and are not subject to the temporary intervention of rank; of this description are those orders which the colonel of a regiment may judge fit to have inserted in the orderly books, and which cannot be altered by the next in command, without the colonel's concurrence.

Pass Orders, written directions to the sentries, &c. belonging to outposts, &c. to suffer the bearer to go through the camp, or garrison, un molested.

Military Orders, are companies of knights, instituted by kings and princes; either for defence of the faith, or to confer marks of honour on their military subjects. They are chiefly as follow:

Order
Order of the Bear, a military order in Switzerland, erected by the Emperor Frederic II. in 1213, by way of acknowledgment for the service the Swiss had done him, and in favour of the Abbey of St. Gall. To the collar of the order hung a medal, on which was represented a bear, raised on an eminence of earth.

Amaranth, an order of military knighthood, instituted in Sweden, by queen Christina, in 1645, at the close of an annual feast, celebrated in that country, and called Wirtschaft. Their device was the cypher of Amaranth, composed of two A's, the one erect, the other inverted, and interwoven together; the whole inclosed by a laurel crown, with this motto, Dolce nella memoria.

Argonauts of St. Nicolas, was the name of a military order instituted by Charles III. king of Naples, in the year 1382, for the advancement of navigation, or, as some authors say, merely for preserving amity among the nobles. They wore a collar of shells, inclosed in a silver crescent, whence hung a ship with this device, Non credo tempori.

Order of Calatrava, a Spanish military order. It was instituted in 1130, by Don Santio, of Toledo. The habit of these knights is a black garment, with a red cross upon the breast.

Order of Alcantara, a Spanish military order. It was established by Ferdinand II. king of Leon and Castile, in 1170. They wore a green cross upon their garment.

Order of St. James, instituted by Ferdinand II. in 1175. These knights had the privilege of wearing their hats in the chapter, in the presence of their sovereign.

Order of St. Michael, instituted in 1469, by Lewis XII. in honour of the important services done to France by that archangel at the siege of Orleans, where he is supposed to have appeared at the head of the French troops, disputing the passage of a bridge, and to have repulsed the attack of the English, whose affairs ever after declined in that kingdom. The order is a rich collar, with the image of that saint pendent thereto; with this inscription, Immensei tremor oceani.

Order of the Holy Ghost, instituted by Henry II. of France, in 1578. The number of knights are 100, besides the sovereign, who is always grand master.

Order of St. Louis, instituted by Louis XIV. in the year 1693. Until the revolution of France, this order remained entirely in the possession of military men, ever since its institution, and was of singular use in keeping up the spirit, and rewarding the services, of those who had distinguished themselves. The number of knights was unlimited, being given to every man of merit. The order was a golden cross, with eight points, which hung pendent to a broad crimson ribbon. The motto Bellice virtutis premium. It is worn by the exiled emigrants, and is occasionally bestowed upon individuals by the surviving descendant of the Capet family, commonly called Louis XVIII.

Order of Mount Carmel, instituted by Henry IV. in 1608.

Order of St. Lazarus, is of a very early institution, but has been often neglected, and as often revived, till Louis XV. united the order of St. Carmel and St. Lazarus in April, 1722.

Order of the knights of Malta. See MALTA.

Order of the knights of the Garter. See GARTER.

Order of the knights of the Bath. See BATH.

Order of the Golden Fleece, instituted by Philip Duke of Burgundy, sur-named the Good, in 1429. See FLEEC

Order of the Annunciation, instituted by Amadeo, Count of Savoy, sur-named the Green, in memory of Amadeo, the first earl, who had valorously defended the island of Rhodes against the Turks. The collar belonging to this order is of gold, and on it are these four letters, F. E. R. T. which means, Fortitudo ejus Rhodum tenuit, with the figure of the Annunciation hanging to it.

Order of the Knights Templars, instituted at Jerusalem about the year 1118. At first there were but nine of the order, and the two principal persons were Hugo de Paganis, and Joffroy of St. Omer's. The knights of this order, after having performed many great exploits against the infidels, became rich and powerful all over Europe; when, on the 22d of May, 1312, the pope, by his bull, pronounced the extinction of the order, and
and united their estates to the order of St. John of Jerusalem. They took the name of templars, because their first habitation stood near the temple, dedicated to our Saviour at Jerusalem.

Order of the knights of St. Jago, instituted by king Ramiro, of Spain, in commemoration of a victory obtained against the Moors, A. D. 1030. Their ensign is a red cross in form of a sword.

Order of the knights of the band, erected by Alphonso, king of Spain, in the year 1268. Their name proceeded from the knights wearing a red scarf, or lace of silk, the breadth of three inches, which hung on their left shoulder.

Order of the knights of the Redemption, erected in the kingdom of Aragon, by king James, who conquered the island of Majorca in the year 1212. Their garments are white, with a black cross thereon.

Order of the Teutonic knights, established towards the close of the 12th century, and thus called, as chiefly consisting of Germans,anciently called Teutons.

Order of the knights of St. Stephen, instituted in the year 1564, by Cosmo, duke of Florence. They wear a red cross with a border of gold.

Order of merit, instituted by Frederic III. king of Prussia, as a reward to those officers whose behaviour deserved some marks of distinction. The ensign of this order is a golden star of eight rays, enamelled with blue, which is worn appendant to a black ribband, edged with silver: the motto, Pour le mérite.

Order of St. Alexander Neviski, or the red ribbon, which was instituted by Peter I. Emperor of Russia; but the Czarina Catharine I. conferred it in the year 1725.

Order of the stole, an order of knights instituted by the kings of Aragon.

Order of the golden stole, a Venetian military order, so called from a golden stole, which those knights wore over their shoulder, reaching to the knee, both before and behind, a palm and a half broad. None are raised to this order but patricians, or noble Venetians. It is uncertain when this order was instituted.

Order of Maria Theresa. This order was instituted in June, 1757, by the Empress Queen of Hungary. In 1765, an intermediate class, styled knights commanders, was added to the two classes that originally composed the order. See Theresa.

Order of the Crescent, (ordre du croissant, Fr.) this order was first instituted by Mahomet II. Emperor of the Turks, who declared himself chief and head of it. It is given by the emperors to those only who have filled important places of trust, or who have distinguished themselves in battle. The insignia or marks consist of a gold crescent, with simple or green enamel, encircled by precious stones or diamonds. The motto is Donec totum impleat orbeh, until it shall fill the whole universe. The motto which is attached to the order of Malta, exhibits a modest and ingenious contrast to this ostentatious sentence. The cross is placed between the two horns of the crescent, with these words, Ne totum impleat orbeh, lest it should fill the whole universe. Admiral Lord Nelson, Lord Hutchinson, Lord Keith, &c. received this order from the Grand (Mogul), in consequence of their naval and military exploits in Egypt.—There was also an order of this description in the early periods of France. It was called l'ordre militaire du croissant et de l'étoile de Sicile, the military order of the crescent, and of the star of Sicily. Two princes belonging to the House of Anjou, viz. Charles, brother to Louis, the ninth king of France, and René, duke of Anjou, count of Provence, and king of Sicily, each separately created an order of this description. The insignia or marks consisted of a gold chain, in which were interwoven stars and fleurs de luces, and from which was suspended a gold crescent, with this motto, Donec totum impleat, until it shall fill the whole. The present emperot of the French seems to approach nearer than any of his discarded predecessors towards the accomplishment of this gigantic lust after power.

Order of the Iron Crown, (ordre de la couronne de fer, Fr.) this new order of knighthood has been lately instituted by the French Emperor Napoleon, on his coronation at Milan, as King of Italy. Although the history of the crown itself,
itself, which belonged to the ancient kings of Lombardy, is not absolutely necessary to our view of the order, we shall, nevertheless, briefly state, that it consists of five hundred knights, one hundred commanders, and sixty great officers. The honorary degrees are as follow: two hundred of the order of knighthood, and twenty-five places of commanders are to be conferred upon an equal number of those French officers and soldiers, by whose courage and perseverance, in a succession of battles, the kingdom of Italy has been established.

The motto is, *Dieu me l'a donné, gare à qui la touchera*, God has given it unto me; woe to him who shall touch it.

This crown had been carefully preserved in a small town called Monza on the Lambro, ever since the dissolution of the old kingdom of Lombardy, and during the different revolutions which occurred in Italy. According to Bùsching, the ancient kings of Lombardy, and after them, the emperors of Germany, were usually crowned in this place. The iron crown was merely put over the head of the sovereign, as it was too small to be worn. The lower circle or hoop, inside, was iron, and was said to have been originally made out of one of the large nails taken from the cross, on which Jesus Christ was crucified.—The rest is solid gold, ornamented with diamonds and precious stones. Theodore, one of the queens of Lombardy, built a church, dedicated to St. John, where this crown was deposited, together with her majesty's fan and haircomb. Venerable relics of royal vanity, and sometimes thought not unworthy of popular adoration!!!

Perhaps the day is not distant, when we may hear of an imperial and royal order of the fan, to be conferred upon some female courtiers and courtisans; and another of the comb, for the lord chamberlain, groom of the stole, &c. &c.

*Quasque abuteris patientiá nostrá?*

The republican armies of France uniformly spared this remnant of ancient royalty. To those readers who would wish to go more minutely into the history of this article, we recommend the perusal of the several works which treat of Lombardy. Among the different authors may be found the following: *Jornandes de Geturnum sive Gothorum Origine; Paulus Warnefried, de Gestis Lanobardorum; Hugo Grotius, &c.*

**ORDERLY Officer.** See Officer of the Day.

**ORDERLY sergeants,** are appointed to attend general, or other officers that are entitled to have them.

**ORDERLY serjeants** when they go for orders are sashed.

**Orderly corporals and orderly men** wear their side arms, and carry a small osier switch or cane in their hands.

In the dragoons, orderly men, on foot, have their sword-belts and bayonets; and on horseback, are dressed the same, only with gloves and boots, and spurs, of course, with the sword-belt and sword. They likewise have their pistols. When an orderly dragoon or foot soldier is sent from one quarter to another, the time of his setting out must be specified on the back of the letter which he carries; the dragoon must take care to bring his horse in cool, unless he has been sent on any pressing occasion.

**ORDERLIES in general.** It is the duty of the serjeant-majors to see that the orderlies are properly dressed and accoutred, before they are inspected by the adjutant, who parades them every morning in front of the main guard, &c. When private soldiers are chosen for orderlies in mixed duty, the credit of the corps from which they are taken, requires that they should be the best set up, and the best behaved men belonging to it. All orderlies, whether horse or foot, must return to quarters perfectly sober.

**ORDERLY non-commissioned officers,** are those who are orderly, or on duty for the week; who, on hearing the drum beat for orders, are to repair to the place appointed to receive them, and to take down in writing, in the orderly book, what is dictated by the adjutant or serjeant-major; they are then immediately to show those orders to the officers of the company, and afterwards warn the men for duty.

**ORDERLY book.** Every company has such
such a book in which the serjeants write down both general and regimental orders, for the specific information of the officers and men. This book is provided and paid for by the captains of companies.

ORDERLY DRUM. The drummer that beats orders, and gives notice of the hour for mess, &c. is so called.

ORDINAIRE, Fr. The soldiers mess ing together is so called among the French.

ORDINAIRE du soldat, Fr. the two daily meals which soldiers are obliged to take at established hours, and at messes.

ORDNANCE, (ordonnance, Fr.) a name given to all that concerns artillery, or engineering: thus, the commander in chief originally called master-general of the ordnance; and the next officer, lieutenant-general of the ordnance, instead of artillery. This post is of much greater antiquity in France than with us; for history informs us, that the first masters in chief of all the artillery were appointed in 1477, under Louis the XIth; those appointed before that epoch were—

Guillaume de Douardan, master of the ordnance in the Louvre, under Philip IV. who was appointed in 1291.

Guillaume Châtelain, master of the ordnance in Montargis, in 1291.

Guillebert, master of the ordnance in the Louvre, in 1294.

Étienne Amigard, in 1297; Jean Amigard, in 1298, at the Louvre; Jean Gautier, in 1299; Étienne de la Chambre, in 1295; Pierre le Vâché, in 1296; Benoît Fabry, in 1307; Adam, in 1314; Lambert Amigard, in 1322; Jean du Lion, in 1394, who was, in 1358, called sovereign master of the artillery under king John, surnamed the Good.

In 1397, John de Soisy was appointed master-general of artillery; and in 1599, Maximilian de Bethune, marquis de Rosny, duke de Sully, and marshal of France, was nominated first grand-master and captain-general of artillery. In 1575, the functions of the grand-master of the artillery were united to those of the war-minister, and fell under the immediate authority of the king. The war-minister undertook the civil department of the ordnance, and M. de Valliere was the last general director.

Board of ORDNANCE, is of a very early, but uncertain date; however, in the year 1548, we find Sir Philip Hoby stiled master of the ordnance; and in 1558, Ambrose Dudley, Earl of Warwick, was master of the ordnance. In 1683, the care of the board of ordnance was committed to five principal officers, besides the master-general, then George Lord Dartmouth, viz. a lieutenant-general, surveyor-general, clerk of the ordnance, store-keeper, and a clerk of deliveries. At present the board of ordnance consists of the same. This board regulates and orders every thing relating to the artillery and garrisons.

Master-General of the ORDNANCE, is an office of the greatest trust, honour, and dignity: it is one of the most laborious employments in war, and requires the greatest ability, application, and experience. This officer has the sole command of the royal regiment of artillery, assisted by a lieutenant-general. By the great power invested in the master-general by the king, he alone constitutes a board.

In 1548, Sir Philip Hoby was stiled master of the ordnance in Great Britain.

In 1587, we find Ambrose Dudley, earl of Warwick, stiled master of the ordnance, who had under him a master-gunner and a trench-master.

In 1596, the 29th of March, the earl of Essex was master of the ordnance.

In 1603, the earl of Devon was first called general of the ordnance.

In 1609, the 27th June, the earl of Totness, ditto.

In 1617, 5th May, lord Vere.

In 1623, 26th August, Sir Richard Morrison.

In 1628, Sir Thomas Stafford.

In 1634, 2d Sept. the earl of Newport.

In 1660, 22d January, Sir William Compton.

In 1664, 21st Oct. Sir Thomas Chicheley, knt. first called master-general of the ordnance.

In 1681, 28th Jan. lord Dartmouth.

In 1689, 28th April, David Schomburg, esq.

In 1693, 28th July, lord viscount Sydney.

In 1702, 29th June, the earl of Marlborough.
In 1711, 10th Jan. earl Rivers.
In 1712, 5th Sept. duke of Hamilton.
In 1714, 4th Oct. John duke of Marlborough.
In 1722, 30th June, William earl of Cadogan.
In 1725, 3d June, John Duke of Argyll and Greenwich.
In 1730, 10th May, John duke of Montagu.
In 1755, 10th May, Charles duke of Marlborough.
In 1757, 30th Nov. John lord viscount Ligonier.
In 1768, 30th Nov. marquis of Granby.
In 1772, 30th Nov. George lord viscount Townshend, now marquis Townshend.
In 1782, March 30th, duke of Richmond.
In 1783, April 12th, marquis of Townshend.
In 1783, Dec. 27th, duke of Richmond.
In 1795, marquis Cornwallis.
In 1801, the earl of Chatham,
Honours due to the master-general of the Ordnance. The same respect shall be paid to him from the troops, as is paid to generals of horse and foot. He is, on all occasions, to have the march beat to him; and to be saluted by all officers, the colours excepted.
Lieutenant-general of the Ordnance, is an office of great trust, honour, and dignity; is the next in command under the master-general; and always an officer of the greatest abilities. This office is not of such early date as that of the master general; for in 1597, it was first established, and has continued as follows, viz.
In 1597, Sir George Carew, knight.
In 1635, Sir William Hayden.
In 1636, 28th June, Colin Legge, esquire.
In 1670, 21st Nov. David Walter, esquire.
In 1672, 7th Dec. George Legge, esquire.
In 1681, 28th January, Sir Charles Musgrave.
In 1687, 1st August, Sir Thomas Tichbourne.
In 1688, 26th April, Sir Hugh Goodrick.
In 1702, 29th June, James Grantville, esq.
In 1703, 2d May, Thomas Earle, esquire.
In 1712, 21st June, James Hill, esq.
In 1714, 20th Sept. Thomas Earle, esquire.
In 1717, 19th March, Thomas Micklethwait, esq.
In 1718, 29d April, Sir Charles Willis.
In 1742, 22d April, Field-marshal Wade.
In 1748, 22d April, Sir John Ligonier.
In 1757, 30th Nov. lord George Sackville.
In 1759, 10th Sept. Marquis of Granby.
In 1763, May 14th, George lord viscount Townshend, now marquis Townshend.
In 1767, Oct. 24th, Right Hon. Henry Seymour Conway.
In 1772, Oct. 22d, Sir Jeffery Amherst, Knight of the Bath, late Lord Amherst.
In 1782, April 3d, Sir William, now Lord Howe.
In 1804, General Trigg.
In 1805, General Ross.
Surveyor-general of the Ordnance, is the third person who constitutes that board: it is a civil employment, of great trust, comprising the superintendence of the artillery proofs, military buildings, &c.
Surveyor, Sir Charles Frederick.
In 1782, April 23d, Hon. Thomas Pelham.
In 1783, April 23d, John Courtenay, esq.
In 1784, March 30th, Hon. James Luttrell, now Lord Carhampoton.
In 1789, April 5th, Hon. G. C. Berkeley.
In 1795, General A. Ross.
In 1804, Colonel James Hadden.
ORDINARY TIME, is the slowest time in marching that is now permitted to be used by infantry, and consists of a pace which is 30 inches from heel to heel, and of which only 75 are to be taken in a minute. ORDONNANCE, Fr. a warrant—This word is variously used among the French, viz.
ORDONNANCE, Fr. the disposition or arrangement of troops for battle.
Compagnies d'Ordonnance, Fr. particular
ticular troops or companies which were independent of any regiment, and which existed under the French monarchy. The *gendarmes du roi* formed the first troop or company of this description. The *chevaux-légers de la garde*, or the light horse of the body guard, were also of the same class.

*Homme d'Ordonnance*, Fr. an orderly man.

*Ordonnance d'une armée pour la disposer au combat*, Fr. See *Order of Battle*.

*Habit d'Ordonnance*, the regimental dress or uniform of an officer or soldier.

*Ordonnances*, Fr. Orderly men, whether on foot or horseback.

*ORDONNER*, Fr. This word not only signifies to ordain, direct, &c. but it also means to range troops in order of battle.

*ORDRE*, Fr. Parole and countersign so called.

*Aller à l'Ordre*, Fr. to go for the parole or countersign.

*Récévoir l'Ordre*, Fr. to receive or get the parole or countersign.

*Ordre que l'on donne à la tranchée*, Fr. Parole and countersign together with specific orders, which are given out every night in the trenches.

*Donner l'Ordre*, Fr. to give out the parole or countersign.

*Prendre l'Ordre*, Fr. to receive the parole or countersign.

*Envoyer l'Ordre*, Fr. to send or transmit the parole or countersign.

*Porter l'Ordre*, Fr. to carry the parole or countersign.

*Surprendre l'Ordre*, Fr. to surprize or way-lay the person who is entrusted with the parole or countersign.

*Livrer l'Ordre*, Fr. to give the parole or countersign.

*Ordre de Bataille*, Fr. See *Order of Battle*.

*Ordre Mineur*, Fr. A disposition or order of battle, in which troops make an extended line with little depth.

*Ordre profond*, Fr. A disposition or order of battle, in which troops take up a short space in extent and occupy great depth; as in column, &c.

*Ordre oblique*, Fr. A disposition in which troops are so ranged, that they can give or receive battle from one of the wings, by refusing or throwing back the other. This is most readily obtained by a movement in echelon.

*ORDRES Militaires*, Fr. military orders.

*ORDRES du Général*, Fr. general orders.

*Nouveaux Ordres*, Fr. fresh orders.

*Ordres de mouvement*, Fr. marching orders.

*ORGANIZATION of Troops*, the act of putting troops into such uniform state of discipline, as may fit them to co-operate on any service.

*ORGUES*, thick long pieces of wood, pointed and shod with iron, clear one of another, hanging perpendicularly each by a rope, over the gate of a strong place, to be dropped in case of emergency.

Their disposition is such, that they stop the passage of the gate, and are preferable to *hereses* or *porcullisises*; because these may be either broken by a petard, or stopped, by different contrivances, in their falling down. But a petard is useless against *orgues*; for if it break one or two of the pieces, others immediately fall down and fill up the vacancy.

*Orgue* (un *orgue*, Fr.), a term used to express that arrangement or disposition of a certain quantity of musquet barrels in a row, which by means of a priming train of gunpowder, may be subjected to one general explosion. This machine has been found extremely serviceable in the defence of a low flank, a tenaille, or to prevent an enemy from crossing the ditch of a fortified place.

*ORGUEIL*, Fr. in mechanics, the appui or rest round which a lever turns.

*ORIENT*, Fr. the east.

*ORIFLAMME*, Fr. the ancient banner belonging to the abbey of St. Denis, which the counts du Vexin, who possessed the perpetual advowson of the abbey, always bore in the different wars or contests that formerly prevailed between the abbot and some neighbouring lords. When the Vexin country fell into the hands of the French kings, they made the oriflamme the principal banner of their armies, in honour of St. Denis; whom they chose for the patron and tutelary saint of France.

*ORILLON*. See *Fortification*.

*ORME*, Fr. elm. This wood was considered...
sidered of so much consequence by the old French government (and perhaps is equally so by the present), that a specific order was made out in 1716, enjoining all persons letting or holding land in French Flanders, Artois, and Hainault, to plant elm trees, in order that there might be a constant supply in future of carriages and wainage for the artillery.

ORNAMENTS Military, those parts of the dress of a soldier which are more for appearance or distinction than for absolute use; as gorgets, plates for cross belts, pouch ornaments, &c.

ORTEIL. See Berm in Fortification.

ORTHOGON, any rectangular figure.

ORTHOGRAPHIE, Fr. See Orthography.

ORTHOGRAPHY, the art of drawing or sketching out a work according to its breadth, thickness, elevation, and depth.

OSIER, a young willow twig, with which hurdles are made.

OSTAGE, Fr. See Hostage.

OTTOMAN, a name generally given to the Turks, and to the Turkish empire, from Ottoman, who was one of their most celebrated emperors.

OVATION the offering of a sheep in sacrifice, instead of a bull, for some victory obtained. It was an inferior sort of triumph allowed by the Romans to the generals of their armies for lesser victories, as over slaves, &c. or when the war had not been declared pursuant to military usage. According to Kennett, in his Roman Antiquities, page 224, the word ovation is said to have derived its name from shouting ovis! to Bacchus; but the true original is ovis. The shew generally began at the Albanian mountain, whence the general, with his retinue, made his entry into the city: he went on foot with many flutes or pipes, sounding in concert as he passed along, wearing a garment of myrtle as a token of peace, with an aspect which excited love and respect rather than fear.

Gellius has observed, that this honour was conferred on the victor, when either the war had not been proclaimed in due method, or not undertaken against a lawful enemy, and on a just account; or when the enemy was but mean and in-

considerable. But Plutarch has delivered his judgment in a different manner: he believes, that heretofore the difference betwixt the ovation and the triumph was not taken from the greatness of the achievements, but from the manner of performing them; for they who, having fought a set battle, and slain a great number of the enemy, returned victors, led that martial, and, as it were, cruel procession of the triumph: but to those commanders who, without force, by benevolence and civil behaviour, had done the business, without shedding human blood, custom gave the honour of this peaceable ovation. For a pipe is the ensign or badge of peace; and myrtle, the tree of Venus, who, beyond any other deities, has an extreme aversion to violence and war. Vide Plut. in Marcell. For a full account of this ceremony, as well as of the Roman triumph, see Kennett, page 224.

OVERFLOW. See Inundation.

To OVERLAP, to overspread any preceding object. In marching by echelon, for the purpose of forming upon any given point, but particularly in wheeling from column into line, troops may lose their relative distances by not taking ground enough; when this occurs, the rear division, company, or section, unavoidably crowds upon its preceding one, and it is then said to overlap. When this happens on service, the troops, so shut out, must remain as serrefiles, or reserve, to fill up the intervals that will necessarily present themselves in action. But whether so or not, the line must, on no account, be deranged by moving it to right or left.

OVERLANDRES, Fr. small barges that ply upon the Rhine and the Meuse.

To OVER-RUN, in a military sense, to ravage, to lay waste. A country which is harrassed by incursions, is said to be over-run.

OVERSEEER, an officer in the ordnance department, who superintends the artificers in the construction of works, &c.

OVERSEEER, an officer who has the care of the parochial provision of the poor. The overseers of the poor of every parish or place, are directed, by act of parliament, to certify and return to the justices of the peace at the next Michaelmas quarter session the several quotas.
OUT

quotas that every parish or division within a city, town, or place, pays to the land tax for that year. From these several quotas a fund is annually established to defray part of the expences for raising the militia.

OVERSLAUGH, as a military phrase, which is derived from the Dutch, to skip over, will be better explained by the following table.—For instance, suppose four battalions, each consisting of eight captains, are doing duty together, and that a captain’s guard is daily mounted: if in the Buffs, the second captain is doing duty of deputy adjutant general; and the fourth and seventh captains in the king’s are acting, one as aid-de-camp, the other as brigade major; the common duty of these three captains must be overslaghed, that is skipped over, or equally divided among the other captains.

Table of Explanation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regiments</th>
<th>No. of Captains</th>
<th>Heads of each Column</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Royal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Queen’s Royal</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2 6 9 13 16 20 24 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Old Buffs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3 10 14 17 21 25 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>King’s Own</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4 7 11 18 22 29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>32</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N. B. The three blanks shew where the overslaghs take place.

OVERTHROW, total defeat, discomfiture, rout.

OUEST ou occident, Fr. one of the four cardinal points of the world, or the west.

OURAGAN, Fr. a violent tempest.

OUTBAR, to shut out by fortification.

OUT-GUARD. See OUT-POSTS.

OUTILS, Fr. tools of every description that are used by the artificers and workmen belonging to the artillery, &c. OUTILS à mineur, Fr. tools used in mining.

OUTLINE, the line by which any figure is defined.

OUTPART, at a distance from the main body. See OUT-POSTS.

OUT-POSTS, a body of men posted beyond the grand guard, called outpost, as being without the rounds or limits of the camp. See POSTS.

OUTRANCE à outrance, Fr. to the utmost; to the last extremity. Hence combat à outrance, a contest or fight which is maintained to the utmost point of exertion. The French still say, se battre à outrance, to fight to the last extremity.

OUTRE en outrre, Fr. through and through.

OUTSIDE, in fencing, that part which is to the right of the line of defence.

OUTSIDE GUARD, a guard used with the broad sword and sabre, to defend the outside of the position. See BROADSWORD.

OUTWALL. See REVETEMENT.

OUTWARD FACE, a word of command for troops to face to the right and left from their center.

To OUTWING, to extend the flanks of an army or line in action, so as to gain an advantageous position against the right or left wing of an enemy. This manoeuvre or evolution is effected by the movement on an oblique line. See MOVEMENTS.

OUT-WORKS, in fortification, are works of several kinds, which cover the body of the place, as ravelins, half-moons, tennelles, horn-works, crown-works,
works, counter-guards, envelopes, swallow-tails, lunettes, covert-ways, &c.

These outworks not only cover the place, but likewise keep an enemy at a distance, and hinder his gaining any advantage of hollow or rising grounds; as such cavities and eminences may serve for lodgments to the besiegers, facilitate the carrying on of approaches, and enable them to raise their batteries against the town. When out-works are placed one before another, you will find a ravelin before the curtain, a horn-work before the ravelin, and a small ravelin before the curtain of the horn-work; those works which are nearest to the body of the place must be the highest, though lower than the body of the place, that they may gradually command those without them, and oblige the enemy to dislodge, if in possession of them.

**OUVERT, Fr. open.**

_Pays Ouvert, Fr._ A country is so called when there are neither rivers, mountains, or forts, &c. to defend it.

_Ville OUVERTE, Fr._ a town which has no gates or fortifications, or which has had them demolished.

_Force Ouverte, Fr._ main strength, or open arms.

_Guerre Ouverte, Fr._ open war.

_OUVERTURE des portes, Fr._ the opening of the gates in a fortified town or place, according to specific military rules. The method in all regular governments is too well known to require any particular explanation.

_OUVERTURE et fermeture des portes chez les Turcs, Fr._ There are certain laws and regulations among the Turks, by which the janizaries are entrusted with the keys belonging to the gates of every fortified town or place in which they do garrison duty. The gates are always opened at day-break by two or four janizaries. There is a capiggy or porter stationed at each gate. Whenever he opens the gate, he repeats, in an audible tone of voice, certain words in the praise of God and the sultan, after which he returns the key or keys to the janizaries, who carry them to the governor or commandant of the place.—The closing of the gates is done with the same solemnity.

_OUVERTURE de la tranchée, Fr._ the opening of the trench or trenches.

_OUVRAGES, Fr._ works. See Fortification.
called the King's Own, and thereby approaching the regulars without actually being so, seem to have left their ancient comrades of the militia, without obtaining any footing in the line. Another militia regiment (which has often done duty at Windsor, and has been humbly called his majesty's yellow guards,) has also changed its facings to royal blue, with the same mark of distinction.

PAAT, Ind. A promissory note.

To PACE, as a horse does: aller à pas, Fr. There are four kinds of paces in the manege, the walk, trot, gallop, and amble. The last, more particularly, is called a pace, or easy motion, wherein the horse raises the two feet of the same side together.

PACHA. The captain pacha, among the Turks, is the chief admiral and superintendent general of the marine.—He generally commands in person. The sailors and soldiers of the military marine were formerly called Lavans or Lavantis; the soldiers are now called Galiondjas. The sailors are Turks from the maritime towns, or Greeks from the Archipelago: they are in constant pay. The soldiers, or Galiondjas, are all Mussulmen, and only receive pay when they are in actual service. We recommend to our military readers an important work, which has lately been published at Paris, and from which they will derive considerable information respecting the Turks. It is intituled, Travels in the Ottoman Empire, Egypt, and Persia, by Citizen Olivier, member of the French National Institute.

PACHOLECK. See ULAN.

PACKET-BOATS, small vessels that sail from the different sea-ports in England, and carry passengers, mails, &c. to and from our foreign possessions; and keep up a regular intercourse with foreign powers that are at peace with Great Britain.

PADDY, Ind. Rice in the husk, whether dry or green. Also a familiar term or nickname, which is given to a native of Ireland; as John Bull is applied to an Englishman, and Sawney to a Scotchman.

PADSHA, Ind. A king.

PAGEANT, in ancient military history, a triumphal car, chariot, arch, or other like pompous decoration, variously adorned with colours, flags, &c. carried about in public shows, processions, &c.

PAGES, mouses ou garçons, Fr.—Young lads of the description of English cabin boys, who learn navigation, and do the menial offices, on board a French ship.

PAGOD, Ind. A general name given by the Portuguese to the temples in the east. It also denotes a coin. See PAGODA.

PAGODA, Ind. The place of worship among the Hindoos. It is likewise the name of a gold coin of the value of eight rupees. The English and Dutch coin pagodas. There are also silver pagodas struck at Marsingua, &c. with the figure of some monstrous idol.

PAILS, made of wood, with iron hoops and handles, hold generally four gallons, and serve in the field to fetch water for the use of artillery works, &c.
PAILLASSES, Fr. straw beds, commonly called paillasses. These are furnished by the barrack department for the accommodation of British soldiers in barracks.

PAILLE, Fr. straw.

Les soldats vont à la Paille, Fr. the soldiers are going to the forage yard or depot. This term is likewise used to signify the indulgence which is occasionally granted to soldiers for exercise or necessary evacuations. Thus, when a battalion has gone through its manual, &c. the commanding officer gives the word à la paille.

Rompez la Paille avec quelqu'un, Fr. a figurative term, signifying to quarrel or pull out with any body, in an open and unreserved manner.

Paille, Fr. it likewise signifies any flaw in metals. Cette lame est fine, mais il y a quelques pailles; this blade is finely tempered, but there are some flaws in it. La lame de son épée se cassa à l'endroit où il y avait une paille. The blade of his sword broke where there was a flaw.

PAILLER, Fr. Palcurius. An ancient body of French militia. The soldiers belonging to it were probably so called either from the circumstance of their wearing straw in their helmets, in order to know one another in action, or because they were accustomed to set fire to their enemy's habitations, &c. with bundles of straw, which they always carried with them for that purpose. The inquisitive may be more fully satisfied on this subject by referring to Ducange's Dictionary.

PAIN de Munition, Fr. Ammunition bread. In the folio edition of Marshal Saxe's reveries, page 16, we find the following important observations on the subject of ammunition bread. He states that bread never should be given to soldiers on active service, but that they should be accustomed to eat biscuits, for the following reasons:—Biscuits will keep a considerable number of years, and every soldier can conveniently carry with him in his haversack a sufficient quantity for seven or eight days. Those officers who have served among the Venetians, will readily prove the justice of this remark. But there is a species of biscuit, or hard-baked bread, that never exhausts, called som-kari by the Russians) which is preferable to any thing of the kind. It is square, and about the thickness of a nut, and takes up less room than either bread or biscuits.

Purveyors, who are interested in the business, maintain a different opinion. They tell you that bread is best for troops. Every man of experience knows the contrary; for it is notorious, that contract, or ammunition bread, is not only made of unwholesome ingredients, but that it is seldom more than half baked; which, together with the water it contains, increases the weight, and consequently enhances the value. Add to this, that purveyors must unavoidably increase the expence of the army, by being obliged to employ a great number of bakers, baker's men, wagens, and horses. Independent of the expence, it is evident, that the operations of an army must unavoidably be clogged by the necessity of providing quarters for these people, of having a quantity of hand-mills, and of employing a certain number of effective men to form detachments for their security.

It is impossible to calculate the train of robberies and inconveniences which grow out of this system, and the embarrassments it occasions to a general; but above all, the diseases which bread, supplied in this manner, will always engender, and the fatigue that the troops must necessarily undergo to get their rations. Were all these mischiefs obviated, there is still another evil in reserve, which no precaution can set aside. This is the certainty that an enemy may be under, with respect to your intentions and motions, by narrowly watching the establishment and disposition of your ovens. Were I, the marshal, to adduce instances and facts to corroborate these observations, I might dwell considerably at large upon the subject. I do not hesitate to say, that much ill success, which is attributed to other causes, proceeds entirely from the provision and distribution of ammunition bread. He even goes further, for he asserts unequivocally, that soldiers ought sometimes to be enured to almost every species of privation, and instead of being provided with biscuit, occasionally to receive grain, which they must be taught to bake upon iron pallets,
pallets, after having bruised and made it into dough. Marshal Turenne has observed upon the same subject in his memoirs. Marshal Saxo, indeed, does not scruple to say, that although there might be plenty of bread, he would, in conformity to the opinion of many good officers, suffer his men to feel the want of it. I have, adds the latter, been eighteen months successively on service with troops who, during the whole of that period, never tasted bread, and yet never once complained or murmured. I have, on the contrary, been frequently with others that had never familiarized themselves to that privation, and who, on the first appearance of want, were disheartened; in consequence of which the very nerve of enterprise and hardihood was broken, and nothing great could be undertaken.

PALXI, Fr. See Peace.
PAL, Fr. See Quintaine.
PALADIN, Fr. a name given to those ancient knights who were either what the French call contes du palais, counts of the palace, or were princes lineally descended from Charlemagne, and other old kings.

PALANKEN, Ind. a vehicle borne on the shoulders of four men, by means of a bamboo pole extending from each end: it carries one person in a reclining posture: it has a canopy which is supported by a pole raised along the centre, from whence it is pendent on either side.

PALEFAGAS, Ind. See Polygars.
PALANQUE, Fr. a kind of fortification so called in Hungary. It is made of stakes driven into the ground, interlaced with twigs, and covered with earth, and serves to stop the progress of an advancing enemy.

PALÆSTRA, in Grecian antiquity, a public building, where the youth exercised themselves in the military art, wrestling, running, playing at quoits, &c.

PALAS. See Click.

PALATINATE, (palatinat, Fr.) the county or seat of a count palatine, or chief officer in the palace, or court of an emperor, or sovereign prince.

PALATINE, (polutin, Fr.) This post or dignity has various significations.—In Germany, electors, princes and counts are sometimes so called. Hence an elector palatine. In Hungary the viceroy is termed palatine; and in Poland it is usual to distinguish the governor of a town by this title. Several great noblemen and lords were likewise called palatines under the first kings of France. Some counties in England are also distinguished by this word, as county-palatine of Cheshire, &c.

PALE, Fr. the row of piles upon which a wooden bridge is constructed, is so called.

PALESTRE, Fr. a wrestling place, or exercising ground. It comes from the Latin, and was originally derived from the Greek.

PALFRY, (palfroi, Fr.) Before carriages were invented, the horses on which ladies rode for pleasure were called palfrises. The French also say, palfroi, cheval de parade.

PALIS, Fr. the rows of small pointed stakes, which serve for any species of inclosure, are so called. The term palisade is derived from it.

PALISSADER, Fr. to surround any spot with stakes or palisades.

PALISADES, or PALISADOS, in fortification, stakes made of strong split wood, about nine feet long, six or seven inches square, three feet deep in the ground, in rows about 2 1/4 or three inches asunder, placed on the covert-way, at three feet from, and parallel to, the parapet or side of the glacis, to secure it from surprise.

They are also used to fortify the avenues of open forts, gorges, half-moons, the bottoms of ditches, and, in general, all posts liable to surprise. They are usually fixed perpendicularly, though some make an angle inclining towards the ground next the enemy, that the ropes which may be cast over in order to tear them up, may slip off.

Turning Palisades, are an invention of Mr. Coehorn, in order to preserve the palisades of the parapet of the covert-way from the besiegers shot. They are so ordered, that as many of them as stand in the length of a rod, or about ten feet, turn up and down like traps, so as not to be in the sight of the enemy, till they just bring on their attack; and yet are always ready to do the proper service of palisades.

PALISADES, Fr. See Palisades.

PALISSADES de camp, Fr. several pieces
pieces of wood, so arranged and tied together, that they may with great dispatch be fixed in the ground, which is marked out for the encampment of an army.

PaliSSades ferrées, pillisades that are shod with iron. They are used in shallow streams and marshes, to prevent small craft from plying, or persons from crossing them on foot.

PALKEE, Ind. See PalaNKEEN.

PALL, a covering thrown over the dead. It is always used in military burials.

PALLAS, a name in the Heathen mythology, which is given to Minerva, who was looked upon as the goddess of war.

PALUDAMENTUM, (chlamys,) among the ancients, a garment worn in time of war, by the principal men of Rome, especially the generals, who were called for that reason paludati. The soldiers having only short coats, called a sagum, were denominated sagati.

The paludamentum was open on the sides, coming down no lower than the navel, and had short sleeves. It was either of a white, purple, or red colour, and sometimes black. Kennett, in his Roman Antiquities, page 313, says, the old paludamentum of the generals was all scarlet, only borthered with purple; and the chlamydes of the emperors were all purple, commonly beautified with a golden or embroidered border.

PAN, the side of a rectangle or irregular figure.

PAN, likewise means the distance which is comprized between the angle of the esaulc and the flanked angle in fortification. See Face of a Bastion.

PAN, a name well known among the shepherds of antiquity, and frequently used by modern writers in their rural fictions. It military history it signifies a man who was lieutenant-general to Bacchus in his Indian expedition. He is recorded to have been the first author of a general shout, which the Grecians practised in the beginning of their onset in battle. See Panic.

Pan, that part of the lock of a musquet, pistol, &c. which holds the priming powder.

PANACHE, ? Fr. a plume, or PANNACHIE, a bunch of feathers.

PANACHES flottans, Fr. nodding plumes.
men's spirits, without any just reason, were, by the Greeks and Romans, called panic terrors. (See Polyænus Stratag. book I.) The custom of shouting seems to have been used by almost all nations, barbarous as well as civil; and is mentioned by all writers who treat of martial affairs. Homer has several elegant descriptions of it, particularly one in the fourth Iliad, where he resembles the military noise to torrents rolling with impetuous force from mountains into the adjacent valleys.—We have likewise had our war-hoops.

PANIERS à mine, Fr.—See Bourrigeul.

PANIERS, Fr. baskets. Figuratively, un panier percé, a leaky vessel, or one who cannot keep a secret. A dangerous man in society; and in military concerns, one who ought to be particularly guarded against where discretion and confidence are necessary.

PANNE, Fr. literally means shag, plush, &c. and is properly a sea term, signifying to tie to, mettre en panne. It is likewise used in a military sense, to express the steady posture of troops who are drawn up for battle, and wait an enemy's attack. La troupe est restée en panne. The squadron remained immovable.

PANNEAU, Fr. Trap, snare. Donner dans le panneau, Fr. to be ensnared, entrapped, or outwitted.

PANNELS, in artillery, are the carriages which carry mortars and their beds upon a march.

PANNONCEAU, Fr. an ancient term, which was used to signify ensign or banner.

PANOPLY, complete armour or harness.

PANSEMENT, Fr. the dressing of wounds.

PANSER, Fr. to dress a wound.

PANSE, Fr. in farriery, signifies to rub down, and otherwise to take care of a horse.

PANTHEON, in architecture, a temple of a circular form, dedicated to all the gods. The name has been adopted among modern nations from the pantheon of ancient Rome, built by Agrippa in his third consulate, and dedicated to Jupiter Ultor, or Jupiter the Avenger. There is a chapel in the escurial in Spain, called pantheon, of marble and jasper inlaid: the whole inside is of black marble, excepting the lutherum, and some ornaments of jasper and red marble. The pantheon at Paris, during the progress of the French revolution, has been appropriated to national purposes; the names and busts of the most distinguished statesmen and generals being preserved therein as marks of public gratitude, and objects of public emulation. There is a building in London that bears the name of pantheon, but that is all. It is private property, and the only public use to which it has been appropriated, has been that of operatic speculation, masquerades, or frivolous entertainments.

PANTOGRAPE, Fr. a mathematical instrument, which serves to copy all sorts of drawings. The French have paid great attention to the improvement of this instrument, of which a minute description may be found in Cours de Mathématiques, by Père Deschâlles. But the Sieur Panglois brought it to such perfection in 1750, that it is become universally useful.

PANTOMÈTER, (pantomètre, Fr.) an instrument used to take all sorts of angles, distances and elevations. It was invented by the ancients, but has been greatly improved since.

PAPIER de cartouche, Fr. paper used for cartridges.

PAPIER gris, ou PAPIER brouillard, Fr. whitened-brown paper.

PAPIERS et enseignemens, Fr. All the papers and manuscripts which are found on board a ship are so called.

Paquebot, Fr. a modern French term, derived from packet-boat, which see.

Parabol, in geometry, a figure arising from the section of the cone, when cut by a plane parallel to one of its sides.

From the same points of a cone, therefore, only one parabola can be drawn; all the other sections within these parallels being ellipses, and all without hyperbolas.

Properties of the Parabola. The square of an ordinate is equal to the rectangle of the abscissa, and four times the distance of the focus from the vertex.

The perpendicular on the tangent, from the focus, is a mean proportional between
between the distance from the vertex to the focus, and the distance of the focus from the point of contact.

All lines within the parabola, which are drawn parallel to the axis, are called diameters.

The parameter of any diameter is a right line, of such a nature that the product under the same, and the abscissa, are equal to the square of the semi ordinate.

The squares of all ordinates to the same diameter, are to one another as their abscissas.

Cartesian Parabola, is a curve of the second order, expressed by the equation $xy = ax^2 + bx + cx + d.$ containing four infinite legs, being the 66th species of lines of the third order, according to Sir Isaac Newton; and is made use of by Descartes, in the third book of his geometry, for finding the roots of equations of six dimensions by its intersections with a circle.

Diverging Parabola, a name given by Sir Isaac Newton to five different lines of the third order, expressed by the equation $y = ax^2 + bx + cx + d.$

PARABOLE, Fr. See PARABOLA.

PARABOLOIDE, Fr. See PARABOLIC CONOID.

PARADE, originally consisted of a square court before cathedrals, surrounded with piazzas or porticoes for persons to walk under, being supported with pillars. It is now used, in a military sense, to signify any place where troops assemble, and may be distinguished in the following manner:

General Parade, the place where soldiers belonging to different corps are drawn up, according to seniority, to mount guard, or to be exercised, &c.

Regimental Parade, the place where any particular regiment or corps is formed in line, &c.

Private Parade, any spot selected, in general by each captain of a troop or company, for the inspection of his men, previous to their being marched off to the regimental parade. This parade is likewise called company or troop parade. When troops are encamped, the general and regimental parades are usually in front of the line of tents; each regiment having its quarter-guard opposite, and the space between being sufficient to allow of the free exercise of the battalion. The companies have their private parades in the several streets of the camp.

Parade, in camp, is that spot of ground in the front of each encampment, between the camp colours, on the right and left wings, from which a straight line or narrow trench ought to be drawn, called by the French bande linéaire, and which may be made to answer two purposes, viz. that of keeping the parade free, and of carrying off rain, &c. &c.

Morning Parade. In every garrison town, fortified place and camp, as well as in every town through which soldiers pass, or occasionally halt, a certain hour in the morning is fixed for the assembling of the different corps, troops, or companies, in regular order.

Evening Parade. The hour generally fixed for the evening parade is at sunset. When troops are encamped, the signal for evening parade is given from the park of artillery, by the discharge of a piece of ordnance, which is called the evening gun.

To Parade, to assemble in a prescribed regular manner, for the purposes of being inspected, exercised, or mustered.

To Parade. This word is frequently used as an active verb, with respect to military matters, viz. to parade the guard, &c. It has likewise been adopted in the united kingdom to express the act of calling out a person in an affair of honour. The Irish familiarly say—I shall parade the gentleman to-morrow morning in the Phoenix Park.

We sincerely wish the practice could in some instances be reduced to a mere parade; and, in others, that it were rendered sufficiently serious to check its frequency.

Parade, Fr. The French make use of this term in various ways.

Parade, Fr. show, ostentation.

Lit de l'Parade, Fr. bed of state.

Cheval de Parade, Fr. a horse finely caparisoned, and kept for show.

Parade, Fr. in fencing, the act of parrying a thrust or blow.

Parade, Fr. the place or ground where soldiers parade.

Se mettre en Parade, Fr. to take one's ground.

Faire la Parade, Fr. to do parade duty.

Muster
Monte la Parade, Fr. to take part in the regular line of parade.

Manquer sa Parade, Fr. in fencing, to miss one's parry.

Etre hors de Parade, Fr. to parry wide, or stand exposed.

Paradis, Fr. that part of a harbour in which vessels may ride with the greatest safety.

PARALLELES, Fr. Parallel lines in fortification are so called.—See Parallels.

PARALLELS, at a siege, the trenches or lines made parallel to the defence of the place besieged: they are also called lines of communication, and boyaus. Parallels, or places of arms, are deep trenches 15 or 18 feet wide, joining the several attacks together. They serve to place the guard of the trenches in readiness to support the workmen when attacked. There are usually three in an attack; the first, about 500 toises or 600 yards, from the covert-way; the 2d and 3d, nearer to the glacis.

PARALLELOPEPID, (Parallélopidé, Fr.) one of the regular bodies of solids, comprehended under six rectangular and parallel surfaces, the opposite ones whereof are equal.

Tirer une PARALLELE, Fr. verbatim, to draw a parallel. To make a direct communication between one trench and another.

PARALLELISM, (parallélisme, Fr.) the situation or quality whereby any thing is denominated parallel.

PARALLELISM of a march. In order to preserve the parallelism of a march in the movement of troops, each battalion must be kept perpendicular to the direction it marches upon, the whole of the several battalions in one straight line, and their several marching directions parallel to each other. The first battalion or line becomes the regulating one, and must be regarded as infallible; and from the moment that its direction is ascertained, the commander of each other, and their directing serjeants, are to consider their movements subordinate to it, and to conform accordingly. It is the helm which guides the line, and must not change censure; nor will it lengthen or shorten its step, but from unavoidable necessity, and by particular order.

The instant communication of the word march is particularly important, that the advanced serjeants of the whole may step off together, and thereby maintain their line parallel to the one they quitted, and which becomes the principal guide for their battalions; each preserves its six paces from its advanced serjeant; this distance is to be kept by, and depends on, the replacing officer next to the colour, who covers the directing serjeant; and if these trained serjeants do step equally, and in parallel directions to each other, they must be dressed themselves in line, and of consequence the centers of their following battalions. See page 337, &c. of Rules and Regulations.

PARALLELISM and distance to be observed in the formation and movement of any considerable body of troops. In page 361 of Rules and Regulations, it is laid down as a general maxim, that no considerable body should ever be formed without a proportion of it being placed in reserve or in second line, and more or less according to circumstances. The movements of such second line will always correspond with those of the first, and it will always preserve its parallelism and distance.

If the first line makes a flank or central change of position, the second must make a change also on such point as will bring it into its relative situation.

The march of the second line in front, is regulated by its own division or battalion of direction, which moves relatively to that of the first line. In forming: in line it will march upon its own points which are parallel to, and ascertained in consequence of those of the first.

When the lines break in columns to the front, the second will generally follow those of the first. When the march is to the flanks, the second line will compose a separate column, or columns. When the march is to the rear, the second line will lead in columns.

The distance betwixt the lines, may be in general supposed equal to the front of two battalions, and an interval.

The second lines are seldom composed of as many battalions as the first: they are often divided into distinct bodies, covering separate parts of the first line, and consequently preserving a relative parallelism and distance.

Second lines will not always remain extended,
extended, they will often be formed in column of battalions, or of greater numbers, ready to be moved to any point where their assistance is necessary.

Whenever the first line breaks, and manoeuvres by its right to face to the left, or by its left to face to the right; the movements of the second line are free and unembarrassed, and it may turn round the manoeuvring flank of the first line, and take its new position behind it, by extending itself parallel to that direction, how oblique soever it may be.

The central movement generally required from the second line to conform to that of the first, is equivalent to that line marching in two columns of Platoons, from near the center obliquely to the front, and from that situation forming to both flanks.

The movements of the central columns being well understood, those of the battalions of the wings, are similar in two lines.

The officer commanding the second line, must always be properly informed of the nature of the change to be made by the first, that he may readily determine his corresponding movements.

It requires much attention to conduct heads of battalion columns of both lines nearly parallel to their lateral ones, and perpendicularly, or diagonally to front or rear, according to the nature of the movement. To determine with precision, and in due time, their points in the new line, that wavering and uncertainty of march may be avoided. In great movements to allow the soldier every facility of motion without increasing the distances of divisions, and to require the most exact attention on entering the new line, and in forming. To avoid obstacles in the course of marching, but as soon as possible to re-enter the proper path of the column; while out of that path, the colours of that battalion column may be lowered, (as a mark for the neighbouring column, not to be then entirely regulated by it) and again advanced when it regains its proper situation.

All the battalions of a second line, must at the completion of every change of position, find themselves placed in the same relative situation with respect to the first, as they were in before the commencement of the movement.

All changes of position of a first line are made according to one of the modes already prescribed: in general, in critical situations, they are made on a fixed flank, or central point, and by the echelon march of Platoons; but the movements of a second line being protected, more complicated, and embracing more ground, are made by the march of battalion columns regulated by a certain determined division of the line.

In all cases where a change of position is made on a flank or central point of the first line, the movement of its corresponding point of the second line determines the new relative situation of that second line.

Movements Parallel with a line of fire. Movements are said to be parallel with a line of fire, when one or more lines march either in the rear of troops engaged with an enemy, or in face of an enemy, who is advancing to attack. The greatest accuracy and order are required on both occasions, particularly on the latter; for if the second line, which is the line of support, does not preserve its perpendicular direction with respect to every leading point, and its relative parallelism and distance with the line engaged, according to circumstances, it will not only run the risk of becoming useless itself, but will, in all probability, endanger the line it covers, should any sudden necessity occur for a change of position.

PARALLELOGRAM, (Parallélégramme, Fr.) a plain figure bounded by four right lines, whereof the opposite are parallel one to the other. It likewise means an instrument composed of five rulers of brass or wood, with sliding sockets, to be set to any proportion, for the enlarging or diminishing any map or draught.

PARALYSER, Fr. to paralyse; a term frequently used by the French since the revolution, to express the bad effects of a factious spirit, &c. Un seul factieux quelqu'epars paralyse toute une administration; one factious man will sometimes render the designs of a whole administration abortive.

PARAMETER. See Gunnery and Projectiles.

PARAPET, in fortification, an elevation of earth, designed for covering the soldiers from the enemy's cannon,
or small shot; its thickness is from 18 to 20 feet; its height 6 on the inside, and 4 or 5 on that side next the country: it is raised on the rampart, and has a slope called the superior talus, or glacis of the parapets, on which the troops lay their arms to fire over. The slope renders it easy for the soldiers to fire into the ditch. It has a banquet or two on the inside for the troops who defend it, to mount upon, in order to discover the country, the ditch, and counter-scarp, and to fire as they find occasion.

Parapet of the covert-way, is what covers that way from the sight of the enemy; which renders it the most dangerous place for the besiegers, because of the neighbourhood of the faces, flanks, and curtains of the place.

Parapets en forme de crêtesmaille, Fr. Parapets which are so constructed within, in the form of a saw, that one of the faces of the redans, or teeth, is perpendicular and the other parallel to the capital. The chevalier Clairac, in his Ingénieur de Campagne, has given a particular account of these parapets: but the merit of invention does not entirely rest with him, since the Marquis de la Fond, director of the fortified places upon the coast of French Flanders, and M. de Verville, chief engineer at Rocolo, have likewise mentioned them.

Parasang, (Parasange, Fr.) an ancient Persian measure, containing usually thirty, sometimes forty, and sometimes fifty stadia or furlongs.

Parc, Fr. See Park.

Parc d'artillerie, Fr. See Park of Artillery.

Le Commissaire du Parc, Fr. the commissary belonging to the park.

Le Parc des munitions et des vivres, Fr. the park of stores and provisions.

Parc de l'Hôpital. See Hospital.

Parc des vivres ou quartier des vivres, Fr. park of provisions.

Parcourir, Fr. in a military sense, to run over the ground during an action. This word is particularly applicable to those movements which are made by general officers, officers commanding brigades, &c. for the purpose of encouraging their soldiers in the heat of an engagement.

Parcourir de rang en rang, Fr. to run up and down the ranks, or from rank to rank.

Pardon, forgiveness, remission. In military matters this word must be understood in two senses, viz. in a limited one, when it affects a culprit who has been sentenced by a general court-martial, to receive bodily punishment; and in a more extensive one, when the punishment is the consequence of a regimental decision. In the former case, the king only, through the commander in chief, can pardon or remit the punishment; in the latter, the colonel, or commanding officer, has a discretionary power.

Parer, Fr. to parry.

Parer, Fr. This word has various significations in the French language. Those which more immediately belong to military matters are—

Parer à toutes feintes, Fr. to parry to all feints.

Parer un coup, Fr. to ward off a blow; also to parry in fencing, as parer une botte, parer une estocade, to parry a thrust; parer et porter en meme temps, to parry and thrust at the same time: it also means to weather; as parer le Cap, to weather or double the Cape.

Parish, according to Johnson, the particular charge of a secular priest. Our realm was first divided into parishes by Honorius, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 636. The several parishes are obliged to furnish a certain number of men for the militia, &c.

Parish-business. Although this phrase is generally understood to mean every species of conversation which may relate to military matters, and is consequently discountenanced at regimental messes, we are nevertheless of opinion, that, in strictness, it ought only to comprehend the details of any particular regiment. It must be obvious to every thinking man, that however ill-placed a discussion of the private concerns of a regiment at table may be, especially in the presence of strangers, a total exclusion of military subjects is equally to be condemned; for on what topics can officers converse with more satisfaction at a military mess, than on those which relate to the higher branches of their profession? We must, nevertheless, acknowledge, with the Latin author—Est modus in rebus, sunt certi denique fines.

Park of artillery, should always be
be placed, if possible, within a short distance of water carriage; and have the most ready communication with every part of the line of the army. Its form must depend on its situation. Ten feet are usually allowed in front for one carriage and its interval, and near 50 feet from the hind wheels of the front row to the fore wheels of the second; this interval should allow sufficient room for putting the horses to the carriages, and for a free passage along the line. In parks not on immediate service, it is customary to arrange the guns with their muzzles to the front; but where the guns are likely to be wanted at a short notice, appearances must not be studied, and the gun-carriages must be parked with their shafts to the front, ready to receive horses to them. A quarter guard is placed in front of the park, and the non-commissioned officers and gunners' tents on the flanks, at about 20 paces distance; and 40 paces to the rear the subaltern officers; at 10 more to the rear the captains, and 10 more the commanding officer. The mess tent is 15 in the rear of the officers. At a convenient distance, in the rear of the whole, are the horses, picketed in one or more lines, with the drivers on their flanks. The horses are sometimes picketed in lines perpendicular to the front, and on the flanks of the carriages, between the men and the carriages.—Bombardier.

Park of provisions, a place in a camp, on the rear of every regiment, which is taken up by the sutlers, who follow the army with all sorts of provisions, and sell them to the soldiers.

Parlementer, Fr. to parley. The French familiarly say, Ville qui parlemente est à demi rendue; a town whose governor parleys may be said to be half given up.

Parley, oral treaty, talk, conference; discussion by word of mouth.

To parley, in military matters, to enter into conference with your enemy. This is done by means of a flag of truce. See truce.

To beat a parley, is to give a signal for holding such a conference, by beat of drum, or sound of trumpet.—See chamade.

Paroi, Fr. a machine made in the shape of a table, which is nailed upon planks four inches thick and ten feet long, to six feet in breadth, with its side or edge, six inches thick, towards the country, into which are driven, horizontally, long stakes with sharp points. This machine is used in sieges, being placed upon rollers so as to have it run up and fixed upon the parapet, for the purpose of resisting a scaling party.

Parole, in a military sense, the promise made by a prisoner of war, when he has leave to go anywhere, of returning at a time appointed, or not to take up arms, if not exchanged.

Parole. An apology almost appears to be necessary for giving an article under this head in an English Dictionary, addressed to English officers; for it is impossible that any individual of so respectable a profession could throw such a stain upon himself, his country, and his service, as to forfeit his parole or word of honour, after it has once been given. Surely it must be inscribed in all their hearts, that the word and honour of an officer are sacred, and that once pledged they cannot be recalled. Governments are concerned in inculcating these principles, because they tend to soften the horrors of war, and to fortify that sense of rectitude and truth, which, though it is the duty of the man, is still the fringe and ornament of the real soldier's character. A breach of parole in European armies, amongst civilized nations, has always been held to be infamous. A person who has once been guilty of it, has no right to be treated as an officer, or to expect quarter, should he again fall into the hands of the enemy.

Parole, means also a word given out every day in orders by the commanding officer, both in camp and garrison, in order to know friends from enemies.

Parquer, Fr. this word, which signifies to lodge and place any thing in a convenient and safe manner, is frequently used by the French both in an active and passive sense. Perhaps it may not be improper, at least in military matters, to adopt it with the same latitude amongst us, viz.

On parquera l'artillerie, ou l'artillerie fut parquée en tel endroit, Fr. you will
will park the artillery in such a quarter, or the artillery was parked in such a quarter.

Les gens de l'artillerie se parquèrent, ou furent parqués, du côté de la rivière, Fr. the train of artillery parked itself on the banks of the river, or was parked upon the banks of the river.

L'artillerie parquoit en tel lieu, Fr. The artillery parked on such ground.

PARRAIN, Fr. means, literally, a godfather. In a military sense, it formerly signified a second or witness who attended at single combats to see fair play. Les combattans se trouvèrent dans le lieu du combat, chacun avec son parrain; the combatants met upon the ground, each attended by his second or witness.

PARRAIN, Fr. in military orders, the person who introduces, or presents a newly elected knight. The term is also used to signify the comrade who is selected by a soldier condemned to be shot, to bind the handkerchief over his eyes.

PARRYING, the action of warding off the push or blow aimed at one by another.

PART, Fr. a part; share; concern.

Êtré à la Part, Fr. a marine term among the French, signifying, to share in the prizes which are made against an enemy.

PARTHENIE, a word derived from the Greek, signifying virginity. In military history it refers to a particular circumstance which occurred among the ancients. The Spartans having been at war with the Messenians for twenty years, and having by those means very much depopulated their country, and apprehending that if this war continued, it might eventually strip Sparta of all its male inhabitants, they sent some of their young men from the army into the city, with licence to be familiar with as many unmarried women as they would; and the children begotten by them in this manner were called Parthenes, on account of the uncertainty who were their fathers. At the end of the war, these children were deemed bastards, and were denied the bearing of any office in the government, &c. This unjust exclusion enraged them so much, that they conspired with the slaves to destroy all the nobility; but on the discovery of their plot, they were driven out of the city. After

which, being headed by Plinantus, a bold and enterprising son of chance, they travelled into Magna Gracia in Italy, and built Tarentum. Bailey.

PARTI, Fr. A particular detachment or body of troops, horse or foot, which is destined for some specific expedition. Hence partisan. See Party.

PARTI-Bleu, Fr. any party of armed men who infest a country, and have no regular permission to act offensively.

Prendre le PARTI, Fr. to take a part.

Prendre son PARTI, Fr. to come to a determination.

Prendre son PARTI dans les troupes, Fr. to list in a regiment.

Tirer PARTI, Fr. to take advantage.

Ne point prendre de PARTI, Fr. to remain neuter, or not to take any part.

Esprit de PARTI, Fr. party spirit.

Se déclarer d'un PARTI, Fr. openly to avow some particular party. The French say, figuratively, Il faut être toujours du parti de la vérité; we should always side with truth.

Parti likewise signifies profession or employment, viz. Le parti de l'épée, le parti des armes; the military profession.

Prendre PARTI dans l'épée, Fr. to embrace a military life.

PARTIALITY, unequal state of the judgment, and favour of one above the other, without just reason. If any member of a general court martial expresses a previous judgment, in partiality either to the prisoner or prosecutor, before he is sworn, it is to be deemed a good cause of challenge; and he should not be allowed to sit in judgment on the case.

PARTIE SECRETE, Fr. a secret and confidential service which is entrusted to one or more individuals.

PARTISAN, has been applied to a halberd or pike, and to a marshal's staff. See Baton.

PARTISAN, in the art of war, a person dexterous in commanding a party; who, knowing the country well, is employed in getting intelligence, or surprising the enemy's convoy, &c. The word also means an officer sent out upon a party, with the command of a body of light troops, generally under the appellation of the partisan's corps. It is necessary that this corps should be composed of infantry, light horse, and hussars.

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PARTY,
PARTY, in a military sense, a small number or detachment of men, horse, or foot, sent upon any kind of duty; as into an enemy's country, to pillage, to take prisoners, and oblige the country to come under contribution. Parties are often sent out to view the roads and ways, get intelligence, seek forage, reconnoitre, or amuse the enemy upon a march; they are also frequently sent upon the flanks of an army, or regiment, to discover the enemy, if near, and prevent surprise or ambuscade.

Parties escorting deserters are to receive the following allowances, being the same as have been granted to those of other forces, in consideration of the unavoidable extraordinary wear of their clothing and necessaries on that duty, viz.

**Distances from quarters.**

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<tr>
<td>Between 8 and 20 miles</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>100</td>
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<td>150</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 200</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
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In the like proportion, allowances are to be made for parties of four, five, and six men, but no higher. This is however to be understood as a regulation of allowance merely, it not being the intention of government thereby to restrain any commanding officer from employing larger parties on the escort duty, if he should think proper, but that whatever may be the actual number of the parties, the allowances are to be in the proportion of

Three men for 1/3 from 5 to 8 deserters.

Four  -  -  -  from 9 to 12.

Five  -  -  -  from 13 to 16.

Six  -  -  -  from 16 to 20.

Exact returns of the said duty, as performed by each corps, are to be made up, agreeably to the form hereunto annexed, as soon as may be after every 24th of June and 24th of December, for the half years immediately preceding, and are to be transmitted to the office of the secretary at war, in order that the allowances thereon may be settled and directed.

Watering Party. See Watering.

Firing Party, those who are selected to fire over the grave of any one interred with military honours, if below the rank of brigadier general; for the specific number of which the party is to consist, &c. see Burials.

Working Parties. These consist of small detachments of men under the immediate command and superintendence of officers who are employed on fatigue which are not purely of a military nature. They are generally called fatigue duties, being different from those of parade, or of exercise in the field. They principally consist in digging canals, repairing roads, working on fortifications, except such as may be constructed in the field, or upon actual service. An addition is made to their pay, as a reward for their labour, and a compensation for their extraordinary wear of necessaries; half of which should always be paid into the hands of the captains, and commanding officers of companies, for this latter purpose. It has been judiciously observed in a note to the treatise on Military Finance, that British troops might in time of peace, be employed much oftener than they are on works of this nature, with equal advantage to the public and to themselves. This remark becomes more forcibly apposite since the adoption of canals through the country.

PAS, Fr. pace; a measure in fortification. The French divide their pas, or pace, into two kinds—pas commun, or ordinary pace, and pas géométrique, or geometrical pace. The ordinary pace consists of two feet and a half; and the geometrical pace contains double that extent, being five royal feet, or five pieds du roi. The itineraire distance which the Italians call a mile, consists of one thousand geometrical paces; and three miles make a French league.

PAS oblique, Fr. oblique step.

PAS ordinaire, Fr. ordinary time.

PAS ordinaire droit, Fr. front step in ordinary time.

PAS précipité, Fr. double quick time.

PAS de charge, Fr. charging time.

PAS cadencé, Fr. cadenced step.

PAS de course, Fr. the quickest step that is taken in military movements; as in charging havonets, &c.

PAS intermédiaire, Fr. in cavalry movements, an easy trot; corresponding with the ordinary step in infantry manoeuvres.

Dogs.
Doubler le Pass, Fr. to double your step or pace; to go faster.

Forcer le Pass, Fr. to make a forced march.

Pass longé, Fr. a lengthened step.

A longer le Pass, Fr. to step out.

Diminuer le Pass, Fr. to step short.

Hâter le Pass, Fr. to slacken your pace; to go slower.

Marcher à grands Pass, Fr. to move rapidly.

Marcher à petits Pass, Fr. to step short, or move leisurely.

Returner sur ses Pass, Fr. to go back.

Avoir le Pass, Fr. to have the precedence.

Pass de souris, Fr. degrees or steps which are made in different parts of the circumference of the counterscarp.—They serve to keep up a communication between works when the ditch is dry, and are generally made in the reentrant angles of the counterscarp, and in the reentrant angles of the outworks. There are likewise steps or degrees of this sort at some distance from the glacis.

Pass, Fr. any strait or channel of water between two separate lands.

Pass de Calais, Fr. the straits between Calais and Dover.

Pass likewise signifies any narrow pass. Le pass des Thermopyles; the straits of Thermopylae.

Defendre le Pass, Fr. to defend the pass or strait.

Francher le Pass, Fr. to determine upon a thing after some hesitation.

Pass d’une, Fr. a sword-guard which covers the whole hand, or basket hilt. Une garde à pas d’une, Pas d’une likewise means a curb or snaffle.

PASHA, (Pacha, Fr.) This word ought to be written and pronounced Bashaw (Bacha, Fr.) It is a title or mark of distinction which is annexed to the situation of grand vizier in the Ottoman empire. There are bashaws of a subordinate class, who are governors of provinces, and who formerly assumed the title of king; being nevertheless tributary to the grand sultan. There are likewise degrees of distinction among these subordinate bashaws.

Pass, in a military sense, a strait, difficult, and narrow passage, which shuts up the entrance into a country.

Pass, a voucher for the absence of a non-commissioned officer or soldier, in the following form:

By———commanding the Fourth or the King’s own Infantry, whereof———is colonel.

Permit the bearer hereof——in company of the abovementioned regiment, to pass from hence to——— and to return to quarters at or before———o’clock.

Given under my hand at———this——day of———

To all whom it may concern.

Pass, Passado, in fencing, a push or thrust upon your adversary.

Pass (Passade, Fr.), in fencing, a leap or advance upon the enemy.

To Pass, to march by open order of columns, for the purpose of saluting a reviewing general. Each division or company (on its march) will open its ranks at 50 paces distance from the general, and again close them, after it has passed 50 paces. The whole march in ordinary time, till the leading division arrives at the spot where the left of the battalion originally stood. The commanding officer then limits the regiment, the music ceases to play, and the different divisions with supported arms march in quick time until they have completed the third wheel from the ground of original formation; when arms are ordered to be carried, the music plays, and as each division completes the third wheel, the officers shift to the right, and the whole pass the general.

Pass of arms, in ancient chivalry, a bridge, road, &c. which the knights undertook to defend, and which was not to be passed without fighting the person who kept it. He, who was disposed to dispute the pass, touched one of the armories of the other knight who held the pass, that were hung on pales, columns, &c. erected for the purpose; and this was a challenge which the other was obliged to accept. The vanquished gave the conqueror such prize as was agreed on.

Pass-parole, a command or word which is given out at the head of an army, and from thence passed from mouth to mouth, till it reach the rear.

Pass-port, a letter of licence which is given by a prince or governor, granting safe conduct to travel, enter, and...
go out of his territories without molestation: this is properly given to friends and neutral persons; and the safe conduct to enemies.

Pass, All's Well, a term used by a British sentry after he has challenged a person that comes near his post, and has received from him the proper parole, watchword or countersign. See ROUNDS.

Passade, Fr. See Pass.

Passade, in the monige, is a horse's walking or trotting in such a manner, that he raises the outward hind leg and the inward fore leg together; and, setting these two on the ground, raises the other two alternately; never gaining above a foot of ground at a time.

Demander la Passade, Fr. This term is used among the French to express the act of soliciting charity out of the usual way of persons begging, or who have not been accustomed to ask alms. Donner la passade à un pauvre soldat; to give alms to a poor soldier. Il y avait sur le chemin beaucoup de soldats qui demandaient la passade; there were many soldiers on the road who asked charity.

Passage, (passage, Fr.) This word, as to its general import, does not require explanation. It is familiar to every body. In a military sense it may be variously understood for passages made over rivers or through defiles, which should always be secured when an army is on its march. Dragoons or light cavalry are generally employed upon this service, being by the celerity of their motions, better calculated to get the start of an enemy. Passes through mountainous countries, and passages over rivers, may likewise be secured by means of light field pieces and flying artillery. The latter are particularly calculated for defiles. Entrenching tools, &c. must be carried with them.

If it be found expedient to cross a river, a sufficient number of pontoons, must accompany the detachment. Should the river be fordable, and a body of infantry have been brought up in time to act with the cavalry, the former must instantly make good its footing on the opposite side, carrying intrenching tools, &c. for the purpose of fortifying the tête du pont, and thereby securing the passage of the river. Rivers are crossed either by surprize, or by main force.

When the passage is to be effected by surprize, such movements and feints must be resorted to, as may induce the enemy to direct his means of opposition to a distant quarter from the one you have in contemplation. Every precaution must be taken to prevent him from getting the least intelligence respecting your boats or pontoons; and on this account you must frequently countermarch different bodies of troops to divert his attention. When the passage is to be effected by main force, you must take such a position as will enable you to command the one occupied by the enemy, and you must select that part of the river where there are small islands or creeks, under cover of which the boats and barges may ply.

Those spots upon the banks of a river are best calculated for this enterprise, where the stream forms a re-entrant angle; because it is more easy, in cases of that sort, to plant your batteries in such a manner as to afford a cross fire against the opposite bank. The instant you have dislodged the enemy, by means of a superior force of artillery (which you must always provide for the purpose in question) a strong detachment composed of grenadiers, and other chosen troops, must cross in boats or barges, in order to stand the first shock of the enemy, under a well supported fire of artillery.

When this detachment has made good its footing, the boats or barges must instantly row back for fresh troops whilst the pioneers, artificers, and workmen, who accompanied the grenadiers, throw up temporary redoubts, and are protected by the fire of the troops that have landed. As soon as the works are sufficiently advanced, and an adequate number of men has been distributed in them to secure the post, the bridge must be undertaken. Its head or tête must be made as strong as possible, to keep the enemy in check, should he return and endeavour to dislodge the advanced guard.

The main body must be put in motion shortly after the departure of the first detachment, in order to support the latter, should the enemy succeed in making a bold push to defeat it, and thereby prevent the numberless disadvantages which must ensue, if the army were
were permitted to cross the river, or to pass the defile without opposition.

When the passage of a large river can be happily effected by means of a bridge, considerable advantages may be derived from it; most especially when the army is thereby enabled to reach a defile or pass, the possession of which enables a general to distribute his troops in desultory quarters. Marshal Turenne, in his famous passage over the Wesel in 1672, has afforded us a strong instance of this advantage. Marshal Saxe has written largely upon this important operation; and every general officer ought to be thoroughly versed in the ways and means of executing it under all the varying circumstances that occur in the locality of ground, the peculiar nature of rivers, and the possible resources of an enemy, that is determined to dispute his passage.

Soldiers should be frequently practiced in the different evolutions which are required to pass a bridge in a safe and military manner. Bridges, defiles, &c. being obstacles that retard the movements of an army, whose object is to advance, we refer our readers for a full elucidation of the subject, to the extracts that have been made from the Rules and Regulations under the article Obstacle.

Passage, Fr. a term which relates to the reception of a knight, in the Order of Malta.

Passage of bridges or defiles when a battalion or line stands on narrow ground.

A battalion, standing in narrow ground, may sometimes be ordered to march in file for the purpose of forming open column, and passing a defile, either before or behind that flank, before or behind the other flank, or before or behind any central point of that line.

According to Regulations, Sect. 96.

1. If before the right flank — The right platoon will move on, the rest of the battalion will face to the right, and march in file, the divisions will successively front and follow the leading one, and each other.

2. If behind the right flank — The whole division on the right and march instantly counter marches to the rear, fronts, and moves forward, followed in the same manner by every other division, till the whole is in column.

Different from the Regulations.

We humbly conceive the following method of passing in open column, would save a great deal of time which is unnecessarily lost by countermarching each division separately, as they successively arrive on the ground where the right division stood before it marched off to the rear.

1st. Countermarch the whole of the divisions at the same time, and on the same ground which they severally occupy in the line.

2d. Face the whole (except the right division) to the left, which moves forward on the word march from the chief. The divisions as they successively arrive on the ground from which the first division marched, will hult, and from, follow the leading one and each other, till the whole are in column.

According to Regulations.

3. If before any central point, or the left flank — The battalion makes a successive countermarch from the right flank towards the left, and when the right division arrives at the point from whence it is to advance, it again countermarches to its right, a space equal to its front, then faces and moves on, and is thus successively followed by part of the battalion. The other part of the battalion beyond the point of advancing, faces inwards, when necessary, makes a progressive march in file, then fronts, and follows by divisions as it comes to the turn of each, till the whole are in column.

Different from the Regulations.

Instead of passing according to the above method, much time may be gained, by the divisions on the right of the defile facing to the left, (commencing with the right division) march in file till opposite, and in full face of the division which is opposite the defile, or where the column is to advance from, then front, march forward, followed by the other divisions; the divisions on the left of the defile will face inwards, and when necessary, make a progressive march in file, followed as before, till the whole are in column.

According to the Regulations.

4. If behind the center or left flank. The right part of the battalion counter-
marches from the right by files successively by the rear; and the other part of the battalion, as is necessary, makes a progressive march by files from its right to the central point, and there begins to countermarch; at that point the leading, and each other division, fronts into column, and moves on.

Different from the Regulations.

To avoid loss of time in countermarching the divisions on the left as they successively arrive at the point they march from. You must countermarch those divisions first on the ground they severally stand on, then face to the left; and when it comes to their turn march in file, front, and follow in column, as they progressively and successively arrive opposite the point where the right division entered the defile.

It must be observed, that in all countermarches of divisions on the ground they severally stand on, when passing to the rear, the division which stands opposite the point from which they are to march, must countermarch at the same time with the other divisions.

PASSAGE of lines. In narrow grounds, where there are redoubled lines, and in many other situations, it becomes necessary for one battalion to pass directly through another, in marching either to front or rear. This must particularly happen, when a first line, which has suffered in action, retires through, and makes place for a second line which has come forward to support it; or, the second line remaining posted, when the first falls back, and retires through it, and thus alternately till a safe position is attained. For the manner in which the passage of lines is effected according to system, see Rules and Regulations, page 357, Part IV.

PASSAGE of the traverse, an opening out in the parapet of the covert-way, close to the traverses, that there may be a ready communication with all parts of the covert-way.

PASSAGE, in the manège, an action wherein the horse raises a hind and a fore leg together; then setting these two on the ground, he raises the other two; and thus alternately, never gaining above a foot of ground at a time.

PASSAGER, Fr. to passage, a term used in the manège.

PASSAGER en cheval, Fr. to make a horse passage. It is likewise used as a neutral verb, viz. un cheval passage, a horse passages.

PASSANDEAU, Fr. an ancient piece of ordnance, which carried an eight pound ball, and weighed three thousand five hundred pounds.

Chemis PASSANT, Fr. a thoroughfare.

PASSAVANT, Fr. a pass. This term is not used in a military sense, but relates chiefly to commercial matters.

PASSE, Fr. See PASS.

PASSE-Balles, Fr. boards or machines made of iron or brass, used in disparting cannon, and fitted to every species of calibre.

PASSE-Mur, Fr. this is the same as coulevrine, and signifies a piece of artillery which is longer than common ordnance. There was a remarkable one at Nancy, which was upwards of 92 French feet in length, and carried an 18-pound shot. The passe-mur or coulevrine, has been laid aside some time, because it was found not to carry so far as ordinary cannon. The one above-mentioned is still to be seen at Dunkirk.

PASSE-Vogue, Fr. any extraordinary effort that is made in rowing, is so called.

PASSE-par-tout, Fr. a large saw, the teeth of which are irregularly made for the purpose of cutting forest trees asunder.

PASSE par-tout, Fr. a master key.

PASSE-Parole, Fr. this expression is used among the French in an absolute sense, and signifies to give the parole, order, or countersign. When troops are on service, or upon duty, they have frequent occasion to adopt it, especially during the rounds. Avance, passe-parole. Advance, and give the parole or countersign.

PASSE-Volant, Fr. any man that is not really in the service, and who stands to be mustered for the purpose of completing the supposed number of effectives in a regiment, or on board a ship of war. They are likewise called soldats prêtés, borrowed soldiers. During the existence of the old French government, the strictest regulations were made to prevent the grosse impositions that were sometimes practised by means of passe-volans or fuggots.

PASSE-Volant is also called faux soldat.
PASSER-Volans, likewise mean those wooden pieces of ordnance which are made to resemble real artillery, and fill up the vacant places in a ship. These were first adopted by the French, in consequence of a regulation which was made by M. de Fontchartrain, when he became minister of the marine department. He gave orders that no vessels, except such as carried 16 guns, should sail to and from America. In order to comply, at least in outward appearance, with this regulation, the merchants had recourse to pass-volans, or wooden substitutes. More advantages than one are indeed derived from this invention, which has been adopted in every civilised country.

PASSE-CHEVAUX, Fr. ferry for horses.

PASSE, Fr. to pass. This word has various significations both in French and English, but chiefly in the former language.

PASSE EN REVUE, Fr. to muster.

PASSE A COMPLE, Fr. to allow in reckoning.

PASSE AU FIL DE L'ÉPIRE, Fr. to put to the sword; to kill man, woman and child.

PASSE PAR LES BOUGNETTES, Fr. to run the gauntlet.

PASSE À LA REVUE, Fr. to pass muster; or to be eligible as a recruit or soldier. The French also say, passer à la montre.

PASSE PAR LES ARMES, Fr. to be shot at the head or in front of a regiment drawn up in battle array.

PASSE PAR LES VERGES OU PAR LES BOUGNETTES, Fr. to be flogged or whipped up and down two ranks of soldiers faced inwards; each soldier having his musket grounded, and giving the culprit a lash upon his naked shoulders as he passes.

PASSE À LA MONTRÉ, Fr. to pass muster.

PASSE PAR LA MAIN DU BOURREAU, Fr. to be flogged, or otherwise punished, by the public hangman.

PASSE LA RIVIÈRE, PASSER LA LIGNE, Fr. to cross the river, to cross the line.

PASSE PAR LES COURROIES, Fr. to be picketed.

PASSE UN HOMME À UN OFFICIER, Fr. to allow an officer the pay and subsistence of a private soldier for the maintenance of a servant. The term is also used to express the receipt of any public allowance for sinecure places.

PASSER SUR LE VENTRE D'UNE ARMÉE, Fr. to defeat an army; to overthrow it.

PASSEUR, Fr. a ferryman.

PATACHÉ, Fr. this word sometimes means an advice-boat; but it more generally signifies an armed tender, or a revenue cutter.

PATAUGER, Fr. this word literally means to walk in muddy water. An army is said to do so, when its route is through hollow swamps and marshy grounds.

PATE, Fr. in fortification, a sort of horse-shoe, that is, a platform, or terre-pleine, irregularly built, yet generally constructed in an oval form. It is surrounded by a parapet, without anything to flank it, and having no other defence than what is front or fore-right. Pates are usually erected in marshy grounds to cover the gate of a fortified town or place.

PATE DE GRÈNACÉS, Fr. an earthen pot filled with gun-powder, and grenades with iron spikes upon them.

PATERERO, a small cannon managed by a swivel.

PATIENCE, the power or faculty of suffering; indurance; the power of expecting long, without rage or discontent; the power of supporting faults or injuries without revenge; long suffering. In military life patience is an essential requisite. Without patience half the toils of war would be insupportable; with patience there are scarcely any hardships but what coolness, courage, and ability may overcome. It is one of the greatest virtues, indeed, in an officer or soldier patiently to support, not only the rigour of discipline, but the keen and vexatious circumstances of disappointment. Rousseau says, la patience est amère, mais sont fruit est doux.—Patience is a bitter root, but its fruit is sweet.

PATOMAT, Ind. a two mast vessel; each mast carries one sail of four unequal sides. It likewise means a messenger.

PATRICIAN, from the Latin PATRICIUS, one descended from a noble family. The term was used among the Romans, to distinguish the higher class of the inhabitants of Rome, from the lower, who were called plebeians. Rumulus, as soon as the city of Rome was tolerably well filled with inhabitants, made
made a distinction of the people according to honour and quality; giving the better sort the name of patres or patrioci, and the rest the common title of plebeii. See Kennet's Roman Antiquities, pages 97, 98, &c.

Order of St. Patrick. There is only one order of knighthood which belongs to Ireland; it is that of St. Patrick, and was created by his present majesty King George III.

Patriot, a sincere and unbiased friend to his country; an advocate for general civilization, uniting, in his conduct through life, moral rectitude with political integrity. Such a character is seldom found in any country; but the specious appearance of it is to be seen everywhere; most especially in Europe. It is difficult to say how far the term can be used in a military sense, although it is not uncommon to read of a citizen soldier, and a patriot soldier. Individually considered, the term may be just, but it is hardly to be understood collectively. A celebrated English writer has left a treatise, intituled, the Patriot King; by which he means the first magistrate of a country who acts up to the genuine principles of its constitution.

It is devoutly to be wished, (human nature being so constituted as to require coercion) that the application of military force could always be in the hands of a patriot king, who is the first soldier in the land, and would of course be entitled to the appellation of a patriot soldier. The convulsed state of Europe is such, that no country can do without soldiers. When they are employed to defend, or protect their native land, they may be truly called patriot soldiers, whether of the regular, militia, or volunteer establishment.

Patriotism, (patriotisme, Fr.) a French writer observes, that patriotism is a virtue which many men affect to possess, without having one single attribute that forms its character. Real patriotism confines the whole of its views through life, whether civil or military, to glorious and good actions, but it never descends to cruelty or injustice.

Patrol, any party or round of soldiers, to the number of five or six, with a sergeant to command them. These men are detached from the main guard, picquet, or quarter-guard, according to circumstances, to walk round the streets of a garrison town, &c. for the purpose of taking up disorderly persons, or such as cannot give an account of themselves. It is their duty to see, that the soldiers and inhabitants of the place repair to their quarters and dwelling-houses, (in conformity to specific directions which are given out to that effect) and that alehouses and sutler's booths are shut up at a seasonable hour. They are likewise to take up every person they meet without a light, and that cannot give the watchword or countersign when he is challenged. All such persons must be conducted to the guard-house, and a report be made of them to the commandant or garnour of the place, by the town-major.

Patrons are formed out of the infantry as well as the cavalry. When a weak place is besieged, and there is reason to apprehend an assault, strong patrols are ordered to do duty; those on foot keep a good look out from the ramparts, and those that are mounted take care of the outworks.

Patron, one who countenances, supports, or protects. Every superior officer, from the commander in chief to the lowest non-commissioned officer, may, in a military sense, be called a patron; for it is the duty of all persons in authority, to countenance, support, and protect every executive member in the service. Partialities, on the other hand, (whatever may be their sources) are the bane of order and good discipline. In proportion as merit finds patrons among the good and great, indolence and inability should be discountenanced and degraded.

Kennett, in his Roman Antiquities, page 97, has the following passage, on the origin of the word:—

Romulus, as soon as his city was tolerably well filled with inhabitants, made a distinction of the people according to honour and quality; giving the better sort the name of patres or patrioci, and the rest the common title of plebeii.

To bind the two degrees more firmly together, he recommended to the patrioci some of the plebeians, to protect and countenance; the former being stiled patroni, and the latter clientes.

The patrons were always their clients' counsellors in difficult cases; their advocates in judgments; in short, their advisers and overseers in all affairs whatsover.
ever. On the other side, the clients faithfully served their patrons, not only paying them all imaginable respect and deference, but if occasion required, assisting them with money towards the defraying of any extraordinary charges. But afterwards, when the state grew rich and great, though all other good offices continued between them, yet it was thought a dishonourable thing for the better sort to take any money of their inferiors. (Vide Dionys. lib. 2, Liv. lib. 1. Plutarch in Romulo.) Hence the origin of patrons. But the case is altered in modern times with respect to pecuniary interest. Gold, or something more solid in the sale of liberty and good sense, buys a patron now.

PATRON, Fr. among the French, the captain of a trading vessel is so named. There were likewise sea-faring men called officiers mariniers, who served on board the French ships of war, and who were entrusted with the management of sloops and barges. These were generally called patrons.

PATRONES, (galler patrons, Fr.) the galley which was second in rank at Marseilles, was so called. It was commanded by the lieutenant-general of the galleys, who took precedence in that line, in the same manner that the vice-admiral of the French fleet did, among ships of war.

PATROUILLE. See Patrol.

PATROUILLEURS des deux côtés, Fr. flankers, or patroles detached on each side of a column, battalion, &c. to prevent surprises.

PATTE, Fr. a term used in mining. When a well or excavation is made in loose or crumbling earth, and it becomes necessary to frame it in, the rafters must be laid horizontally to support the boards in proportion as the workmen gain depth. The ends of the rafters that are first laid, run ten or twelve inches beyond the borders of the well, for the purpose of sustaining the platform. These supports are called orelles; consequently, that every subsequent frame may be supported, the second is attached or made firm to the first, by means of the ends of boards which are nailed together. In this manner the third is joined to the second, and the fourth to the third. These ends are called pattes or handles.

PATTE d'Oie, Fr. a term used in mining to describe three small branches which are practised, or run out, at the extremity of a gallery. They are so called from their resemblance to the foot of a goose.

PATTERN, (echantillon, Fr.) a part shewn as a sample for the rest. In a late regulation relative to the inspection of the clothing of the British army in general, it is particularly directed, that the regular inspectors, or the inspectors for the time being, do view and compare with the sealed patterns the clothing of the several regiments of cavalry and infantry, as soon as the same shall have been prepared by the respective clothiers; and if the clothing appear to be conformable to the sealed patterns, the said inspectors are to grant two certificates of their view and approval thereof, one of which certificates is to be delivered to the clothier, to be sent with the clothing to the head quarters of the corps; and the other to be lodged with the clothing board, as the necessary voucher for passing the assignment of the allowance for the said clothing.

A Pattern Regiment, a phrase of distinction, which is applied to a corps of officers and soldiers, who are remarkable for their observance of good order and discipline.

PATURE, Fr. See Forage.

PATUREUR, Fr. forager, one who goes on a foraging party.

PATUREURS, Fr. men who take their horses to grass, or go for green forage.

PAU, Fr. When the Mogul-Tartars conquered the northern part of China, in the year 1232, they are said to have invariably used at the several sieges, a battering or propellant machine of this name. There were two sorts: one served to throw large stones, and was called ché-pau, or stone-pau; and the other hó-pau, or fire-pau. Father Gaubil, the jesuit and missionary in China, seems at a loss to determine whether these pows were real pieces of ordnance, similar to those used in Europe, or merely stone-mortars: yet he appears satisfied, that the Chinese knew the use of gunpowder 1300 years before it was discovered in Europe. They had at first pieces of hollow wood in the shape of cannon, out of which they shot
shot stones. Father Gaubi says, “I have read in several authors, that the Chinese made use of gunpowder from time immemorial, and as the faculty of invention has never been called in question with respect to the Chinese, it is not improbable, that the Europeans should have taken advantage of their discovery, and acted upon it.”

PAVALUNGE, Ind. the name of a year.

PAUDSHAU, Ind. king.

PAVECHIENS, or PAVESSIER, Fr. an old militia which was formerly so called, from the men who composed it being armed with pavois, or large shields. PAVESADE, Fr. a sort of sail-cloth or tarpauling, which is hung round a galley during action, in order to intercept the view of the enemy. PAVESADES, Fr. large portable hurdles, behind which the archers and bowmen were formerly posted. According to Froissart, these hurdles were used long before the reign of Philip Augustus, king of France. Father Daniel, the Jesuit, in his Histoire de la Milice Françoise, describes them as bearing the figure of a shield; but the chevalier Puyard, in his Commentaire sur Polybe, informs us, that they were mantlets which were disposed in parallel or oblique lines, from the camp to the nearest works belonging to the corps de place; behind which the soldiers and artificers, &c. could, in safety, make a small fossé or ditch that was sufficiently deep to preserve them straight and firm. Hurdles constructed in this manner, were used during the operations of a regular siege; but when it was found expedient to insult a place, those of less dimension were adopted. Father Daniel describes the retranchement portatif, which was used many centuries before the days of Philip Augustus, under the latter head.

PAVILLON, in military affairs. See Tent.

PAVILLON, Fr. pavilion, tent, &c. It also signifies that particular quarter in a barrack which is occupied by the officers.

PAVILLON, Fr. flag, standard, or colours.

Baisser le Pavillon, Fr. to strike, to yield; to lower the colours, as the ships of all nations are accustomed to do when they meet a British man of war; and as our most inveterate foe must do, when she comes in contact with a British broadside.

Vaisseau Pavillon, Fr. flag-ship.

Pavillon, Fr. this word likewise signifies the swell or broad part of a speaking trumpet.

PAULETTE, Fr. a certain tax or pecuniary consideration, which all persons, who held public situations under the old government of France, were obliged to pay at the commencement of every year, to the king. This enabled them to sell or dispose of their appointments, and to leave the amount to their heirs, if they happened to die in the course of the year. It is so called from Pavlet, the name of the person who first suggested the measure.

PAVOIS, Fr. an ancient weapon of defence. It was the Clypeus or broad shield of the Greeks and Romans.

PAUSE, a stop, cessation, or intermission. It is essentially necessary for all officers to accustom themselves to a most minute observance of the several pauses which are prescribed during the firings. According to the Regulations, the pause betwixt each of the firing words, make ready, present, fire, is the same as the ordinary time, viz. the 75th part of a minute, and no other pause is to be made betwixt the words.

In firing companies by wings, each wing carries on its fire independent, without regard to the other wing, whether it fires from the center to the flanks, or from the flanks to the center. If there are five companies in the wing, two pauses will be made betwixt the fire of each, and the make ready of the succeeding one. If there are four companies in the wing, three pauses will be made betwixt the fire of each, and the make ready of the succeeding one. This will allow sufficient time for the first company to have again loaded and shouldered, at the time the last company fires, and will establish proper intervals betwixt each.

In firing by grand divisions, three pauses will be made betwixt the fire of each division, and the make ready of the succeeding one.

In firing by wings, one wing will make ready the instant the other is shouldering. The commanding officer of the battalion fires the wings.

In firing companies by files, each company fires independent. When the right
file presents, the next makes ready, and so on. After the first fire, each man as he loads comes to the recovery, and the file again fires without waiting for any other; the rear rank men are to have their eyes on their front rank men, and be guided by, and present with them.—See page 269.

When troops march to music, a pause in the mind before the latter strikes off, will contribute greatly to that uniformity of step, without which no line can move correctly. In some regiments the music does not play until one step has been taken.—See Step off.

PAY, or pay of the army, is the stipend or salary allowed for each individual serving in the army: first established by government in the year 1660.

PAY of the British Officers. Although much has been written, of late, on this important branch of the public service, nothing materially new has appeared since the publication of a pamphlet in 1775, entitled, Observations on the Prevailing Abuses in the British Army. They are supposed to have flowed from the pen of an eloquent lawyer, who was then in the army, and whose private virtues, as well as public talents, have since raised him in the estimation of every well-wisher to the constitution and liberties of Great Britain. We lament that the limits of our undertaking should be too much circumscribed, to admit all the sensible and appropriate observations which appear in the pages of this well-written pamphlet. The following passage relates to Pay only.

"PAY of the British Officers. An English officer, in the opinion of the multitude, bears the same proportion to a gentleman, as a poor knight of Windsor does to a companion of the Order of the Garter.

"The situation of an officer, whose services have not been rewarded by promotion, is truly deplorable. Often thrown behind in his circumstances, by unavoidable expences, incompatible with his finances, and his income at the same time so small, that the most rigid self-denial cannot allot a part for accumulation, his misery is irrevocable, and the most slight misfortune or imprudence, his ruin: he must either shut himself up from happiness and society, or involve himself deeper; he must either fret away his life in the hectic of sensibility, or pine in the gloom of despair. If, by uncommon circumspection, he avoids this Scylla and Charybdis of poverty, he may exist, but he cannot be said to live: no recreation, in the walk of a gentleman, is within his compass: in the mean time, years and infirmities creep on space, with the chagrining retrospect of a youth spent without pleasure, and without profit, and the dismal prospect of an old age of want and obscurity.

"I appeal to all officers who have no private property, and who, consequently, have not been promoted, whether or not I have drawn a faithful portrait of the profession."

In another place he says, pages 19, 19, 20, with much feeling and dignified pride, "Men who have virtue and talents for executing work which is put into their hands, have not always fertile and progressive inventions, but treat every thing as impossible and chimerical which presents any glaring difficulties; and the world would stand still, and every species of improvement be at an end, if nature did not provide another set of men, of irritable and restless dispositions, fretful under grievances, and ambitious of being the instruments of public advantage. It is this disposition, and perhaps this ambition, which lead me to address myself to the officers of the British army; to demonstrate to them how shamefully, from the present miserable establishment of their pay, and other glaring abuses, they are cut off from their share in the prosperities of Great Britain;—to shew to them, how far this insulting misfortune is owing to their absurd neglect of their own advantages, and to endeavour to rouse them to a spirited, yet constitutional demand, of the just rights of her most useful and laborious citizens. At first view, this may appear to be a dangerous subject, and highly incompatible with the arbitrary principles of military government. What is termed renoncement in a citizen, is supposed to be mutiny in a soldier: but mutiny I apprehend to be confined to the breach of discipline and subordination in an inferior, towards a superior in military command. Soldiers do not give up their
their general rights as members of a free community; they are amenable to civil and municipal laws, as well as to their own martial code; and are, therefore, entitled to all the privileges with which a free form of government invests every individual: nay, it is to their virtue that all the other parts of the community must ultimately trust for the enjoyment of their peaceable privileges. For, as Mr. Pitt (the late Lord Chatham, and father to the present minister) in his strong figurative eloquence expressed himself in parliament; "To the virtue of the army we have hitherto trusted; to that virtue, small as the army is, we must still trust; and without that virtue, the lords, the commons, and people of England, may intrench themselves behind parchment up to the teeth, but the sword will find a passage to the vials of the constitution."

"There is nothing really dangerous in this seemingly alarming truth. The people of England have been often imposed upon by dark and designing men, to regard the army with a jealous and malignant eye, as the surly tool of arbitrary power, and the foe of liberty. The faults of individuals have been unthinkingly charged on the whole body, and the execution of civil justice too often requiring military force (the most hateful and reluctant duty of an English soldier), has sown the seeds of discord and suspicion between two branches of the community, equally necessary and respectable; between the law and its protectors, between the people and their brethren and defenders. But notwithstanding this jealousy, so much to be lamented, there is nothing reasonably to be feared from a standing army of double the number of the present. The army is, I believe, as zealous for the real prosperity and freedom of Great Britain, as any other collective body in the nation; it is by her own corrupt representatives, that the axe has been laid to the root of her liberties.

"The great and principal reason why the deaf ear has still been presented to the petitions of the army, is, because no disgraceful consequences have resulted from the neglect of them. Parliament sees, equally with ourselves, the justice and urgency of our expectations; the legislators of Great Britain know very well, that the officers in the army cannot support that appearance which is expected from gentlemen, and that the whole establishment of the pay is mean and scandalous; but we have never proved to them, that it is requisite in policy to redress grievances; we have trusted alone to the force of truth and justice, which seldom have pleaded successfully in any public assembly of men, unless necessity and interest supported them; and so far are these from being our advocates in the present case, that our own folly turns them as arguments and weapons against us.

"When infatuation thus prevails over common sense, and the vanity of youth is sowing thorns for the pillow of age; when the glitter of a brass gorget effaces even the solid lustre of gold; and the sash, that too just emblem of an empty purse, is preferred to the scarf or toga; is it wonderful that parliament should not redress the grievances of the army?

"A member of the H—— of C—— can no more live without a place or pension, than a peeress without a macaroni, or a chambermaid without her perquisites. The traders observe this, and raise the prices of their commodities; the money-dealers lower the interest of their funds; the manufacturers double the wages of their labour; the husbandman refuses to plough the land, and the mariner the sea; till the farmer and the merchant keep up the proportion between the value of money and the necessities of life. The soldier alone, with hollow eye and haggard cheek, smiles contented on his scarlet, hated by the populace, as the supposed tool of despotism, yet neglected by government as the voluntary and unworthy slave.

"The crown, indeed, very wisely avails itself of the spirit, or rather folly, of the times; and as a nurse, with a bad breast, hushes a starving infant with a rattle, it rings all the changes on buckram and buttons, and buttons and buckram, to please the warriors of Blackheath and Wimbledon, and to spread wider the contagion of the scarlet fever, which is nearly synonomous with the gaol distemper.

"Butcher's meat and bread are, at present
present, four times the prices they were when the pay was first established, and every absolute necessary of life in the same proportion; from the decrease of the value of money, the extensive commerce and riches of the kingdom, and the great taxes which have since been laid on every article of universal consumption. A shilling and eighteen pence per day (our author speaks of 1775) is now the common rate of labour: mechanics, and journeymen-tradesmen of all denominations, exact at least two shillings and half-a-crown from their employers; and so inadequate are even these additional prices to the expences of living, that population decreases, and the kingdom is emaciated by continual and alarming emigrations. As luxury stalks on with more progressive strides, the wants of mankind are multiplied; they, in consequence, refuse their labour till these new wants are supplied; well knowing, that the different necessaries and luxuries of life, to which their labour is directed, cannot stand still, but must wait on their nod: this change is not prejudicial to their employers, who charge it, with interest, on manufactures and commodities, which they sell reciprocally to each other, and to landholders; which last, to supply the deficiencies and the calls of new luxuries, raise their farms, and put them into the hands of opulent monopolizers: these, uniformly attached to their own interests, make up, in their turns, for the extraordinary rents, and the increased expense of cultivation and utensils, by raising the corn to exorbitant prices; which, when the poor are unable to purchase, they transport to foreign countries, notwithstanding the constant laws which pass to prevent them.

"In this active and mutable scene, in this fermentation of commerce, amidst the innumerable inventions and machineries of men, to evade poverty, and to acquire riches, whilst the natural progress of society is fabricating continual changes, and these changes have obliged men, of all denominations, to fall into new channels of operation; in this long chain of human necessities, which have increased and fattened on each other, still rising, but rising in equitable proportions (as a tune is still the same, though played on a higher key), what must be the lot of one link which sticks fast in so rapid a wheel? Like a ship which is aground in a tempest, it must be speedily destroyed. To say that this is unfortunately the case of the British army, is not to have discovered a wonderful enigma; it is indeed the stranded and dismayed hulk; who, while the fleet around, with the use of sails and rudders, fight safely against the tumultuous conflict, is dashed against the rocks into ten thousand pieces. Page 25.

"It is only upon the useful and valuable part of the army that all its grievances fall. To the stripping of the peaceable parade, it is the limb of vanity; to the veteran of the field, it is a path sown with thorns. The gay young ensign, with support and interest, is like a vessel in port, sleeping on the peaceful bosom of the waters, and flaunting with her streamers: the old and neglected officer is the dismayed hulk, driving with the blast, and fighting with the bilows." Page 31.

In page 67 we find the following passage, which forms a part of a proposed petition to the House of Commons, and which is couched, not only in terms the most respectful, but is also dictated by that strong attachment to constitutional rights; for the support of which the supposed author has, on many occasions, displayed so much eloquence.

"The great riches, which, through the extension of commerce and conquest, have flowed in upon Great Britain from so many sources, the consequential decrease of the value of money, the progress of luxury, with many other cooperating causes, have so entirely changed the system of things since the first establishment of the pay; the prices of all the absolute necessities of life have augmented in so prodigious a ratio; so many new wants have arisen, by custom confirmed into necessities, that what was originally granted by the nation, as a proper independence to support the dignity of the army, is now absolutely incompatible with the fulfilment of such intention, in all the military degrees under a regiment; and is, in the subaltern ranks, altogether inadequate to the single article of subsistence,
sistence, independent of the many expenses unavoidably incurred, in compliance with the regulations of military parade, without which an army cannot exist.

"The truth of these circumstances is of such public notoriety, that we think it unnecessary to enlarge upon them, more especially before this august assembly, where every individual must be perfectly acquainted with points, which so nearly concern the public welfare.

"We cannot help seeing, with chagrin and mortification, that the salaries of all the servants of the nation in civil trusts; the emoluments of every species of public business have, in some measure, kept pace with the changes of the times (the army alone excepted); and that, in consequence of such distribution, there is no equitable proportion observed between civil and military trusts of equivalent importance to the state; vast sums being annually appropriated to the support of the holders of the former, in all the luxuries of life, while the latter are suffering all the rigours of necessity and poverty.

He then concludes, in the true tenour and constitutional meaning of a well-grounded application:—"It is the absolute sting of necessity, and not any mutinous or illegal spirit, which dictates this plain and pointed memorial. We are deeply impressed with the sense of the sacred ties which link men together under the authority of the laws; and we pray, that the unfettered language of truth may not be mistaken for the gauntlet of defiance, which we never can throw down but to the enemies of our country."

Full Pay. The pecuniary allowance which is made to officers and non-commissioned officers, without any deduction whatsoever. Since the abolition of arrears, which took place in 1797, commissioned and warrant officers, &c. (those belonging to the guards excepted) receive their full pay, or daily subsistence. The private soldiers are subject to temporary deductions, for the purpose of appropriating part of their pay and allowances to the expense of their messes, including vegetables, &c. and to a stoppage, not exceeding 1s. 6d. per week, for necessaries; which stoppage is to be accounted for monthly, as stated in the Regulations of 1st September, 1795, and the remainder being 1s. 6d. must be paid weekly to each soldier, subject to the accustomed deduction for washing, and for articles to clean his clothing and appointments.

The full pay of the British army is given in advance on the 25th of every month, and accounted for to government by the several district and regimental paymasters, through army agents appointed for that purpose.—Non-commissioned officers and private soldiers, serving as marines, are not liable to any deduction whatsoever from their full pay, on account of provisions.—See Warrant, dated 6th of February, 1799. It will be further observed, that although the army is now paid its full pay, in consequence of the abolition of the distinction between subsistence and arrears, that pay is nevertheless subject to the usual deductions on account of poundage, hospital, and agency.—See Warrant, dated 25th of January, 1798. This will explain the mutilated appearance of the different rates of pay. Thus, a captain of infantry, who is nominally supposed to receive 10s. per diem, gets only 9s. 5d. the 7d. going for the above deductions. The full pay of the subaltern officers has been very judiciously increased, but that of the captains, &c. remains as it was in the reign of Queen Anne.—For the several rates of full pay, &c. see Military Finance.

Pay (sold, Fr.) Troops were not paid among the Romans till 340 years after the foundation of Rome. Antecedent to that period, each soldier found his own clothes and subsistence, which was done without much inconvenience or expense, because no wars were entered into that rendered it necessary to march armies to any distance from the capital. But when Rome extended her conquests beyond the boundaries of Italy, it then became expedient and unavoidable to pay those men that went upon foreign service. The pay was, 'at first, very small, and gradually increased with the increase of Roman Empire. It would be superfluous to enter into any detail on this head; it may be barely necessary to state, that the pay and subsistence of troops should be so settled as always
Pay of the army in India. The payments are made at Bengal, in Sonaunt rupees at 2s. 6d. Madras, in pagodas at 8s. Bombay rupees at 2s. 6d.

[N.B. 80 cash = 1 fanam; 40 fanams = 1 pagoda.] For further particulars see Arrangement for the Army in India, published by Stockdale in 1796.

Half-Pay, (demi-sold, demi-paye, Fr.) a compensation or retaining fee which is given to officers who have retired from the service through age, inability, &c. or who have been placed upon that list in consequence of a general reduction of the forces, or a partial drafting, &c. of the particular corps to which they belonged. The half pay becomes due on the 25th of June, and on the 25th of December in each year, but it is seldom issued until three months after the expiration of each of those periods. The only public deduction from the half pay is the poundage, two and a half per cent.—See Military Finance.

Irish Half-Pay. Every officer upon the Irish establishment, when reduced to half-pay, must swear to, and sign the following certificate:

County of

this day before me, and made oath, that he is no otherwise provided for by any commission or employment, civil or military, in his majesty's service, than by half pay on the establishment of Ireland, and is on no other establishment of half pay.

Officer's

Name,

N. B. To be sworn in January, April, July, and October, in every year.

Vacant-Pay. When an officer sells out of the British army, and takes what are called commissions in succession as part of the purchase money, he becomes entitled to pay and interest on the same for six months, or until they have been disposed of, within that period. This pay or allowance is called vacant pay; and it is necessary for the person who holds such commissions, to write a letter to the agent of the regiment, directing him to apply to the secretary at war for the same. The form of this letter may be seen in the Regimental Companion.

N. B. The increase of the subaltern's subsistence by warrant, does not affect the vacant pay.

PAY-MASTER, (tressorier, Fr.) is he who is intrusted with the money, and has the charge of paying the regiment. He has no other commission in the line. His pay is 15s. per day.

When a person is recommended by the colonel of a regiment to be paymaster, the following form is necessary:

A. B. situation in life,
2 sureties, and 4 referees.

District PAY-MASTER, an officer appointed for the better management of the interior concerns of the army, when the regiments, &c. are on home service.

PAYMASTER-GENERAL OF THE FORCES.

Right Hon. Henry Fox, (afterwards Lord Holland).

June 8th, 1765, Right Hon. Charles Townsend.

August 2d, 1766, Right Hon. Lord North, (afterwards Earl of Guildford), and George Cooke, Esq.

Dec. 3d, 1767, Right Hon. Thomas Townsend, vice Lord North.

June 5th, 1768, George Cooke, Esq. died.

June 14th, 1768, Right Hon. Richard Rigby.

March 30th, 1782, Right Hon. Edmund Burke.

July 27th, 1782, Right Hon. Isaac Barré.

April 8th, 1783, Right Hon. Edmund Burke.

Dec. 30th, 1783, Right Hon. W. Grenville (now Lord Grenville), to whom was added

March 27th, 1784, Lord Mulgrave.

August 15th, 1789, Marquis of Graham, (now Duke of Montrose), vice Mr. Grenville.

Feb. 20th, 1801, Thomas Steele, esq.

Right Hon. George Canning, esq.

March 20th, 1801, Silvester Douglas, Esq. now Lord Glenbervie.

1801, Hiley Addington.

Right Hon. George Rose, Right Hon. Lord Charles Somerset.
PAY

PAYMASTER of Marines. We have already mentioned under the article Marine, that there is one paymaster appointed to superintend the distribution of all monies which are issued for the corps of marines.

Deputy Paymaster of Marines. The deputy paymaster, at each division, is to pass his accounts with the paymaster at the end of every month, and to deliver a general account of all monies received and paid within that time, accompanied by vouchers, except in such instances where the nature of the disbursements will only allow of quarterly vouchers.

The deputy paymaster, at each of the divisions, is not to issue subsistence or arrears to commissioned officers (or their attorneys) till they have received official information from the marine pay-office in London, that such officers (or their attorneys) are duly entitled thereto.

The deputy paymaster, at such of the divisions, is to issue money to the first squad serjeant once every week, to pay subsistence and consolidated allowances to such non-commissioned officers and privates as may be at quarters, on his producing an account of money due to each company for the time, attested by the commanding officer, adjutant, and first squad serjeant, which will enable the deputy paymaster to transmit regularly, every week, to the marine pay-office in London, a list filled up according to form.

The deputy paymaster, or the person whom he shall appoint as his clerk, shall constantly attend the muster, which will enable him to transmit a correct monthly statement to the marine pay-office in London, of monies issued for subsistence and consolidated allowance to non-commissioned officers and privates.

The deputy paymaster, at each of the divisions, is to pay contingent, barrack, and infirmary expenses incurred, on receiving the commanding officer's warrant for so doing, and must take receipts for the amount.

When marines are removed from one division to another, the deputy paymaster, at the place from whence they depart, is to send an attested list of each man's debt to the deputy paymaster at the head quarters to which they are ordered, who is to give him credit for the amount, and which will be allowed him by the paymaster in London, on a correct copy of the debts being transmitted with the said deputy paymaster's monthly statements.

The deputy paymaster, at each of the divisions is to issue money to officers ordered from quarters to recruit (on receiving the commanding officer's warrant for so doing, and not otherwise) which sums will be allowed him by the paymaster in London, on the officer's receipt being transmitted with the deputy paymaster's monthly statement; and on their being recalled, an account of money paid them will be sent by the paymaster to the deputy paymaster of the division to which they belong, who will settle the same, and give the said recruiting officer credit for what may be due to him, sending back to the paymaster a re-stated account with a receipt for the credit; and where it appears the officer is indebted to the public, an acknowledgment of that debt must be signed by the officer.

All correspondence to, and from, the deputy paymasters is to be carried on through the marine pay-office in London; and any applications and representations relative to divisional business, if they appear of sufficient importance to the paymaster of marines, are to be forwarded to the secretary of the admiralty, accompanied with such observations as may, to the best of his judgment, tend to place the matter in a clear light.

Army-Pay-office, at Whitehall.

Pay-Bills. These bills are distinguished according to the nature of the service for which they are given. Every captain of a troop or company receives a regular weekly account from his serjeant, of money to be advanced for the effectives of such troop or company; and on the 24th day in each month be makes out a monthly one for the paymaster, who makes out a general abstract for the agent. The paymaster-general's estimate is likewise called the pay-bill.

Pay-Lists. The monthly accounts, which are transmitted by the several regimental and district paymasters to their agents on the 25th of each month, are so termed.
PAY-Rolls, the same as PAY-Lists.
PAY-Serjeant.—See SERJEANT.

PAYE, Fr. the pay of the troops; the money which every captain of a troop or company receives, at the close of the month, for the non-commissioned officers and privates under his command;—we call it monthly distribution.

PAYER-Gaut, Ind. the lower pass. Gaut is the general term for pass.

PAYS, Fr. country, locality, ground.

PAYS, Fr. This word is variously applied by the French in a figurative sense: Parler, ou juger, à vue de Pays, to speak or decide at random.

Gagner Pays, (vaindre le pays, Fr.) to leave a country; to go voluntarily into exile. Gagner pays likewise means to gain ground. Avancer pays may be used in the same sense.

Battre-Pays, Fr. to speak wide of the subject.

Tirer-Pays, Fr. a familiar phrase among the French, signifying to escape.

PAYS conquis, Fr. This term was applied by the French to those countries and tracts of territory which had been ceded to France by treaty; as Lorraine: or had been conquered by force of arms; as Ypres, Tournaï, Gand, Ostend, and several other towns, from the reign of Louis XIII.

Pays-coupés, Fr. confined, inclosed, or intersected countries. Marshal Saxe has observed, that it is impossible to lay down any specific rule relative to the management of troops in countries of this description. An intelligent and able officer will be governed by the nature of the ground in which he is to act; and as under these circumstances, the contest will consist chiefly of a war of posts, and of desultory engagements, (in which the most obstinate will be generally the most successful,) it will be incumbent upon every military man to recollect, that he must never advance, without having previously secured means for a retreat, and being constantly guarded on his flanks, to prevent the fatal consequences of surprize and ambuscade. Although the latter precautions are principally attended to by the general of an army, every partisan or officer commanding a detachment, should be more or less alive to the many mischiefs which must ensue from carelessness and inattention. It would be super-

fluous to point out what troops are best calculated to act in a close or intersected country. Every military man must know, that mountainous and close countries, or intersected lands, are best adapted to infantry manoeuvres, and that cavalry can only act, with safety and effect, in an open country. The solidity of this observation has probably been the cause of so much improvement in light artillery, and in rifle corps. The latter, indeed, by the use which has been made of their particular weapon, and the desultory execution of it on service, have sufficiently shewn, that no army ought to move without them.

PAYS-somme, Fr. a low piece of land or ground; but which has, nevertheless, no water.

PAYSANS, Fr. peasants.

PEACE has been represented allegorically as a beautiful female, holding in her hand a wand or rod towards the earth, over a hideous serpent, and keeping her other hand over her face, as unwilling to behold strife or war. By some painters she has been represented holding in one hand an olive branch, and leading a lamb and a wolf yoked by their necks, in the other; others again have delineated her with an olive branch in her right hand, and a cornucopia, or horn of plenty, in her left.

A very celebrated temple was erected for the goddess of peace at Rome, which was furnished with most of the rich vases and curiosities taken out of the temple of the Jews at Jerusalem. In this temple she was represented as a fine lady, endowed with a great deal of sweetness and good nature, crowned with laurel interwoven, holding a caduceus, or Mercury's snaky staff, in one hand, and a nosegay of roses and ears of corn, in the other.

The temple of Peace, built by Vespasian, was 300 feet long, and 200 broad. Josephus says, that all the rarities which men travel through the world to see, were deposited in this temple.

PEACE, (tranquilité, Fr.) rest, silence, quietness; the direct opposite to war; and when the latter prevails, the ultimate object of every contest.

Peace establishment, signifies the reduced number of effective men in the British army, according to the various for-
mations of corps. Thus one regiment may be 1200 strong in time of war, and only 600 in time of peace. Whence arises the distinction between war and peace establishments. The standing army of Great Britain, according to law, consists of that force only which is kept up in time of peace, and which is confined to a specific number of regiments. Every regiment, beyond the regulated number, during a war, is liable to be reduced; and all within it are said to be out of the break.

PEDEA, Ind. A foot soldier.

PEASANTS, persons who till the ground, and are otherways employed in agricultural occupations. Many advantages may be derived to an army by a proper attention being given to this class of men. They can, in general, afford excellent information respecting the situation, soil, and resources, of a country; and they make excellent guides, provided you can secure their fidelity by paying them well, and by taking proper hostages. Peasants are very useful in apprehending deserters, especially when an army is in the neighbourhood from which recruits may have been drawn.—They are likewise of the greatest utility in fatigue-duties; in the formation of lines, &c.

PECTORAL, (Pectoral, Fr.) a breast plate. This word is derived from the Latin, Pectorale. Among the Romans the poorer soldiers, who were rated under a thousand drachms, instead of the lorica or brigantine (a leathern coat of mail) wore a pectorale, or breast-plate of thin brass, about 12 fingers square. Some modern troops, such as the cuirassiers, &c. wear pectorals for the direct purposes of defence and bodily protection; but in general small ornamental plates with clasps, have been substituted.

To PECULATE, to rob the public.

PECULATION, (péculat, Fr.) the crime of pilfering any thing, either sacred or public, particularly public money, by a person who has the management or custody thereof. This crime is punishable in the heirs of the original delinquent. Under peculation may be considered not only the monies which are embazzled or misapplied by commissioned, non-commissioned, and warrant officers, but the public stores, provisions, arms, and ammunition, &c. which may be sold for private emolument. The articles of war, are very specific on this head, (see Sect. XIII.) and the occasional examples which have been made by government, of a crime that cannot be too scrupulously watched, or too heavily punished, ought to deter individuals from sacrificing public integrity to private views. They ought to remember, that like the sword of Damocles, an exchequer writ hangs over the head of every man whose accounts have not been finally audited and passed, and that it may fall on the next generation, although he may escape himself, unless he or his descendants get their quietus in a bill of indemnity.

PECUNIA, money; a deity in the heathen mythology; and (though not a goddess personified among them) the most powerful ascendant the moderns know. The Romans held that she presided over riches, and that she had a son named Argentinus, whom they adored in the hopes of growing rich.

PECUNIA. The Roman officers and soldiers were accustomed to leave their pecuniary savings where the eagles were lodged, conceiving that spot to be the most secure, because it was held to be the most sacred among soldiers. From this conception Vegetius has drawn the following conclusion.—Miles deinde qui sumpsit suas scit apud signa depositas, de serendo nil cogitat, magis diliget signa, pro illis in acie fortius dimicat. The soldier, of course, who has lodged his property or savings with the standards, never thinks of deserting; but is, on the contrary, more attached to those standards, and fights for them in battle with increased strength and intrepidity. The standard-bearer had always the charge of these pecuniary deposits; but as this standard-bearer, to use the words of a French author, was not always proof against corruption, these sacred deposits sometimes shared the fate of other pledges which were equally sacred, or ought, at least, to be so. Modern agents and paymasters may learn, from this article, that if a soldier is honestly done by, his courage and fidelity will always equal, may, frequently exceed, the duties of his profession.

PECU-
PECUNIUS, a deity of the ancient Prussians, in honour of whom they kept a fire lighted with oak perpetually burning. A priest constantly attended, and if the fire happened to go out by his neglect, he was instantly put to death. When it thundered, they imagined that their grand priest conversed with their god, and for that reason they fell prostrate on the earth, praying for seasonable weather.

PEDERERO, PATTARERO, a Portuguese term, signifying a small sort of cannon, which is particularly used on the quarter deck of ships, to fire or throw forth stones, or broken iron, upon boarding parties. This word has been adopted both by the French and English.

PEDOMETER (Pédomètre, Fr.) a mathematical instrument, composed of various wheels with teeth, which by means of a chain fastened to a man's foot, or to the wheel of a chariot, advances a notch each step, or each revolution of the wheel, and the number being marked at the edge of each wheel, the paces may be numbered, or the distance from one place to another be exactly measured.

PEGS, (cherilles, Fr.) pointed pieces of wood, used to fasten the cords of a tent.

PEIADAK, Ind. a guard to accompany a prisoner at large.

PEISA, Ind. cash.

PEISHWAH, a minister or supreme magistrate in the Mahratta empire, to whom the civil authorities of the state are delegated.

PEER, Ind. Monday.

PELE-MELE, Fr. a French adverb, from which is derived the English term Pelmell, signifying, confusedly, in disorder, in heaps, &c.

PELICAN, Fr. an ancient piece of artillery which carried a six pound weight of ball, and weighed two thousand four hundred pounds.

P.LINE de bois simple, Fr. a wooden shoel.

PELOTE à feu, Fr. Pelote literally means the bottom of a pincushion, a ball, &c. It is here used to signify a species of combustible ball, which serves to throw light in a fossé or elsewhere. The composition is pitch one part, sulphur three parts, to one pound of salt petre. The whole is well mixed together, and incorporated with tow, from which the pelotes are made. The words peloton and platoon, are formed from pelote, signifying any thing collected or put together, as a worsted ball, &c. may be.

PELOTON, Fr. platoon.

Rompre le PELOTON, Fr. a platoon being generally considered as a subdivision, rompre le peloton signifies to break into sections.

Former le PELOTON, Fr. to double up or form subdivision.

PELOTON de Modele, Fr. a platoon or company set up as a model to others. It was customary, during the monarchy of France, and the same custom most probably prevails at present, to have in the different garrisons a select body of this description. It consisted of a given number of men, who were chosen out of the several companies of a regiment, as being remarkable, not only for their size and appearance, but also for their expertness in the evolutions and exercise of the musquet. Whenever any alteration took place in the manoeuvres or firings, by order of the war-minister, these were first practised by the pattern platoon, troop, or company. All the serjeants and corporals belonging to other corps, were obliged to be present at these drills or exercises, in order to become thoroughly masters of the new rules and regulations, and to be enabled to instruct the soldiers of their respective regiments. A squad of officers, under the direction of the major, (as the former were under that of the adjutant or serjeant-major, according to circumstances,) was also formed under the same principles. We have no such general order amongst us. We frequently say a pattern-regiment, but this is an expression of mere courtesy; a compliment paid to some particular corps, and by no means implying a necessity that others should follow its example. The 52d, for instance, may be called a pattern-regiment, but it does not therefore follow, that the 2nd or the 6th, or any other regiment, should be drilled and exercised after the manner of the 52d. We would even venture to predict, that unless General Moore commanded the district, deviations would occur. In addition to this article, we think it right.
to state what was universally done, during the French monarchy. When officers, who had been absent on leave, during the winter months, returned to quarters on the first of May, they were obliged to go through the whole drill, from the firelock, &c. until the first of June. They were exercised on the ramparts, or on the barrack parade, by the major of the regiment, in the presence of the soldiers. This will account for the knowledge, as far as technical acquirement goes, which is to be found in almost every French officer of the old school.

Pelotonné, &c. Fr. formed into a platoon.

Pelotonner, Fr. to gather together, to get into groups.

Se Pelotonner, Fr. to form into a platoon.

Pelta, in antiquity, a kind of buckler, small, light, and more manageable than the Parma which was used by the Amazons, according to Virgil, and resembled the moon in his first quarter, according to Servius.

Pelta. This small shield or buckler was also used by the Macedonians, Cretans, Africans, and ancient Spaniards. Those who carried shields of this description were called Peltatos.

Penal (Pénale, Fr.), any decree or law which subjects individuals, &c. to penalties. Hence code pénal; les lois pénales: the penal code; the penal laws. Of late years the British service has been considerably relieved from the inconveniences and injuries which it suffered in consequence of an unnatural exclusion of a great proportion of the native strength of the country, on account of religious notions.

Penality, in a military sense, signifies forfeiture for non-performance, likewise punishment for embezzlement, &c. An officer found guilty of embezzling His Majesty's stores is cashiered, and forfeits one hundred pounds: any person who harbours, conceals, or assists any deserter from His Majesty's service, forfeits five pounds for each offence.

Pendulum, in mechanics, any heavy body suspended in such a manner that it may vibrate backwards and forwards, about some fixed point, by the force of gravity.

A pendulum is any body suspended upon, and moving about, a point as a center. The nature of a pendulum consists in the following particulars: 1. The times of the vibrations of a pendulum, in very small arches, are all equal. 2. The velocity of the bob in the lowest point, will be nearly as the length of the cord of the arch which it describes in the descent. 3. The times of vibrations in different pendulums, are the square roots of the times of their vibrations. 4. The time of one vibration is to the time of descent, through half the length of the pendulum, as the circumference of a circle is to its diameter. 5. Whence the length of a pendulum, vibrating seconds in this latitude will be found to be 39 inches and 2-10ths; and of one half second pendulum 9.8 inches. 6. An uniform homogeneous body, as a rod, staff, &c. which is 1-3d part longer than a pendulum, will vibrate in the same time with it.

From these properties of the pendulum we may discern its use as an universal chronometer, or regulator of time. By this instrument, also, we can measure the distance of a ship, of a battery, &c. by measuring the interval of time between the fire and report of the gun; also the distance of a cloud, by counting the seconds or half seconds, between the lightning and the thunder. Thus, suppose between the lightning and thunder we count ten seconds; then, because sound passes through 1142 feet in one second, we get the distance of the cloud=11420 feet. Again, the height of any room, or other object, may be measured by a pendulum vibrating from the top thereof. Thus, suppose a pendulum from the height of a room, or other object, vibrates once in three seconds; then say, as 1 is to the square of 3, viz. 9, so is 39.8 to 3528 feet, the height required. Lastly, by the pendulum we discover the different force of gravity on divers parts of the earth's surface, and thence the true figure of the earth.

Pendulum. Pendulums for military purposes are best made with a musquet ball, and a piece of silk, or other small line. Their length must be measured from the center of the ball to the end of the loop on which they are to swing. In a cylinder, or other uniform
form prism or rod, the center of oscillation, from whence they must be measured, is at the distance of one-third from the bottom, or two-thirds below the center of motion.

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<tr>
<th>Degrees of Latitude</th>
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<td>30</td>
<td>39·070</td>
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<td>39·168</td>
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Length of Pendulums to vibrate Seconds at every Fifth Degree of Latitude.

Rule.—To find the length of a pendulum to make any number of vibrations, and vice versa. Call the pendulum, making sixty vibrations, the standard length; then say, as the square of the given number of vibrations is to the square of 60; so is the length of the standard to the length sought. If the length of the pendulum be given, and the number of vibrations it makes in a minute be required; say, as the given length is to the standard length, so is the square of 60, its vibrations in a minute, to the square of the number required. The square root of which will be the number of vibrations made in a minute.

PENINSULA (Péninsule, Presqu'île, Fr.), any space of ground, which has water on all sides, except one; and which is joined to the continent by a slip of land, called an isthmus.

PENNANT, PENNON, a small flag or colour.

Gentlemen PENSIONERS (Gentilshommes Pensionnaires, Fr.) a band of gentlemen, who guard the king's person in his own house, and for that end wait in the presence chamber. They were first instituted by Henry VII. They are usually forty in number. Their officers are, a captain, lieutenant, standard bearer, and clerk of the cheque. Their ordinary arms are gilt pole axes. Their pension is 100l. per annum.

PENSION, (pension, Fr.) a salary.—An allowance given for present or past services, revocable at the will of the donor, in some instances, and, in others, extended to families.

Military PENSIONS (Pensions militaires, Fr.), annual allowances or pensions, which are given to officers for military services, and which are frequently continued to their widows and children. With us, these pensions are sometimes accompanied by other marks of public gratitude: in which cases they are voted by parliament, or given by bodies corporate.

PENSIONS for officers' widows:—Colonel's widow, 80l. lieutenant-colonel's, 50l. major's, 40l. captain's, 30l. lieutenant's, 26l. ensign's, 20l. cornet's, 20l. adjutant's, 20l. quarter-master's, 20l. and chaplain's, 16l. paymaster of the regiment or district, 20l. surgeon of the regiment, 20l. staff-surgeon and apothecary, 20l. physician and purveyor, 30l. assistant and veterinary surgeon, 20l. deputy purveyor, and hospital mate occasionally, 16l.

The widows of all commissioned officers belonging to the British service, are entitled to receive a certain annual allowance, according to the several ranks.
ranks of their husbands. Instructions to this end are signed by the king, and lodged with the paymaster general.—The widows of warrant officers are not included in the regulation. It has sometimes, however, happened, that the king has granted a pension of 16l. a year to the widow of a quarter master of dragoons, who is a warrant officer, when His Majesty has thought such widow a proper object of his bounty.

When a widow applies for a pension, a certificate is required, signed by the colonel and agent of the regiment, to which her husband belonged, together with an affidavit of her own annexed; in which she swears, that she is the real widow of the officer mentioned in the said certificate; whereupon the king grants a warrant, which is countersigned by the secretary at war, for the pension, agreeable to the regulation; and when this is granted, the widow receives her pension clear, without deduction. As often as the widows receive their pensions, they are obliged to make oath (except in a few instances where the oath has been dispensed with) that they continue the widows of such officers; and that they have no provision, or other pension, from the government, either in Great Britain or Ireland: which oath is all that is required of them, if they come themselves; but if they empower any other persons, by letter of attorney, to receive pensions, those persons must bring a certificate from the minister and churchwardens of the parish, where the widows live, testifying, that such widows are living, and, to the best of their knowledge, continue the widows of such officers.

The whole annual fund is issued to the paymaster within the compass of sixteen months; and the payments are issued every four months after eight are due to those who demand them. It however sometimes happens, though rarely (for officers seldom die rich), that some widows, who are rich, do not apply above once in two or three years. In the report from the committee appointed to consider the state of His Majesty's land forces and marines, so far as related to the distribution of the money, granted by parliament for the pay, &c. of the said forces, which was made as far back as the 6th of June, 1746, we find the above particulars, with the following additional observations:—It appeared on the examination of a witness before the said committee, that no widow had ever been denied her pension on account of the deficiency of the fund; but there were often more claimants than one, as widow to the same officer; and that there was then a dispute of that nature depending; in which case, as often as it happened, the money was reserved in the paymaster's hands, till the contest was decided.

In time of peace a warrant is usually made out annually in June or July, to place such widows upon the pension, as apply and are entitled; and lists are made out of those who had so applied. In time of war those lists are made out more frequently.

The widows of marine officers are upon the same establishment, and the fund for them is blended with that for the others by the paymaster. When widows receive the pension without making the affidavit required by the king's instructions, specific warrants must be made out for that purpose. From 1728 to 1746, pensions paid in this manner amounted to 314l. per annum.

For further particulars and certificate, see Military Finance.

PENTACAPSULAR, having five cavities.

PENTAEDEOUS, having five sides.

PENTAGON, in fortification, a figure bounded by five sides, or polygons, which form so many angles, capable of being fortified with an equal number of bastions. It also denotes a fort with five bastions.

PENTAGRAPHS, (Pentagraphe, Fr.) an instrument whereby designs, &c. may be copied in any proportion, without the person, who uses it, being skilled in drawing.

PENTANGLE, a figure having five angles.

PENTANGULAR. See PENTAGON.

PENTAPOLIS, in geography, a country consisting of five cities. This name was given, particularly, to the valley wherein stood the five infamous cities destroyed by fire and brimstone in Abraham's time. The most celebrated Pentapolis was the Pentapolis Cyrenaica in Egypt, whose cities were Bere-
Berenice, Arsinoe, Ptolemais, Cyrene, and Apollonia.

PENTASPAST (Pentapaste, Fr.), an engine that has five pulleys.

PENTATHLON, the five exercises performed in the Grecian games, viz. leaping, running, quoitng, darting, and wrestling.

PENTHOUSE, a shed hanging forward in a sloping direction from the main wall of a place.

PEONS, Ind. foot soldiers. People of colour, so called in the Spanish islands; a set of vagabonds who casually visit the islands from the continent, and who are ready to join in any disorder that affords a prospect of plunder. The majority of the slaves in Trinidad, &c. consist of these people. These men are chiefly employed to assist in collecting the revenues. Most persons in India keep servants, who wear a belt with the master's name: these are likewise called Peons or Puns.

PEON also means an allowance which is paid in money to the troops at Madras only. It is called Peon and Oil Money.

PEOPLE of Colour. Blacks, and Mulattoes, &c. so called. They form part of the British territorial army, and are distributed, in corps, among our West India islands.

PEPLEGMENON, an order of battle which was used amongst the Greeks, and consisted in a centre being so formed by the two wings of an army, as to stand advanced against an opposing enemy.

PERAMBULATOR. See PEDOMETER.

PERCER, Fr. This word has various significations in the French language. It also means to make one's way, or to rise from the lowest, to the highest station. Hence, il a percé tout le régiment; toute l'armée: he rose or made his way through the whole regiment; the whole army.

PERCH, in mensuration, is ten feet long. See MEASURE.

PERCH, a measure which contains sixteen feet and a half.

PERCUSSION, the impression which a body makes in falling or striking upon another, or the shock of two moving bodies. It is either direct or oblique.

Direct Percussion, is where the impulse is given in the direction of a right line perpendicular to the point of contact.

Oblique Percussion, when it is given in the direction of a line oblique to the point of contact.

Center of Percussion, that point wherein the shock of the percussive bodies is the greatest.

PERCUTIENT, striking against or upon.

PERDREAUX, Fr. a quantity of grenades, which are cast out of a mortar with one shell.

PERDUE, a word adopted from the French, signifying to lie flat and closely in wait. It likewise means the forlorn hope.

A corps PERDÉ, Fr. desperately.

A coup PERDÉ, Fr. at random.

Comp PERDÉ, Fr. random shot.

PEREMPTORY, whatever is absolute and final, not to be altered, renewed, or restrained. Peremptory execution, what takes place immediately.

PERE, Ind. See PEER.

PERFIDIOUS, (perfidie, Fr.) treacherous, false to trust, guilty of violated faith.

Hence a perfidious foe. War, however melancholy in its effects, and frequently unjustifiable in its cause and progress, is nevertheless, among civilised nations, so far governed by certain principles of honour, as to render the observance of established laws and customs an object of general acquiescence. When two or more countries are engaged in a hostile contest, whatever belligerent party grossly deviates from those rules, is deservedly stamped with infamy, and justly called "a perfidious foe."

Perfidiously, treacherously, falsely, without faith.

PERFIDY, want of faith, treachery.

PERGUNNA, Ind. a district.

PERIL-ÉMINENT ou imminent, Fr. eminent or imminent danger. The French sometimes use the words eminent and imminent in the same sense viz. to signify great or ready to come upon us, hanging over us. The French also say, Péril évident, evident danger; that is, certain danger. Affronter, craindre, éviter, braver le péril, to face, to fear, to avoid, to brave danger; S'exposer au péril, to expose oneself to danger; Sens- gager dans le péril, to engage or embank oneself in danger; Étre en péril, to
to be in danger; Courir au péril, to run into danger; Se charger d'une commission militaire à ses risques et périls, to undertake a military commission or project at one's own risk and peril.

PERIMETER, (Périmètre, Fr.) in geometry, the extent that bounds any figure or body. The perimeters of figures or surfaces, are lines; those of bodies are surfaces. In circular figures, &c. we use circumference or periphery instead of perimeter.

PERIOD. This word is frequently used in military accounts, to express the intermediate time for which money has been issued to officers or soldiers.

Broken Period, a term used in the returns and financial statements of the British army, when the regular distribution of pay is interrupted, or the effective force is lessened by the absence of one or more individuals, or by any other cause. A correct and faithful statement of broken periods is essentially necessary in every well regulated regiment, as not only the service, but the public purse may be materially injured by the neglect, or embezzlement of individuals. Adjutants and paymasters cannot be too scrupulously minute on this important head.

PERIPHERY, the circumference, as of a circle.

PÉRIR, Fr. This word is used to express the calamitous situation of an army, which has been frequently defeated, or otherways injured and broken down. Hence les combats ont fait périr une partie de l'armée, part of the army perished, or was destroyed in action.

PERISTYLE, a circular range of pillars for the support or ornament of any building, &c. used in the ancient amphitheatres.

PERKERNUCKA, Ind. petty officers are so called in India.

PERMANENT Fortification, is defined to be the art of fortifying towns, &c. so as to resist the attacks of an enemy that makes regular approaches.

PERMANENT Rank, a rank in the army, which does not cease with any particular service, or locality of circumstances; in opposition to local or temporary rank. See RANK.

PERPENDICULAR, in fortification, (perpendiculaire, Fr.) according to Vau-
have frequent occasion to quote, makes the following comment or observation on this word: A general, or a sovereign who does not possess talents enough to extricate himself out of a perplexed situation, or state of things; who gives way to anxiety, and secludes himself because he is at a loss to know what to do, from wanting resolution and manly daring: such a man, if a general, is not fit to command an army; and if a king, unworthy to govern a people.

PERQUISITES, all manner of profits arising from an office or place, independent of the actual salary or revenue. In a military sense, perquisites are certain advantages and emoluments which are allowed to persons in responsible situations. Of this description may be considered the clothing of regiments, which exclusively belongs to colonels of corps, and which, for the sake of the dignity of the British army, ought to be transferred to a clothing board.

PERRIERE, Fr. an iron bar, which is sharp at one end, and which is used in casting ordnance.

PERRIERES, Fr. See CLIDE.

PERSIAN Language, Ind. there are two sorts; the ancient, called Zeban-e-Pehlawy; the modern, called Zebaun-e-dery.

PERSPECTIVE, is the art of drawing the resemblances or pictures of objects on a plane surface, as the objects themselves appear to the eye, &c.

PERSPECTIVE Elevation. See SCENOGRAPHY.

PERSPECTIVE Militaire, Fr. military perspective, or the art of drawing objects for military purposes, by sketching them on paper from any point, taken at will, from the distance of the perspective, with which all the lines that are drawn on the horizontal or inferior part of the plane must correspond at equal distances. In a figurative sense, military perspective may be considered as containing those remote but enticing points of human emulation, towards which every military man directs his views and talents, in order to secure, by good conduct and brilliant actions, high rank and unblemished reputation in arms.

PERSONAL, relating to one's private actions or character. It ought invariably to be impressed upon the minds of officers, that nothing tends so much to disunion, &c. as personal remarks or applications.

PERSONAL INSULT, (injure personnelle, Fr.) a direct affront which is given to a person in such a manner, that it is impossible to misconstrue the intention. Insults of this description seldom occur in the army, as their consequences are generally fatal.

PERSONNALITÉ, Fr. The French use this word to express the character and quality of what may be personal.—Juger sans personnalité, to judge without personal prejudice. It also signifies self-conceit, self-occupation, egotism, c'est officier est d'une personnalité odieuse, that officer is full of himself even to disgust.

PETE, Fr. loss.

La Perte d'une bataille, Fr. the loss of a battle.

Pure Perte, Fr. the French use this term in the same sense that we do, viz. pure loss, i.e. downright loss. Thus, when two powers, at war with each other, are in perpetual conflict and bloodshed, during a whole campaign, without coming to any thing decisive, they may be said to fight en pure perte, or with downright loss on both sides.—So Engled and France may be said hitherto to have fought en pure perte.

PERTUIS, Fr. a narrow pass. See DÉTROIT.

PERTUISANE, Fr. a halbert which has a longer and broader iron at the end than the common halberds have.—Pertuisanes were formerly given, in the French service, to the infantry, in order to enable them to withstand the shock of cavalry. They were laid aside in 1670, and confined to the invalids, who continued, and perhaps still continue, to use them in France, during the monarchy.

PERUST, Ind. a small weight or measure, equal to four koudups or puli.

PERWANNA, Ind. an order, warrant, or letter, signed by a nawaub or nabob.

PESHWA, or PAISHWA, Ind. prime minister, the acting head of the Morat-too states.

PESTLE, an instrument used in the fabrication of gunpowder. See GUNPOWDER MILL.

PETARD, or PETARDO, an engine
to burst open the gates of small fortresses: it is made of gun-metal, fixed upon a board two inches thick, and about 2½ feet square, to which it is screwed, and holds from 9 to 20 pounds of powder, with a hole at the end opposite to the plank to fill it, into which the vent is screwed: the petard, thus prepared, is hung against the gate by means of a hook, or supported by three staves fastened to the plank: when fired it bursts open the gate. Its invention is ascribed to the French Huguenots in 1579, who, by means of petards, took Cahors in the same year.

Petards are of four different sizes: the first contains 12lbs. 13oz. second 10lbs. 11oz. third 11b. 10oz. fourth 11b. The blind fuse composition for them is of mealed powder, 7lb. wood ashes 3oz.

PÉTARDEAUX, Fr. pieces of wood covered with wool and pitch, which are used to stop the holes that are made in the sides of a ship by cannon ball, during an engagement.

PÉTARDER, Fr. to fire petards.

PÉTARDIER, the man who loads, fixes, and fires the petard. It likewise signifies, among the French, the man who makes or throws a petard.

PÉTARDIER, Fr. also means an artillery officer, who is ordered to blow up the gates of a fortified place.

PÉTAUX, Bibaux, Tuffes, Fr. according to Montrelet and Fruissard, two French writers, these were foot soldiers armed with large pikes, who lived on plunder. A. T. Gaume, author of the Nouveaux Dictionnaire Militaire, published in 1801, says, that the name of pétiaux was formerly given to those peasants who were enlisted by force.

PETEL, Ind. the head of a village.

PETER, Fr. in a military sense, to explode, to make a loud noise.

PÉTEROLLES, Fr. squibs, such as children make and use in the streets for their diversion.

PÉTITE-GUERRE, Fr. See Guerre, for its definition.

PÉTITE-GUERRE, or a war of posts, is carried on by a light party, commanded by an expert partisan, and which should consist of 1000 or 2000 men, separated from the army, to secure the camp or cover a march; to reconnoitre the enemy or the country; to seize their posts, convoy, and escorts; to plant ambuscades, and to put in practice every stratagem for surprising or disturbing the enemy; which is called carrying on the petite-guerre. The genius of these days, and the operations of the last war, have placed the service of such a corps in a most respectable light, as it is more fatiguing, more dangerous, and more distasteful than any other.

To form a corps capable of carrying on the petite-guerre to advantage, prudence requires that it should consist of 1000 men at least, without which a partisan cannot expect to support the fatigues of a campaign, and seize the most important occasions that every where offer, and which a too great inferiority must make him forego.

It is no less important, that this corps should be composed of infantry and cavalry; and as it is most incontestable that the cavalry should be the most active in carrying on the petite-guerre, it were to be wished, that they were likewise the strongest, so as to have 600 cavalry and 400 infantry in a corps of 1000 men, making four companies of infantry, and twelve troops of cavalry. Each company of infantry to consist of 1 captain, 1 first and 2 second lieutenants, 4 serjeants, and 96 men, including 4 corporals, 4 lance-corpsals, and 2 drummers. Each troop of cavalry to consist of one captain, 1 first and 1 second lieutenant, a quarter-master, two serjeants, and 48 horsemen; including 4 corporals, a trumpeter, and farrier.

The commanding officer should have the naming of the officers of this corps, or at least the liberty to reject such as he is convinced are not qualified for such service. To support the honour of this corps, upon a solid and respectable footing, the strictest subordination must extend from the chief to all the officers, and the most rigid discipline, vigilance, patience, bravery, and love of glory, ought to pervade the whole corps.

PETITION. See Memorial.

PETRARIA. See MANGON.

PETRE. See Nitre, Saltpetre.

PETRINAL, or POITRINAL, Fr. a species of fire-arms between the arquebuse and the pistol, which was used among the French, during the reign of Francis I. There is mention made of it
in an account of the siege of Itouen, which was undertaken by Henry IV. in 1599. It was shorter than the musquet but of a heavier calibre, and not unlike our blunderbuss; being slung in a cross belt, so as to rest upon the chest of the person who discharged it. From this circumstance it obtained the name of Poitrinal.

PETRONEL. See PISTOL.

PETTAH, Ind. a town adjoining to a fort, which is in general surrounded by a fence of bamboos, a wall, and a ditch.

PETTICOAT, the loose piece of garment which hangs from the waist of a Highlander is sometimes so Called.

PETTICOAT-Interest, a figurative expression, in common usage among the civil, as well as the military, servants of government. The influence of woman, if tradition be correct, is coeval with the first origin of man, and the primary cause of his first fall. From that period down to the present day, female ascendancy has never ceased to prevail. Sometimes, indeed, it has been the medium of much good; at others, of incalculable mischief to mankind; but at no time has it ever been wholly inactive. Even in those countries, and under those laws, particularly under the salique law, (where, one would imagine, the interposition of woman could have little or no weight,) the secret spring of the most important movements may be traced to this, mistress of the human heart: nor is even the seraglio a stranger to its influence. How many brave men, because they have either not been known, or if known, have not proved agreeable to the mistress of a king, or of a minister, or to the dirty panders of them both, have been doomed to obscurity; whilst an unfledged stripling, perhaps, has stepped into the situation which nature and talents had destined for the former. This is, indeed, a melancholy perversion of the allowed influence which the fairest part of creation ought to have in human affairs; but it must be acknowledged, on the other hand, that there have been women, and probably there may still be some, (even in this degenerate age,) who have employed their powers for purposes the most refined, and the most honourable. With such women petticoat-interest becomes a blessing to community; and that such only should exist ought to be the prayer of every brave and aspiring officer.

PEUPLER, Fr. literally means to people. This expression is used in a military sense by Béjair, author of Éléments de Fortification, in the following manner:—il faut peupler la surface d'un glacis de Pierriers. The surface of a glacis ought to be well covered with pedereros. See page 338.

PHALANGE, Fr. See PHALANX.

PHALANX, a word taken from the Greek. In antiquity, a square, compact battalion, formed of infantry, set close with their shields joined, and pikes turned across. It consisted of 8000 men, and Livy says, it was invented by the Macedonians; and hence called the Macedonian phalanx.

PHALANX, (phalange, Fr.) According to Mauvillon, in his Éssai sur l'influence de la poudre à canon dans l'art de la guerre moderne, the phalanx, among the Greeks, consisted of heavy armed troops, called the Hoplites, who stood in the centre. A complete phalanx consisted of 16,384, drawn up in sixteen ranks, and each rank containing 1094 files. This phalanx, in order of battle, occupied 3072 feet in front, and 48 in depth, consisting of 16,000 odd hundred men. Mauvillon describes the ancient phalanx as having been executed in three different ways: the Macedonian phalanx, by the leading file coming to the right about, and remaining stationary. The other files moved behind him by the right, and as soon as they had marched a given number of paces, in order to arrive at a proper distance, they stood in their original order, after having faced about.

The second kind of phalanx was called the Lacedemonian, and was thought preferable to the first; because the phalanx, instead of filing to the rear, marched forwards to the direction where it was to face. The leading file, in facing, marched by those that were in his rear; and they, as their turn came, also faced and followed their leading files. When the head file had thus gone over twice the depth of ground that was occupied by the phalanx, it halted. The serre-file came to the right about, and the whole stood in their proper direction.

The third evolution, which was called the
the Cretan, Persian, or Choricus, was performed in this manner: the leading file faced to the right, and counter-marched: each succeeding file did the same, turning upon their own ground; and when they had marched over the depth of ground which was occupied by the phalanx, and stood where the serre-files had been stationed, the whole halted, and the evolution was thus completed. This was reckoned the best mode, because, in addition to all the advantages of the Lacedemonian, it was executed in half the time that was necessary to the other two.

Phalarica, a javelin, or long dart, of a particular construction, which was formerly used by the inhabitants of Saguntum, when they so valiantly stood the siege of it. Saguntum was the ancient site of Mavriedro, an old town of Valencia, in Spain; which was taken by Lord Peterborough in 1706. This weapon was very thick, and had a sharp piece of iron, four feet long, attached to it. It was used either as a weapon of close attack and defence, or as a fire-arm; being, in the latter case, wrapped up in tow and pitch, and then set fire to, cast out of the balista against the enemy's wooden towers and other machines, for the purpose of consuming them. They were sent with so much force, that they pierced through armed bodies of men, and rendered all attempts to extinguish the flames useless and unavailing. It is also mentioned by Virgil as a pike or dart to be thrown by the hand.

Phalerus, a collar which was worn by the Romans as a mark of distinction. It was different from the torques; the latter being round and close to the neck, and of massive gold; whereas, the former was flat, hung upon the breast, and was merely adorned with a few gold nobs. The phalerus was indiscriminately given to all officers who had distinguished themselves in action. According to Persius, phalerus also signified the trappings and ornaments of a horse.

Phaeton, (Phaeton, Fr.) the allegorical history of this young god contains one of those instructive lessons, which ought always to be present to the mind of every man, who either aspires to rule a country, or is ambitious to command an army: nor is the fable without an applicable moral to most public characters.

Pharos, (Phare, Fr.) a light-house or pile raised near a port, where a fire is kept burning in the night to direct vessels near at hand. The Pharos of Alexandria, built at the mouth of the Nile, was anciently very famous; whence the name was derived to all the rest. — Ozanam says, Pharos anciently denoted a straight, as the Pharos or Pharo of Messina.

Pharsalia, so called from Pharsalus, anciently a town in Thessaly, now Turkey in Europe, which lies a little to the south of Larissa. This spot was rendered memorable in history by the battle that was fought between Pompey and Cæsar, when they contended for the empire of the world. Plutarch has given the following account of the engagement:

"Both armies were now arrived at the fields of Pharsalia, conducted by the two greatest generals alive; Pompey, at the head of all the Roman nobility, the flower of Italy and Asia, all armed in the cause of liberty. Cæsar at the head of a body of troops firmly attached to his interests, men who had faced every appearance of danger, were long inured to hardships, and had grown from youth to age in the practice of arms. Both camps lay in sight of each other. In this manner they spent the night; when next morning, as Cæsar's army was going to decamp, word was brought him, that a tumult and murmur were heard in Pompey's camp, as of men preparing for battle. Another messenger came soon after with tidings, that the first ranks were already drawn out. Cæsar now seemed to enjoy the object of his wishes. Now, cried he to his soldiers, the wished-for day is come, when you shall fight with men, not with want and hunger. His soldiers, with joy in their looks, went each to his rank, like dancers on a stage; while Cæsar himself, at the head of his tenth legion, (a body of men that had never yet been broken), with silence and intrepidity waited for the onset. While Cæsar was thus employed, Pompey on horseback viewed both armies; and seeing the steady order of the enemy, with the impatience of his own soldiers, he gave strict orders, that the vanguard should make a stand, and keeping
keeping close in their ranks, receive the enemy. Pompey’s army consisted of 45,000 men, Caesar’s not quite half that number. And now the trumpet sounded the signal for battle on both sides, and both armies approached each other.

While yet but a little space remained between either army, Caius Crastinus, a devoted Roman, issued from Caesar’s army at the head of 120 men, and began the engagement. They cut through the opposite ranks with their swords, and made a great slaughter; but Crastinus still pressing forward, a soldier ran him through the mouth, and the weapon came out at the back of his neck. In the mean time Pompey, designing to surround Caesar, and to force his horse, which amounted to only 1000, to fall back upon his infantry, gave orders that his own cavalry, consisting of 7000 men, should extend itself, and then attack the enemy. Caesar expecting this, had placed 8000 foot in reserve, who rushed out fiercely, and, attacking Pompey’s horse, let fly their javelins in the faces of the young delicate Romans, who, careful of their beauty, turned their backs, and were shamefully put to flight. Caesar’s men, without pursuing them, flanked the enemy, now unprotected by their horse, and soon a total rout began to ensue. Pompey, by the dust he saw flying in the air, quickly conjectured that his cavalry was overthrown, and overpowered by the event, retired to his camp in agony and silence. In this condition he sat pondering in his tent, till roused by the shouts of the enemy breaking into his camp, he cried out, *What, into the very camp!* and without uttering anything more, but putting on a mean habit, to disguise his flight, he departed secretly.” During the seven years war, Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, was much in the same situation. He had retired to his tent, and had given up everything for lost, when the daring enterprise of Ziethen, who commanded the Death Hussars, turned the fortune of the day; and though he lost an incalculable number of Prussians, he secured the victory, and thereby restored to his master both his kingdom and his crown. Perhaps a comparison might be drawn between Caius Crastinus and Desaix; each having contributed most essentially to the issue of two battles, which are not unlike each other, either in the manner they were fought, or in the events they produced. Caesar gained an empire, and Bonaparte obtained the ascendancy of Europe.

PHATUK, Ind. a gaol or prison. It likewise means a gate.

PHAGUN, Ind. a month, which in some degree agrees with February and March.

PHILEBEG, or Kilt, from the Gaelic, *Fiddleadh beg,* which signifies a little plaid. This part of the Highland dress corresponds with the lower part of a belted plaid, and is frequently worn as an undress by Highland officers and soldiers. The philebeg or kilt may be considered as a very good substitute for the belted plaid, as it is not, at present, thought necessary for the Highlander to carry his clothing for the night, as well as by day, about his person. This was the case in ancient times, when the breacan answered both purposes. The philebeg is a modern invention, and is the garment which some, who have endeavoured to establish the antiquity of *Truis,* confound with the *Breacan Fiddleadh.*

*The PHILOSOPHER’S STONE* (la pierre philosophae des militaires, Fr.) is as much as it regards military men. Although, strictly speaking, this article may be considered (to use a common phrase) as far fetched, and in some degree extraneous to a Military Dictionary, we are nevertheless persuaded, that a certain attention to Ethics cannot be injurious to any set of men. We think, on the contrary, that in a profession, where, of all others, nice honour, unstained integrity, and proud notions of rectitude, ought to be eminently conspicuous, the means of securing those enviable qualities cannot be too often impressed upon the young military mind. Our French author has expressed himself on this subject in the following manner; and we shall leave our English readers to reap the benefit of his observations. “It is a truth well known, that there have been, and that there still are, very wealthy individuals, who have gone into the deepest researches of chemistry, with no other prospect in view than that
that of adding to their riches; and it is equally true, that they have always missed, and always will miss, the object of their ambition; leaving their impoverished children to bewail the absurdity of their attempt. There are other men who seek the philosopher's stone in the dirty precincts of the Alley; who enter into the wildest speculations, and form connexions with the most unprincipled, and the most debased;—making bargains in a state of intoxication, or after a rich repast; which ultimately lead them to the hospital, or to the side of some river, in order to lose, with life, the remembrance of their weakness. There is also another class of individuals, who do not, indeed, ruin themselves (being already in possession of enough not to stand in need of adventitious or hazardous speculations), but whose sole ambition is to swell their store of wealth, and who deny themselves the common necessities of life, because avarice is settled in their hearts. These men cannot be said to have found the philosopher's stone; which, in my humble opinion, consists wholly in that easy affluence that has been obtained by merit, and by industrious talents; which renders the possessor of it affable and condescending to all his fellow creatures, without exception; scrupulously attached to his several duties in society, respectful to his superiors, uniformity just to his neighbour, engaging in his manners, and not only delicate in his demeanour towards the fair sex, but polite and gentlemanlike to mankind at large; which makes him full of honour and honesty, steadfast to his trust and faithful to his engagements, firm in adversity, and not too much elated by good fortune; which teaches him to mix application and innocent amusement together, and to avoid bad company, however alluring it may seem, and to keep aloof from all those dirty little schemes and projects, which are incompatible with the noble profession of arms, and which must be disgraced and rendered contemptible when it sinks into the society of low minded, and mere money-getting jobbers. Such is the course of life, and such the rule of conduct (continues our author), which in my judgment, will never fail to put young officers in position of the only true philosopher's stone; and by means of which they will get through life with ease, comfort, and reputation. Hope, and unmolested rest (the sure concomitant of a good conscience!) are the support of man through all the vicissitudes of life. Let it, therefore, be inculcated upon the mind, and engraved on the heart of every young officer, that to be happy, he must not only be just, but also be honourable. The duty which he owes to his profession is sacred, and the least blemish in his character, must bring it down to the common level of every mercenary calling."

PHIRMAUND, Ind. This word is sometimes written Firmaun, and signifies a royal commission, mandate, or allowance.

PHOUSDAR, Ind. The same as Pousdar, the superintendent of a large district. It more immediately signifies the commander of a large body of forces.

PHOUS-DAN, Ind. the commander of a body of forces.

PIANISTE, Fr. a person infected with the venereal disorder.

A PIC, Fr. perpendicularly.

PICE, Ind. a copper coin, used in most parts of India, but differing greatly in value.

PICAROON, a pillager, one who plunders.

PICK, { A sharp pointed iron PICK-AXE, tool, used in trenching.
PICKER, } ing, &c. to loosen the ground.

Picker likewise means a small pointed piece of brass or iron wire, which every soldier carries to clear the thick hole of his musquet. The brass pickers are the best, because they are not liable to snap or break off.

PICKET', (piquet, Fr.) an out-guard posted before an army, to give notice of an enemy approaching. See GUARD.

Picket, a kind of punishment so called, where a soldier stands with one foot upon a sharp pointed stake; the time of his standing is limited according to the offence.

PICKETS, in fortification, stakes sharp at one end, and sometimes shod with iron, used in laying out the ground, of about three feet long; but, when used for pinning the fascines of a battery, they are from 3 to 5 feet long.

PICKETS, in artillery, are about 5 or 6 feet
6 feet long, shod with iron, to pin the park lines, and to lay out the boundaries of the park.

Pickets, in the camp, are also stakes of about 6 or 8 inches long, to fasten the tent cords, in pitching the tents; also, of about 4 or 5 feet long, driven into the ground near the tents of the horsemen, to tie their horses to.

Picket Ropes, commonly called breast lines: these are ropes which are twisted at given intervals round the several picket stakes, and serve to confine the horses within a proper space of ground. They are called breast-lines, because the pickets or stakes should always be long enough to adhere firmly to the soil, when driven in, and to stand breast high. When the pickets are too short, unruly horses, or any horses indeed not accustomed to stand at picket, will either drag them up, or throw their legs over the breast lines, and get entangled. Heavy cavalry ought to have pickets of 6 feet; the common stakes are from 4 to 5 feet.

Picroëe, Fr. an obsolete French term, signifying a party of soldiers who go out in search of plunder.

Picorer, Fr. to go out in search of plunder. Obsolete.

Picouer, Fr. a marauder.

Picqueering, Pickering, Pickerooning, a little flying skirmish, which soldiers make, when detached for pillage, or before a main battle begins.

Pics-hoyaux, Fr. Different sorts of pick-axes used by the pioneers.

Picts, a people which in ancient times inhabited a part of Scotland, and, together with the Scots, made frequent incursions into England. Their depredations were checked by the Romans, when the emperor Severus landed an army in Britain, and delivered the poor natives from their miserable tyranny. An excellent historian calls this act of the Roman emperor, the greatest honour of his reign. See Rise and Progress of the Roman Empire, in Kennett's Antiquities, p. 22.

Picts Wall, in antiquity, a celebrated piece of Roman work, begun by the emperor Adrian, on the northern bounds of England, to prevent the incursions of the Picts and Scots. At first it was only made of turf, strengthened with palleradoes, till the emperor Severus, coming in person, into Britain, built it with solid stone, reaching eighty miles from the Irish to the German sea, or from Carlisle to Newcastle upon Tyne, with watch towers garrisoned at the distance of one mile from each other. It was ruined several times by the Picts, and often repaired by the Romans. At last, Oetius, a Roman general, rebuilt it of brick; and the Picts ruining it the year following, it was no longer regarded but as a boundary betwixt two nations. It was eight feet thick, and twelve high from the ground; it ran on the north side of the rivers Tyne and Irthing up and down several hills; the remains of which are, to this day, to be seen in Cumberland and Northumberland.

PIECE (Pièce, Fr.). This word is variously used, in a military sense, by the French and English, viz.

PIECES of Ordnance are all sorts of great guns and mortars.

Battering Pieces are the large guns which serve at siege to make breaches, such as the 24-pounder, and the culverin, which carries 18lb. ball.

Garrison-Pieces, are mostly heavy 12, 18, 24, 36, and 42-pounders, besides wall guns.

Field Pieces are twelve pounders, demi-culverins, six pounders, sakers, minions, and three pounders, which move with an army, and are parked behind the second line when it encamps, but are advanced in front, in the intervals of battalions, &c. and on the flanks in the day of battle.

Regimental Pieces, are light 6-pounders: each regiment has generally two of these pieces.

Piece is likewise used to express a soldier's musquet.

Un homme armé de toutes Pieces, Fr. a man armed at all points, or cap-a-pied.

Pieces d'honneur, Fr. the insignia or marks of honour. These consist of the crown, sceptre, and sword.

Une Pièce d'artillerie, une Pièce de canun, Fr. These terms are used by the French to signify cannon in general.

Pièces de Batterie, Fr. See Battering Pieces.

Pièces de Campagne, Fr. See Field Pieces.

Pièces de vingt-quatre, Fr. twenty-four pounders.
PIE

Pieces de trente-six, Fr. thirty-six pounders. When pieces are not specifically named, the term is used in the same general sense by the English, as, one hundred pieces of cannon, or artillery: cent pièces d'artillerie; but when the calibre is mentioned, we substitute the word pouder for piece: as, une pièce de vingt-quatre, a four and twenty pounder.

Démonter les Pieces, Fr. to dismount cannon.
Enclouter les Pieces, Fr. to spike cannon.

Rafrachir les Pieces, Fr. to spunge or clean out cannon.

Piece de canon brisé, Fr. The French formerly made use of cannon that could be taken to pieces, and so rendered more portable. This species of ordnance was distinguished as above.

Piece versée en panier ou en cage, Fr. A piece of ordnance is said to be in this situation, when it is so completely overturned, as to have the wheels of its carriage in the air. Various methods have been proposed by able engineers to raise cannon that have been overturned. See Saint Remi, Manuel de l'Artilleur; and a late publication, intituled Aide Mémoire à l'usage des Officiers d'Artillerie de France.

Pieces légères, Fr. light pieces. See Field Pieces.

Pieces à la Suédoise, Fr. field pieces originally invented, and since used among the Swedes.

Pieces nettes, Fr. ordnance pieces or fire-arms, which have been proved, and are found perfectly sound.

Pieces de Chasse, Fr. a marine term, signifying the cannon that is placed on the stern and forecastle of a ship. We call them chase guns.

Pieces d'échappes, Travaux avancés en déchors, Fr. Those works which cover the body of a fortified place, towards the country; of this description are ravelins, demi-lunes, hornworks, tennelles, crownworks, queues d'hironde, enveloppes, &c.

To be cut to Pieces, (être écharpé, Fr.) The French say, Un tel régiment a été écharpé; such a regiment has been cut to pieces.

A PIED, Fr. on foot.
Pied à pied, Fr. foot by foot; gradually. Faire un logement pied à pied; to establish a lodgment foot by foot.

Forcer les ouvrages pied à pied; to make regular approaches, or to besiege a town by opening trenches, &c. instead of insulting it by a direct attack.

Troupes retenues sur Pied, Fr. troops kept upon full pay.

Être en Pied, Fr. to be kept upon full pay, in contradistinction to reformé, or being reduced.
Pied de Roi, Fr. a measure containing twelve French inches, or one hundred and forty lines.
Pied Quarré, Fr. The French square foot contains the same dimensions in length and breadth, giving one hundred and forty inches of surface.

Pied de toise quarriée, Fr. the sixth part of a square toise. The square toise contains thirty-six feet, the square foot consequently comprehends six feet, and must be considered as a rectangle.
Pied Cube, Fr. the same measure according to three dimensions. It contains 1728 cubic inches.
Pied Rhenan or Rhinlandique, Fr. the German foot. See Measure.
Pied courant, Fr. the extent of a foot considered as to length only.
Pied marin, Fr. literally, sea leg.—See Marin.
Pied de mur ou de muraille, Fr. that lower part of a wall which is otherwise called Escarpe, and is contained between its base and top.
Pied de rempart, Fr. that extent of ground which lies between the fosse and the houses in a fortified town or place.
Pied droit, Fr. a side post or stay made of stone or wood, which is used by miners, in order to keep up or support any thing with effect.
Pied ferme, Fr. This word literally signifies firm foot. The French say, Attendre l'ennemi de pied ferme; to expect the enemy, or wait his attack with steadiness and composure. They also say, figuratively, Combattre de pied ferme; to fight steadily without quitting ground, or giving way.

Lacher le Pied, Fr. to give way.
Gagner au Pied, Fr. to take to one's heels, or to run away.
Pied poudreux, Fr. an expression of ridicule among the French, which is applied to any soldier that deserts from one regiment to another.

Au Pied de la lettre, Fr. literally.
PIÈGE, Fr. snare.

PIERRE.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fr.</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>père</td>
<td>a stone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>père à feu</td>
<td>a firestone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>père d’ fusil</td>
<td>a musket</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perrée</td>
<td>a drain, a watercourse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perrier</td>
<td>a swivel, a pedero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perrière</td>
<td>a quarry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perrieres</td>
<td>heaps of large stones which are hastily collected together near a fortified place, and are covered with earth, in order to conceal them from a besieging enemy. If grass should have grown upon it, the enemy will, in all probability, consider it as a mere eminence or commanding spot of ground, and will, of course, endeavour to get possession of it. The instant he makes the attempt, a heavy discharge of ordnance must be directed from the rampart against this heap, for the purpose of scattering the stones amongst the assailants, and necessarily-forcing them to retire. Perhaps it might add to this species of defence, were temporary works thrown up in front of the heap, and a mine laid underneath.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piers</td>
<td>the columns on which the arch of a bridge is raised</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pikes</td>
<td>knights that were created by Pope Pius IV. in 1560, with the titles of Counts Palatines. They took precedence, at Rome, of the knights of the Teutonic order, and of those of Malta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pitiner</td>
<td>to move the feet with great quickness. It likewise signifies to mark time, but not technically so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piton</td>
<td>a foot soldier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pieux</td>
<td>This word is sometimes used in the plural number to signify palisades</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pignon</td>
<td>the gable end of a building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pike</td>
<td>in war, an offensive weapon, consisting of a wooden shaft, 12 or 14 feet long, with a flat steel head, pointed, called the spear. This instrument was long in use among the infantry; but now the bayonet, which is fixed on the muzzle of the firelock, is substituted in its stead. The Macedonian phalanx consisted of a battalion of pikemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pikemen</td>
<td>soldiers armed with pikes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pikestaff</td>
<td>the wooden pole or handle of a pike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pila</td>
<td>a small standard which was used among the Romans, when the shields were piled together, over which it floated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pilani</td>
<td>Roman soldiers who were armed with a sort of spontoon, the iron of which was thick and long, called pilum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pile</td>
<td>(pieu, Fr.) a beam of wood, pointed, and frequently shod with iron, which is driven into the ground to form a solid foundation for building upon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pile</td>
<td>any heap; as a pile of balls, shells, &amp;c</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piles of shot or shells</td>
<td>are generally piled up in the king's magazines, in three different manners: the base is either a triangular square, or a rectangle; and from thence the piles are called triangular, square, and oblong</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**RULES for finding the Number in any PILE.**

**Triangular Pile.**
Multiply the base by the base + 1, this product by the base + 2, and divide by 6.

**Square Pile.**
Multiply the bottom row by the bottom row + 1, and this product by twice the bottom row + 1, and divide by 6.

**Rectangular Piles.**
Multiply the breadth of the base by itself + 1, and this product by three times the difference between the length and the breadth of the base, added to twice the breadth + 1, and divide by 6.

**Incomplete Piles.**
Incomplete piles being only frustums, wanting a similar small pile on the top, compute first the whole pile as if complete, and also the small pile wanting at top: and then subtract the one number from the other. Bombardier.

*Pile de boulets, Fr. see Pile of shot or shells.*

**To Pile arms,** to place three musquets, with fixed bayonets, in such a relative position, that the butts shall remain firm upon the ground, and the muzzles be close together in an oblique direction. This method has been adopted to prevent the injury which was formerly done to musquetry, when the practice of grounding the firelock prevailed. Every recruit should be taught how to pile arms before he is dismissed the drill.
PILIER, Fr. a buttress.
PILLAGE, (pillage, Fr.) the act of plundering.
To PILLAGE, to spoil, to waste, to plunder.
PILLAGER, a plunderer; one who gets a thing by violent or illegal means.
PILLAR, in a figurative sense, support. A well-disciplined army may be called the pillar of the state; an ill-disciplined one, the reverse.
PILLARS and ARCHES. It was customary among the ancients, particularly among the Romans, to erect public buildings, such as arches and pillars, for the reward and encouragement of noble enterprises. These marks were conferred upon such eminent persons as had either won a victory of extraordinary consequence abroad, or had rescued the Commonwealth from any considerable danger. The greatest actions of the heroes they stood to honour, were curiously expressed on the sides, and the whole procession of a triumph was sometimes cut out. The arches built by Romanus were only of brick; those of Camillus of plain square stone; but those of Caesar, Drusus, Titus, Trajan, Gordian, &c. were all entirely marble. As to their figure, they were at first semicircular; whence probably they took their names. Afterwards they were built four square, with a spacious arched gate in the middle, and little ones on each side. Upon the vaulted part of the middle gate, hung little winged images, representing victory, with crowns in their hands, which, when they were let down, they put upon the conqueror's head as he passed under the triumph.—Fabricii Roma, cap. 13.
The columns or pillars were converted to the same design as the arches, for the honourable memorial of some noble victory or exploit, after they had been a long time in use for the chief ornaments of the sepulchres of great men, as may be gathered from Homer, Iliad 16.
The pillars of the emperors Trajan and Antoninus, have been extremely admired for their beauty and curious work. We find them thus particularly described in page 59, of Kennett's Roman Antiquities.
The former was set up in the middle of Trajan's forum, being composed of 24 great stoves of marble, but so cu-
mile setting up a stone; whence came the phrase *Primaus ab urbe lapis*, and the like. This pillar, as Mr. Lascells informs us, is still to be seen.

*Pompey’s Pillar*, so famous in history, is also still to be seen in Egypt; notwithstanding the incursions of the French, and the subsequent victory of the English in that country. It is made entirely of granite, and measures from the earth (as it stands,) to the pinnacle, ninety feet. Had Bonaparte conquered the country, he would probably have imitated what Paulus Æmilius did at Delphi, and ordered his statue to be placed upon it. The Pillar at Delphi was square, and of white marble, and on it was to have been placed a golden statue of Persians. When the latter was conquered, Æmilius observed, that the conquered ought to give way to the conqueror. Perhaps the gratitude of the Ottoman court will, some day, pay a fair tribute to the memory of Sir Ralph Abercrombie.

*PILON*, Fr. a weapon, the use of which has been recommended by Marshal Saxe, in his plan for forming several battalions four deep. The two first ranks are to be armed with musquets, the third and fourth with large half-pikes or pionons, having their musquets slung across their shoulders.

The authority of Marshal Saxe is certainly too respectable to be hastily called in question; we are nevertheless of opinion, that a weapon which is eight or nine feet long must be extremely cumbersome and unweildy, not only in long marches, but likewise in the heat of battle. We may also ask, in conformity to that general’s own sentiments, how any soldier (who must have his musquet slung across his shoulders, whilst he uses the pionon or long pike) can act in broken and narrow passes?

*Pilox*, Fr. a drumstick.

*PILOTAGE*, Fr. pile-work. This is essentially useful in marshy grounds, &c.

*Pilotis*, Fr. a pile; a large stake.

*Pilum*, a species of javelin which was used by the Romans. They darted these weapons with so much force, that, according to tradition, two men have been pierced through, together with their shields or bucklers. The head of an arrow was likewise so called by the Romans.

*PIN*, an iron nail or bolt, with a round head, and generally with a hole at the end to receive a key: there are many sorts, as axle-tree pins, or bolts, bolster-pins, pole-pins, swing-tree-pins, &c.

There are likewise *musquet pins*, which are small pieces of iron or wire that fasten the stock. Soldiers are very apt to take out these pins in order to make their pieces ring; but they should not, on any account, be permitted to do so.

*PINASSE*, Fr. a pinnace.

*PINCES*, Fr. crows; instruments which are used by miners. The French distinguish them in the following manner:—*Pince simple*; *Pince à talon*; *Pince à pied de biche*; and *Pince à main*.

*PINDARES*, Ind. plunderers and marauders who accompany a Maharatta army.

*PINDARONS or Mardurers*, Ind. armed men in the East Indies who serve without pay, and subsist entirely by plunder.

To *PINION*, to bind the hands or arms of a person so as to prevent his having the free use of them.

*PINK*, a sort of small ship, masted and ribbed like other ships, except that she is built with a round stern, the bends and ribs compassing, so that her sides bulge out very much.

*PINTLE*, in artillery, a long iron bolt, fixed upon the middle of the limber-bolster, to go through the hole made in the trail-transom of a field-carriage, when it is to be transported from one place to another.

*PINTLE-plate*, is a flat iron, through which the pintle passes, and nailed to both sides of the bolster, with 8 diamond-headed nails.

*PINTLE-washer*, an iron ring through which the pintle passes, placed close to the bolster for the trail to move upon.

*PINTLE-hole*, is of an oval figure, made in the trail-transom of a field-carriage, wider above than below, to leave room for the pintle to play in.

*PIOBRACII*, the Gaelic word for an air played upon the bagpipe. It is now more strictly applied to the ancient Highland martial music. It is allowed by all persons who have heard the pio-brach, that it exceeds every other sort of music known in these kingdoms. It speaks
speaks forcibly to the mind, and is wonderfully descriptive of the various feelings to which the human heart is subject.

PIOBHALS, are either simple or compound; some of them consist of a march, &c. and are beautifully varied, and highly characteristic.

It is a circumstance to be regretted, that the origin of this species of music has not been more accurately traced; the more so, because we are inclined to think, with an obliging correspondent who has furnished some interesting particulars respecting the Highland dress, &c. that many words, &c. which have been ascribed to the ancient Romans, and to their degenerate successors, owe their origin and etymology to the hardy inhabitants of North Britain.

PIOCHE, Fr. a mattock, pick-axe.

PIOCHER, Fr. to dig.

PIONEERS, in war time, are such as are commanded in from the country, to march with an army, for mending the ways, for working on entrenchments and fortifications, and for making mines and approaches: the soldiers are likewise employed in all these things.

Most of the foreign regiments of artillery have half a company of pioneers, well instructed in that important branch of duty. Our regiments of infantry and cavalry have 3 or 4 pioneers each, provided with aprons, hatchets, saws, spades, and pick-axes.

PIONNIERS, Fr. pioneers.

PIPE, a tube; a musical instrument; a liquid measure, containing two hose-heads.

PIPE, from the Gaelic piob mohr, which signifies great pipe. The highland bagpipe is so called, and is an instrument well calculated for the field of battle.—When the bagpipe is skilfully performed, its martial music has a wonderful effect upon the native Scotch, particularly the Highlanders, who are naturally warlike. The pair of pipes which were presented by Sir Eyre Coote to the 71st regiment, during its gallowant services in the East Indies, are a memorable instance of the high estimation in which this native instrument has been uniformly held.

TAIL PIPE, a small brass pipe fixed at the swell of the musquet, which receives the ramrod.

Trumpet Pipe, a small brass pipe near the muzzle of the firelock, through which the ramrod is let down. It is called the trumpet-pipe from its resemblance to the mouth of a trumpet. The Prussians have no pipes to their muskets; the ramrod being received into a cylinder which runs parallel with the barrel.

PIPE-CLAY and Whiting, a composition which soldiers use for the purpose of keeping their cross-belts, &c. clean. Every soldier belonging to the infantry of the line, and to the fencible infantry serving at home, is stopped 4s. 4d. per annum to supply himself with pipe-clay and whiting.

PIQUE, Fr. a pike. Before the use of fire-arms, it was customary, among the French, to make use of this word by way of command or designation; hence, faire défier les piques, to make the pikes, or a body of men armed with pikes, break off or desist; le régiment est de tant de piques, the regiment consists of so many pikes, or men armed with pikes.

PIQUET, Fr. a stake. See Picket.

PIQUET, Fr. picket; a punishment so called in cavalry corps. See Picket.

PIQUET, Fr. a certain number of men, horse, or foot, who do duty for 24 hours to prevent surprises. See Picket.

PIQUET ferré par le bas et bien pointé, Fr. a picket or stake with a sharp iron ferrel at the end of it. It is used by engineers when they trace a plan, and wish to mark out the angles.

Lever le PIQUET, Fr. to call in the picket. It also signifies, figuratively, to decamp or march off the ground.

PIQUEUR, Fr. a man employed in the different workshops belonging to the artillery to superintend the works, and to keep an account of the several materials. There are other persons subordinate to these, whom the French call chassuvans, from chasse-en-avant, sort of overseers, whose business is to see the jobs expeditiously finished.

PIQUICHIINS, Fr. irregular and ill-armed soldiers, of which mention is made in the history of the reign of Philippe Auguste. They were attached to the infantry.

PIQUIER, ou Piquenaire, Fr. a pikeman, or one who is armed with a pike.
PIRAMIDE, Fr.—See Pyramid.
PIRAMIDES de feu, Fr.—See Jets de feu.
Pirate, Fr. a pirate.
Piste, Fr. the track or tread a horseman makes upon the ground he goes over.
Pistol, a species of small fire arms, of which there are various sorts and sizes, viz.
Highland Pistol. The old Highland pistol appears singular enough in the present day. Some, that have been preserved, exhibit marks of excellent workmanship. The stock is metal, and the butt end so shaped, that when fired off, the pistol can be used as a very serious weapon at close quarters. The Highland pistol, though never used by any of the British regiments, is still worn by every person who wishes to be considered as fully dressed and accoutred in the ancient garb. It is suspended from the left side of the waistbelt.
Horse-pistol, so called from being used on horseback, and of a large size.
Management of the Pistol on horseback for military purposes. Every recruit when he joins the horse-drill should be made perfectly acquainted with the handling of his pistol according to rule, and of firing correctly at a mark. To this end he must be taught to draw, load, fire, and return his pistol, by word of command, viz.
1st. The right glove is to be taken off, and the goat-skin thrown back.
Draw your right Pistol. This is done at two motions: 1st. the man must seize the handle of the pistol with his right hand, the back towards the body. 2d. Draw it out of the holster with a brisk motion, dropping the butt of the pistol on the right holster, and keeping the muzzle upwards.
Load your Pistole. The pistol is to be dropped smartly into the left hand; open the pan, prime, cast about, and load; as soon as loaded, seize the pistol by the butt, and come to the same position as in the second motion in drawing; the bridle hand must be kept as steady as possible. In loading the pistol, the barrel is to be kept to the front.
Return your Pistol. This is done in two motions: 1st. turn the muzzle into the holster, with the back of the hand towards the body, and press home the pistol. 2d. Quit the right hand briskly.
Cock your Pistol. Drop the pistol into the left hand, cocking with the thumb of the right, and as soon as done come to the second position, viz. muzzle upwards.
To the Right Present. Come smartly to a present, looking well along the barrel to the object you are presenting at, and turning your body as much as is necessary to aim well, but taking care not to displace your bridle hand.
Fire! Pull briskly at the word, and as soon as fired go on with the loading motions; when loaded, come to the position as in the first direction, viz. muzzle upwards.
Cock your Pistol, as already explained.
To the Left Present. This requires particular attention, as the men will be apt to bring their right shoulders too forward, and by that means displace their bodies and the bridle hand.
Fire! as already explained.
Cock your Pistol. To the Front Present. You must raise yourself in your stirrups, in order to take a proper aim; you must then look well along the pistol, and wait for the word Fire.
Fire! As soon as you have fired, you must drop into your seat, and go on with the loading motions, as before directed.
Return your Pistol, as already explained.
Draw your Left Pistol.—See Draw your Right Pistol.
Pocket-Pistol, a small pistol, which may be conveniently carried in the pocket.
Pistolet, Fr. a pistol. It derives its name from Pistoria, an episcopal town of Tuscany, in Italy; about 30 miles N. W. of Florence, where the first pistols were made; in the same manner that bayonets takes its appellation from Bayonne, an episcopal city of Gascony, in France; or, as some pretend, from Bayon, a town of Lorraine, in France; and as others again assert, from Bayona, a town of Galicia in Spain, seated on a small gulph of the Atlantic Ocean. The Reiters, who were armed with them, were called Pistoleurs, Pistoleers, as musquet-bearers were named musquettiers, musqueeteers.
PIV

PISTOLET D’Arçon, Fr. a pistol attached to the bow of a saddle, commonly called a horse-pistol.

PISTOLIER, Fr. This word is used among the French to signify an expert marksman with a pistol.

PITANS, Ind. according to Mr. Orme, in his history of the Carnatic, the Pitans are supposed to be the descendants of the northern Indians, who were early converted to Mahomedanism. They have been reckoned the best troops, and, of course, the most dangerous enemies of the throne of Delhi. They are naturally fierce.

PITAN Nabobs, certain chiefs in India so called, viz. of Cudapah, Canoul, and Savanore.

PITAUX, Fr. This word is sometimes written petaux, and was formerly used to distinguish those peasants that were pressed into the service, from soldiers who were regularly enlisted.

To PITCH, (asseoir, Fr.)

To PITCH a camp, (asseoir un camp, Fr.) to take a position, and to encamp troops upon it according to the principles of castrametation.

To PITCH a tent, to place a certain regulated quantity of canvas upon poles, so as to afford a temporary cover, against the inclemencies of the weather for one or more officers or private soldiers. In order that the men may become expert in pitching and striking tents, they ought to be practised whilst in camp to do either.

PITCHANDAH, Ind. a fortified pagoda on the north bank of the Cobroon, one mile east of Seringham. It was taken possession of, and immediately abandoned by the English army in July 1751. See pages 178, 179, of Orme’s History of the Carnatic.

PITONS, Fr. nails with round eyes. They likewise signify pins with iron pins.

PITONS d’affût, Fr. iron pins which are used to keep the plate-bands of the carriage of a cannon tight and compact.

PIVOT, (Pivot, Fr.) in a military sense, that officer, serjeant, corporal, or soldier, upon whom the different wheelings are made in military evolutions. There are two sorts of pivots distinguished according to the position of the troops who are governed by them, viz.

standing pivot and moveable pivot. When a battalion, for instance, stands in open column of companies, the right in front, the last man upon the left of the front rank of each company, is called the inner, or standing pivot; and the first man upon the right ditto, is called the outer, or wheeling flank. So much depends upon the accurate position of the different pivots, that no movement can be thoroughly correct unless the most scrupulous attention be paid to them.—Officers in particular ought to recollect, (what is so sensibly pointed out in the General Rules and Regulations) that when they are posted upon the flanks, they become essentially necessary to the preservation of that perpendicular and parallelism of a march, without which direction the best digested manœuvres must be ultimately rendered useless.—They must constantly bear in mind, that it belongs to the mounted field officers to watch the aggregate, and that they themselves, being incorporated parts of the different divisions, are to move successively forward, with no other object in view than the perpendicular point before them. For if they once turn to the right or left, or become anxious about the movements of others, instead of being the means of insensibly correcting any errors that might casually occur, they will deviate themselves, and at every step increase the irregularity. On this account, the instant an officer has wheeled his division, he must resume his perpendicular position, look steadfastly on his leading pivot, preserve his relative distance, and keep his person perfectly square. He ought likewise to be particularly correct in stepping off when the wheel is completed.

Moveable Pivot, one which during the wheel of its division advances in a circular direction, instead of turning on the spot where it originally stood. Thus when divisions, &c. are successively wheeled, without being first halted, the pivot upon which they wheel is said to be moveable.

In the drill, single ranks are frequently wheeled on a moveable pivot. In which case, both flanks are moveable, and describe concentrying circles round a point which is a few paces from what would otherwise be the standing flank; and eyes are all turned towards the directing
P L A

recting pivot man, whether he is on the outward flank, or on the flank wheeled to.

Pivot-Flanks, the flanks upon which a line is formed from column. When the right of the battalion is in front, the pivot flanks are on the left of its several companies, Platoons, &c. and vice versa, when the left is in front.

Pivot-flank officer, the officer who is on the first flank. In all wheelings during the march in column the officer on that flank upon which the wheel is made must consider himself as the pivot.

Platoon Pivots, the men upon whom a battalion marches in column of Platoons, is wheeled up into line, or backward into column, when the line has been formed according to a given front.

PLACAGE, Fr. in fortification, a kind of revetment, which is made of thick plastic earth, laid along the talus of such parapets as have no mason work, and which is covered with turf.

PLACARD, Fr. or, as it is in the original PLACART, a signal Dutch language, Placaat, a term used abroad for a proclamation, edict, &c. put up in all public places, by government authority; whereby their subjects are ordered to do, or forbear, something expressed therein. See Manifesto.

PLACARD, Fr. any bill, or public paper, that is posted up. It likewise means a libel.

PLACARDER, Fr. to post up; to libel.

To PLACE, to appoint; as to place an officer in the 17th foot. It also signifies to post or distribute; as, to place a sentinel; to place a picket. This word is confined to a particular situation, but is not used as a general word amongst us. The French say, Placer un jeune homme; to provide for a young man: Placer dans l'armée; to provide for in the army. Although, technically speaking, it be correct to use the expression, to displace; yet in this case the word means, to put out of some particular situation; as, to displace an officer from the 33d regiment. But we do not say to displace from the army; nor can we, with propriety or usage, say, to place in the army.

PLACE, Fr. Every species of fortified place is so called.

PLACE, Fr. The French say, when any number of men have fallen in action, Il est demeuré tel nombre d'hommes sur la place; such a number of men remained, or were left upon the spot.

PLACE, emplacement, Fr. any spot or scite which suits the plans of an architect to build upon.

PLACE, in fortification, signifies in general terms, a fortified town, a fortress. Hence we say it is a strong place.

PLACE of arms (Place d'armes, Fr.). This term has various significations, although it uniformly means a place which is calculated for the rendezvous of men in arms, &c.

1st. When an army takes the field, every strong hold or fortress which supports its operations by affording a safe retreat to its depots, heavy artillery, magazins, hospitals, &c. is called a place of arms.

2dly. In offensive fortifications, those lines are called places of arms, or parallels, which unite the different means of attack, secure the regular approaches, &c. and contain bodies of troops who either do duty in the trenches, protect the workmen, or are destined to make an impression upon the enemy's outworks.

There are demi-places of arms between the places of arms. These are more or less numerous in proportion to the resistance made by the besieged.

PLACE, Fr. This word is frequently used by the French, in a military sense, to signify ration, viz.

Une PLACE de bouche, Fr. one ration of provisions.

Deux Places de fourrage, Fr. two rations of forage.

Places of arms belonging to the covert way. These are divided into two sorts, viz. salissant and rentrant places of arms. There are likewise places of arms composed of traverses, which are practised or made in the dry ditches of military towns, in a perpendicular direction to the faces of the half moons and the tenail mens.

PLACE of arms in a fortified town. (Place d'armes d'une ville de guerre, Fr.) The place of arms is always in the middle of the town, generally in the market place, if it be central. The ground must be sufficiently spacious for
for the parade of the garrison, or at least for the greatest part of it; for it is there that the several guards are paraded, and the troops sometimes exercised; especially when the barracks are too confined, or when it is not thought expedient to march them beyond the gates for that purpose.

**PLACE of arms of an attack, or of a trench**, are deep trenches 15 or 18 feet wide, joining the several attacks together: they serve for a rendezvous and station to the guard of the trenches, to be at hand to support the workmen when attacked. It is customary to make 3 places of arms, when the ground will permit: the first, and most distant from the place, is about 300 toises, or 600 yards, from the glcis of the covert-way; the second is within 140 toises, or 280 yards; and the third at the foot of the glcis. See **PARALLELS**.

**PLACE of arms of a camp, was, strictly speaking, the bell tents, at the head of each company where the arms were formerly lodged; likewise a place chosen at the head of the camp, for the army to form in line of battle, for a review, or the like.**

**PLACE of arms of the covert way,** is a part of it, opposite to the re-entering angle of the countercarp, projecting outwards in an angle.

**PLACE marécageuse, Fr. a marshy place. A place of this description may be easily fortified, and at little expence; nor does it require many troupes for defence. Among other advantages, that of not being exposed to an enemy's mines, is by no means the least considerable. On the other hand, piles must be sunk in almost every direction; and should it be invested, it is almost impossible to succour it. Add to these inconveniences, the danger to which the garrison must be constantly exposed of being visited by some contagious disorder.**

**PLACE élevée dans un plat pays, Fr. places that are put in a state of defence in a flat open country. These places are almost always secured by regular fortifications: the soil is good, and there is always plenty of earth adapted to every species of military work: there is abundance of water; and should an enemy attempt to carry them by insulting the works, entrenchments may be easily thrown up to check him. Add to this, that it would require two or three armies, at least, to cut off the various supplies which can be procured from the country round. On the other hand, the goodness and abundance of the soil are equally beneficial to the besieging army. For the troops are thereby enabled to throw up entrenchments, to build redoubts, erect batteries, and by thus securing their approaches, to annoy the besieged at all hours, and in all ways.**

**PLACE située sur le penchant d'une montagne, Fr. a place situated or built upon the declivity of a hill. It is very difficult to fortify a spot of this sort. Whatever is erected upon it, must be commanded by the higher ground, and the body of the place be, of course, exposed to every attack.**

**PLACE située dans une vallée, Fr. a town, fortress, or hold that is built in a valley. Places so situated must be in constant jeopardy, as by getting possession of the heights, the enemy can always command them.**

**PLACE située sur les bords d'une grande rivière, Fr. a place, &c. built upon the banks or borders of a large river. Places constructed in a situation of this sort, are preferable to all others, provided they have a free and uninterrupted communication with the principal quarter from whence stores, provisions, and ammunition may be drawn. They may be regularly fortified towards the interior of the country, and it will require little or no artificial means to secure them on the side of the river.**

**PLACE de guerre, Fr. any town or place that is regularly, or irregularly fortified.**

**PLACE basse, Fr. In fortification the lower flanks according to certain systems are so called.**

**PLACE forte, Fr. a strong hold or place which presents at all points so many difficult obstacles against a besieging army, that it cannot be carried (except by surprize) unless the regular means of reducing it be resorted to.**

**PLACES contremières, Fr. all fortresses, &c. are called places contremières, or countertermed, which independently of their open and visible means of defence, &c. have subterraneous fortifications that are alongside the revetments.**
ments of the works, under the glacis, or beneath the neighbouring ground, to interrupt the approaches, and destroy the works of a besieging army.

Place haute, Fr. According to the systems of some engineers (which have not been followed of late years) the place haute, or high place, is that which stands the highest of three platforms that were constructed in the shape of an amphitheatre along the flanks of the bastions. It stands on a level with the terreplein of the bastion. The cannon which is destined to play against a besieging enemy is placed upon it. Pagan, Blondel, and others, who have copied from these systems, did so from an idea, that considerable advantages might be derived from a powerful and concentrated discharge of artillery and musquetry. Not conceiving that it was possible to construct casemated flanks free of smoke, they built three or four open flanks, one above the other. But they were soon rendered useless and untenable by the shells that fell, and the fragments that flew about in consequence of the demolition of the mason work: Casemated ramparts, on the contrary, have been known to stand proof against the heaviest discharge of bombs, &c. to take up little room, and to afford ample space for a wide range of artillery, that is kept under cover.

Places en première ligne, Fr. Those parts of a country which are most exposed, and most likely to be attacked by an enemy.

Places en seconde ligne, Fr. Those parts or places which lie between the center of a country and its borders. Those indeed which are again closer to the center, are called les troisièmes places de lignes.

Places d'armes du chemin couvert, Fr. salient and recess spaces which flank the branches belonging to the covert way, and in which men are posted for their defence. We call it also place of arms without, or that space of ground which is allowed to the covert way, in order to have cannon planted on it, for the purpose of annoying the enemy in his approaches, and of forcing him to retire.

Places non revêtues, Fr. All fortified towns or places are so called, when the ramparts that surround them are only lined with placage or simple turf. In this case the ramparts, so lined or covered, ought to be faired and palesadoed above the berme or foot path, to prevent surprizes. Hedges made of good quickset, well interwoven with other wood, and carefully attended to, will save the expence of palisadoes, which in marshy soils soon rot, and require to be replaced.

Places revêtues, Fr. All fortified towns or places are so called, whose ramparts are lined or covered with brick or stone. It frequently happens, that the revetment does not reach the terre-pleine of the rampart, especially when the parapets are thick and solid; in which case the revetment is more easily covered by the glacis. Parapets are no longer lined.

To be PLACED. This expression is frequently used in naval and military matters, to signify the appointment or reduction of officers. Hence to be placed upon full or half pay. It is more generally applicable to the latter case.

Placer, Fr. to fix, to settle. This word is used among the French, as with us, to express the act of providing for a person by appointing him to a desirable situation, viz. Placer un jeune homme dans un régiment; to get a young man a commission in a regiment.

Un cheval bien Placé, Fr. A horse is said, among the French, to be well placed, when his forehead runs perpendicularly down between the nostrils.

Plafond, Fr. the ceiling.

Plafonner, Fr. to ceil or adorn the upper part of a room, &c.

Place, Fr. flat shore, or extent of coast, where there are no creeks, &c. for vessels to ride in.

Belted Plaid, the ancient garb of the Scotch Highlanders, and still worn by some of our Highland regiments.

The belted plaid consists of twelve yards of tartan, which are plaited, bound round the waist by a leather belt, the upper part being attached to the left shoulder.

In the regulations relative to the clothing and half mounting of the British infantry it is directed, that in a Highland corps serving in Europe, in North America, or at the Cape of Good

4 Hope;
PLA

Hope, each serjeant, corporal, drummer, and private man, shall have six yards of plaid once in two years; and a purse every seven years.

PLAIE, Fr. a wound.

PLAIN, Fr. scutcheon of a lock; apron of a cannon.

PLAINE Campagne, Fr. the open field. Hence, La bataille s'est donnée en plaine campagne; the battle was fought in the open field.

PLAN, ground plot, or ichnography, in fortification, is the representation of the first or fundamental tract of a work, shewing the length of its lines, the quantity of its angles, the breadth of the ditches, thickness of the rampart, parapets, and the distance of one part from another; so that a plan represents a work, such as it would appear if cut equal with the level of the horizon, or cut off at the foundation: but it marks neither the heights nor depths of the several parts of the works: that is properly profile, which expresses only the heights, breadths, and depths, without taking notice of the lengths. As architects, before they lay the foundation of their edifice make their design upon paper, by which means they find out their faults, so an engineer, before he traces his works on the ground, should make plans of his designs upon paper, that he may do nothing without serious deliberation.

Exact plans are very useful for generals or governours, in either attacking or defending a place, in chusing a camp, determining attacks, conducting the approaches, or in examining the strength and weakness of a place; especially such plans as represent a place with the country about it, shewing the rivers, mountains, woods, houses, churches, defiles, roads, and other particulars, which appertain to it.

Plan of comparison, a geometrical sketch of any fortress and adjacent country within cannon shot, in which the different levels of every principal point are expressed.

PLAN, Fr. See Plan.

Lever le Plan de quelque place de guerre, Fr. to draw the plan of a fortified town or place.

PLAN relevé, ou plan en relief, Fr. a plan or representation of all the outside works and inside buildings belonging to a fortified town or place.

PLANCHES, Fr. boards, planks.

PLANCHES d'entrecous, Fr. boards or planks that are laid between the joists or posts of a building.

PLANCHETTE, Fr. a small board or copper-plate, which is used in practical geometry.

Lever à la Planche, Fr. to give an exact representation of any space of ground, with its appurtenances, on copper, or on a piece of paper which is pasted upon wood. In order to do this, a person must be well versed in practical geometry.

PLANCHEYER, Fr. to board or floor.

PLANCONS, Fr. literally, twigs, or small round pieces of wood. A term used in hydraulic. See Belidor.

Geometrical PLANE in perspective, (Plan en perspective, Fr.) a plain surface parallel to the horizon, placed lower than the eye.

Horizontal PLANE in perspective, (Plan horizontal en perspective, Fr.) a plane which lies parallel to the horizon, and on which the eye is supposed to be placed.

Vertical PLANE in perspective (Plan vertical ou plan à vue d'oiseau, Fr.) a plain surface which passes through the eye, and is perpendicular to the geometrical plane.

PLANIMETRY, (Planimétrie, Fr.) that part of geometry which considers lines and plain figures, without any reference to heights or depths in opposition to stenometry, or the mensuration of solids.

PLANISPHERE, (Planisphère, Fr.) a representation of the globe or sphere on paper, for geometrical and astronomical purposes.

To PLANT, in a military sense, to place, to fix; as to plant a standard.—It likewise signifies to arrange different pieces of ordnance for the purpose of doing execution against an enemy or his works. Hence to plant a battery. Johnson applies it to the act of directing a cannon properly. The French use the word generally as we do, except in the last mentioned sense. They say, mettre le canon en batterie. In others the term bears the same signification, with occasional deviations when they apply it figuratively, viz.

Planter
Planter le piquet chez quelqu'un, Fr. to quarter oneself upon any body.

Planter là quelqu'un, Fr. to leave a person abruptly, or, as we familiarly say, to leave another in the lurch.

Planter quelque chose au nes de quelqu'un, Fr. to reproach a person with any thing, or as we familiarly say, to throw it in his teeth. Il lui planta sa poltronnerie au nes; he reproached him openly for his cowardice, or he threw his cowardice in his teeth.

Planter un bâtiment, Fr. to lay the first stones, or the foundations of a building.

PLAQUE, Fr. the shell of a sword. See Placage.

Plaqués de Plomb, Fr. sheets of lead. These are used for various purposes. In the artillery, to cover the vent of a cannon; and on board ships of war, to stop the holes, &c. that are made by cannon shot.

PLAQUER, Fr. to lay one planks over another; to cover any space with earth or turf, &c.

PLASM. See Mould.

PLASTER, a piece of greased leather or rag used by riflemen, &c. to make the ball fit the bore of the piece.

PLASTER, in building, a substance made of water and some absorbent matter, such as chalk or lime, well pulverised, with which walls are overlaid.

PLASTRON, a piece of leather stuffed, used by fencing masters, to receive thereon the pushes made at them by their pupils.

PLASTRON, Fr. a breast plate, or half cuirasse. In the old French service the gens d'armes, the heavy cavalry, the light horse, &c. were obliged to wear breast plates on all occasions at reviews, &c. The hussars were an exception to this order, which took place on the 28th of May, 1733. In the original order, dated the 1st of February, 1703, it was particularly specified, that in order to be accustomed to their weight, the above-mentioned corps should wear half cuirasses in time of peace. The captains of troops were obliged to keep the half cuirasses belonging to their men in constant repair.

PLAT, atc., Fr. flat, level, low. The flat side of any thing; as, Plat de sabre.

Plat Pays, Fr. a flat or low country. It is generally used among the French to signify that extent, or space of country, on which scattered houses and villages are built, in contradistinction to towns and fortified places. It is likewise used in opposition to a mountainous country: Les soldats de la garnison vivent aux dépens du plat pays; the soldiers of the garrison lived upon the adjacent villages or country.

Punir à Plat de Sabre, to punish a man by striking him with the flat side of a sabre blade. The French likewise say, des coups de plat d'épée; blows given with the flat side of a sword.

This mode of punishing is frequently adopted in foreign services, particularly among the Germans. M. de St. Germain, minister of the war department under Louis XVI. attempted to introduce it in France, but it was resisted by the army at large.

Battre à Plate couture, Fr. to gain a complete and decided victory, or to beat an enemy so as to kill or take almost every man he had to oppose.

Hence, Une armee battue à plate couture; an army completely routed and undone.

Plat de l'équipage d'un vaisseau, Fr. a dish or mess, consisting of seven rations or portions put together, and served out for the subsistence of seven men, on board French ships of war.

Elle mis au Plat des malades sur mer, Fr. to be put upon the sick list on board a king's ship; or to receive such rations as are ordered to be served out to the sick.

PLATAIN, Fr. flat coast; a spot near the sea which is well calculated for a descent: as, Le platin de d'Angoulé, and the Platan de Chatelaillon, near Rochelle.

PLATEAU, Fr. a flat piece of wood, which is sometimes used to place mortars on, &c. This word also signifies the moulding which goes round a piece of ordnance, in three different places, to render its diminution towards the muzzle less abrupt to the eye.

PLATEBANDES, Fr. cap squares; a particular part of a piece of ordnance, which, though of a flat form or figure, rises beyond the rest of the metal.
tul, and is always cast before the moulding. There are three sorts of platebands upon a regular piece of ordnance, viz. capssquare and moulding at the breech; cap-square and moulding of the first reinforce; cap-square and moulding of the second reinforce.

**PLATEBANDES d'affuts**, Fr. iron capsquares, which serve to keep the trunnions fast between the cheeks of a piece of ordnance.

**PLATEFORME de pilotage**, Fr. a platform made upon piles. When the pilework, in a piece of marshy ground, &c. has been completed, planks are placed upon it and secured together by iron pins; so that if it be necessary to establish a post or erect a battery, there may be foundation enough for the purpose. Forte-Rouge, at the entrance of Calais Harbour, has been constructed in this manner; and it has been found sufficiently strong to withstand the explosion of the catamaran.

**PLATFORM**, (plateforme, Fr.) the upper part of every brick or stone building which is arched and has more floors than one, is so called. Hence the platform of a tower, or of a redoubt. All pieces of ordnance that are planted on a rampart, or are disposed along the lines of a besieging army, &c. have their platforms.

**PLATFORM**, in gunnery, is a bed of wood on a battery, upon which the guns stand; each consisting of 18 planks of oak or elm, a foot broad, 2½ inches thick, and from 8 to 15 feet long nailed or pinned on 4, 5, or 6 beams, from 4 to 7 inches square, called sleepers.—They must be made higher behind than before by 6 or 9 inches, to prevent too great a recoil, and to advance the gun easily when loaded. They are from 18 to 20 feet long, 8 feet before and 14 or 15 feet behind, and the direction left to the officers of the royal regiment of artillery.

Platforms are usually made of wood, and sometimes of stone. Platforms for mortars are made quite level.

**PLATIFS**, or prise-plates, in artillery, two plates of iron on the cheeks of a gun-carriage, from the cope square to the center, through which the prisebolts go, and on which the handspikes rest, when used in raising the breech of the gun, &c.

**Breast-Plates**, the two plates on the face of the carriage, on the other cheek.

**Breast-Plates**, the clasps, with ornamented heads, by which the cross-belts in the army are attached.

**Train-Plates**, the two plates on the cheeks at the train of the carriage.

**Dulidge-Plates**, the six plates on the wheel of a gun-carriage, where the felies are joined together.

**PLATINE de lumière**, Fr. the same as plaques de plomb, as far as it regards cannon. With respect to musquets and other fire-arms, it means that part of the hammer which covers the pan.

**Platine**, (according to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, published in 1801,) when applied generally, signifies the whole of a lock belonging to a musket or fire-arm.

**PLATOOIN**, in military affairs, was formerly a small body of men, in a battalion of foot, &c. that fired alternately. A battalion was then generally divided into 10 platoons, exclusive of the grenadiers, which formed 2 or 4 platoons more, or less as occasion required. At present the battalion is generally divided into wings, grand divisions, divisions, (or companies) subdivisions, and sections; and the word platoon is seldom used, except to denote a number (from 10 to 20) of recruits assembled for the purpose of instruction, in which case it may be considered synonymous with company.

**PLATRAS**, Fr. rubbish, such as ashes, pieces of broken brick, mortar, &c. It is used by refiners, for the purpose of distilling saltpetre into proper vessels.

They likewise extract saltpetre out of this rubbish, after having pounded it well together, and pressed it through a wash.

**PLATRER**, Fr. to plaister, to patch, to daub over.

**PLAY**, is occasionally applied to military action; as the cannon play upon the enemy, &c.

**PLEBEIAN**, from the Latin plebeius, any person of the situation, or condition of the common people. The term is chiefly used in speaking of the ancient Romans, who were divided into senators, knights, and plebeians, or common people.

**PLEGEDT,**
PLEDGET, the same as bolster, compress, in surgery, a kind of flat tent, which is laid over a wound to imibe the superfluous humours that ooze out, and to keep it clean.

PLEIN du Mur, Fr. the main part or body of a wall.

Cour PLENIÈRE, Fr. an open court, to which every body has access. In the ancient times of France, when the Grand Monarque signified his intention of being present at a solemn assembly of his nobles, &c. or having magnificent tournaments, public notice was given that a cour pleine, or open court, would be held. This was done, in order to allow sufficient time for foreign princes to appear in person.

PLEUVRE, Fr. to rain; to pour.—The French say figuratively, (when there is a heavy discharge of musquetry directed against any particular quarter,) il y pleut des mousquetades; les coups de mousquet y pleurent; musquet-shots pour upon that quarter; musquet-shots rain or come down in torrents.

PLIER, Fr. to give way.

Une aile qui plie, Fr. in a military sense, the wing of an army which gives way. When this occurs, it behoves a wise and executive general to send immediate support, for the whole army is endangered by the least impression on that quarter.

PLIER à la première charge, Fr. to give way, or fall back at the first onset.

PLIER et retourner à la charge, Fr. to give way at first, but to return again to the charge.

Plier also signifies to step out of the ranks, or to deform the alignment.—Hence plier le pied, to step out in a disorderly manner.

PLAINTE, the square member which serves as a foundation to the base of a pillar.

PLOMB, Fr. lead; a plummet, or small piece of lead which is attached to some packthread, so that it may be suspended in a perpendicular direction. It is used by miners. The packthread by which it hangs is called fuseau or whipcord.

Plomb also comprehends, in its signification, all sorts of shot, except cannon-shot, used in fire-arms. The French say, la ville a été forcée de capituler, faute de plomb, (i.e. balles de mousquet) et de poudre, the town was forced or obliged to capitulate through the want of shot and gunpowder.

A Plomb, Fr. the perpendicular position of any body or substance. Une muraille est à plomb, a wall built in a straight perpendicular direction.

Donner à plomb, Fr. to fall vertically, as the rays of the sun do in certain latitudes.

Étre à plomb, Fr. to stand upright.

Marcher à plomb, Fr. to march with a firm, steady pace.

This word is sometimes used as a substantive, viz, perdre son a plomb, to lose one's balance.

Manquer d'a plomb, Fr. to be unsteady.

PLONGÉE, Fr. a term used in artillery to express the action of a bomb, &c. which from the highest point of the curve it describes, takes a downward direction to strike its object.

PLONGÉE du Rampart, Fr. the slope of the upper part of the parapet, belonging to the rampart, is so called. The slope is likewise named talus supérieur, or upper talus.

PLONGEONS, Fr. artificial fireworks, which are shot into water, and rise again without being extinguished.

PLONGEONS, Fr. plungers or divers. Men of this description ought always to accompany an army, for the purpose of swimming under bridges of boats, &c. and making apertures in their bottoms.

PLONGER, Fr. literally to plunge: a term used to signify all discharges which are made by cannon, musquetry, from any height, such as the rampart, &c. into the fossé, or upon the adjacent country.

PLUIÉ de feu, Fr. literally a shower or rain of fire. It signifies a certain quantity of artificial fireworks, whose discharge falls in regular sparks, without ever deviating into a serpentine direction.

PLUME, the iron plates of which the pieces of ancient armour were composed, for the defence of the chest, arms, thighs, and legs. They were so called from their resemblance to the feathers of a bird. Hence the cuirass...
rasses themselves, or coverings for the thighs, &c. were called plumeate.

PLUMB, PLUMMET, a leaden or other weight let down at the end of a string or piece of catgut, to regulate any work in a line perpendicular to the horizon, or sound the depth of any thing. It is of great use to the artillerist, as well as to the engineer.

The instrument is also used by masons, &c. to draw perpendiculars with, in order to judge whether walls, &c. be upright, planes horizontal, &c. Pilots, at sea, likewise ascertain their soundings by it. In the forming of recruits it is particularly advantageous; as may be seen in the following extract from page 15, sect. 17, of the Rules and Regulations.

Plummets which vibrate the required times of march in a minute, are of great utility, and can along prevent, or correct uncertainty of movement; they must be in the possession of, and be constantly referred to by each instructor of a squad. The several lengths of plummets, swinging the times of the different marches in a minute, are as follow:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>In.</th>
<th>Hund.</th>
<th>in a minute.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ordinary time</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quickest time</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quickest, or wheeling time</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A musket ball suspended by a string which is not subject to stretch, (and must of course be kept constantly dry) and on which are marked the different required lengths, will answer the above purpose, may be easily acquired, and should be frequently compared with an accurate standard in the adjutant's or sergeant-major's possession. The length of the plummet is to be measured from the point of suspension to the center of the ball.

Accurate distances of steps must also be marked out on the ground, along which the soldier should be practised to march, and thereby acquire the just length of pace.

PLUMBATE, leaden balls which were shot out of cross-bows by the Roman soldiers.

PLUME, feathers worn by soldiers in the hat or helmet.

PLUMET; Fr. plume, feather. An ornament which is worn by military men in their hats. It succeeded the plume or bunch of feathers, that formerly adorned the helmet.

PLUNDER, hostile pillage, or spoils taken in war.

PLUS, in algebra, commonly denotes majus, more: its character is +. Thus 5 + 7 is read 5 plus 7, and is equal to 12.

PLUSH, a kind of stuff with a sort of velvet nap or shag on one side, consisting of a woof of a single woolen thread, and a double warp; the one of two woolen threads twisted, the other goat's or camel's hair; though there are plushes entirely of worsted, others of hair, and others again of silk, cotton, &c. White plush breeches have been often worn by English dragoons. They resist moisture, and are easily cleaned.

PLUTEUS, a defensive machine, which was used by the ancient Romans. It was composed of wicker hurdles laid for a roof on the top of posts, which the soldiers, who went under it for shelter, bore up with their hands. Kennett, in page 238, of his Roman Antiquities, observes, that some will have them, as well as the vines, to have been contrived with a double roof; the first and lower roof of planks, and the upper roof of hurdles, to break the force of any blow, without disordering the machine. The plutei, however, were of a different figure from the vines, being shaped like an arched sort of waggon; some having three wheels, so conveniently placed, that the machine would move either way, with equal ease. They were put much to the same use as the musquet. Father Daniel, the Jesuit, in his history of the French militia, makes mention of this machine. He quotes a passage out of a poem, intituled the Siege of Paris, by Abbon, the Monk; the meaning of which is, that the Normans brought up a large quantity of machines, that were called plutei by the Romans, and that seven or eight soldiers could be put under cover beneath them. He further adds, that these machines were covered with bell hides.

The moderns have imitated these plutei by adopting mantelets. The chevalier Pollet mentions having seen one at the siege of Philippeville, of a triangular figure, made of cork, interlaced between
tween two boards, and supported by
three wheels that turned upon a pivot.

PNEUMATICS, the doctrine of the
air, or the laws whereby it is condensed,
rarefied, gravitated, &c.

PNEUMATIC Engine, denotes the air
pump.

PÉNE/ME Militares, military punishments.
Although, under the word puni-
ishment, we have touched upon this
article, we shall, nevertheless, copy from
a modern French author, what he says
upon the punishments of the ancients;
leaving wiser men to determine, wheth-
er the soldiery of any country can be
kept in good order and discipline, with-
out bodily chastisement. Some at-
ttempts have lately been made to prove
they might. Sed haec specia inanes et ir-
ritus hominum labor!

Military punishments, observes this
writer, were sufficiently numerous among
the Greeks and Romans. In cases of
mutiny or desertion of standards, they
were decimated; that is, every tenth
man was put to death. Those who were
detected in thieving, either lost the
right hand, or were bled to the point of
death. Deserters were, individually,
whipped in the public streets, and then
sold for slaves. The seditious were dis-
missed the service, with marks of infa-
my. Cowards were degraded with igno-
miny. The centurion, when guilty
of indiscipline, &c. was deprived of the
vine-branch which he carried as an em-
blem of authority, and with which he
chastised the soldiers. Soldiers that
quitted their ranks, were liable to be
punished with the vitis, or centurion's
rod. They were sometimes deprived
of all nourishment, except that of a
small quantity of barley; at others,
they were driven ignominiously and un-
armed out of the limits of the camp,
and thus exposed to the enemy. When
a consul entered into a disgraceful trea-
try, he was tied hand and foot, and in
this manner sent back to the nation
with whom he had signed the contract.
There were various other modes of pu-
nishing officers and soldiers, and we
learn, that human nature should be so
constituted, as to render it necessary to
have recourse to any thing which looks
like inhumanity. The modern French,
perhaps, have fewer punishments
amongst them than any other nation;
but what they want in variety, they
make up in summary execution. The
character of a soldier ought, most un-
questionably, to be considered as having
features in it, which should raise him
above the commonalty of mankind.

The exercise of the cane and cat-o-
mine-tails, seems ill-suited to the high
notions which even a private soldier in
the ranks should cherish. We know
that under the old government of
France, a blow was always looked upon
as the sure forerunner of death. The
officer never quitted the man who had
thus degraded him, until one or the
other was destroyed; and the private
soldier, if struck by a superior, had re-
course to suicide, as the only reparation
left for his tarnished honour. With his
comrades, he decided the contest, and
avenged his character by his sabre.

And yet, notwithstanding this proud
sense of manhood in the individual, the
aggregate body, (as may be seen under
the article Punitions Corporales,) not
only submitted to see a comrade stripped,
but even lashed him up and down the
ranks with switches. Nor did Rome,
in her most enlightened period, think it
unwise to strike, and ignominiously to
expose those men who were the terror
of other nations. With respect to the
British empire, it is, certainly, matter
of doubt, whether the example of mo-
dern France would fit the temper and
disposition of its inhabitants. By the
frequency of capital punishments and
executions, death has been, and still
continues to be, rendered so familiar to
the multitude, that, in many instances,
dissolution appears less terrific than bo-
dily correction or exposure. Let any
man, for example, visit Newgate, after
the Spring sessions of the Old Bailey,
and become a calm and reflecting spec-
tator of the drop; he will there see me-
lancholy proofs of the truth of this as-
sertion; he will there also discover,
that offences in the minor classes of de-
linquency, are punished with death by
the civil code, when those of a much
more mischievous tendency are only
chastised by corporal punishment in the
military. But he will also conclude, at
least the writer of this article has so
concluded from personal observation,
that the loss of life is not the greatest
loss
loss which Englishmen consider. There is a high spirit, an innate shame in almost every inhabitant of these islands, which makes degradation worse than death in some cases, and always afflicts and punishes in others. Solitary confinement has been tried by some humane individuals, to whose lot the command of battalions has fallen; and by others, extraordinary duties and public exposure before their comrades, have been resorted to. But whilst this mode of punishment has succeeded, once or twice, perhaps in some particular corps, the necessity of bodily chastisement has often been manifest elsewhere. Under all these varying circumstances, we shall probably conclude, by saying (to those who fondly, and not unkindly, hope to see soldiers what they have never yet been found,) in the words of Mr. Burke: “If you expect such obedience, amongst your other innovations and regenerations, you ought to make a revolution in nature, and provide a new Constitution for the human mind.” Burke’s Reflections on the Revolution in France.

POIDS, Fr. weights.

Points de Merc, Fr. avoidupon weight.

POIDS Romain, Fr. troy weight.

POIDS à peser l’eau, Fr. waterpoise. 

B undergraduate of POIDS, Fr. to weigh.

Avec POIDS et mesure, Fr. with care and circumsequence.

POIGNARD, Fr. dagger, poniard.

Coup de POIGNARD, Fr. a stab.

POIGNARDER, Fr. to stab.

POIGNÉE, Fr. handful. Poignée d’hommes, a handful of men; a small number.

POIGNÉE, Fr. handle of a sword.

La POIGNÉE, Fr. the handle.

POIL, Fr. hair. Monter un cheval à POIL, to ride a horse without a saddle.

Un brave à trois POILS, Fr. a figurative expression to describe a bully, or gascony fellow.

POINCON, Fr. a puncheon, bodkin. It is likewise an instrument which is used in the making of artificial fireworks, being called poinçon à arrêté, from a piece of iron running cross-ways near the point, to prevent it from entering too far.

POINT, a steel instrument of various use in several arts. Engravers, etchers, wood-cutters, stone-cutters, &c. use points to trace their designs on copper, wood, or stone.

POINT, particular place to which any thing is directed. Hence, to concentrate all your forces, and to bring them to bear upon one point. There is not, perhaps, in the whole science of war, a more difficult thing than to watch the motions, &c. of your enemy, in such a manner as to be able to discover his weak points, and in so doing, to bring your whole strength to bear upon them. In this consists half, if not all, the ability of an executive general. But no man can be said to possess this indispensable talent in warfare, who has not a military mind. See MILITARY MIND.

POINT, in geometry, according to Euclid, is a quantity which has no parts, being indivisible; and according to others, that which terminates itself on every side, or which has no boundaries distinct from itself. This is a mathematical point, and is only conceived by the imagination; yet herein all magnitude begins and ends, its flux generating a line, that of a line a surface, &c. A line can only cut another in a point.

POINT, in perspective, denotes various places with regard to the perspective plane, viz. point of sight, or of the eye, or principal point, is a point in the axis of the eye, or in the central ray, where the same is intersected by the horizon.

POINT, or points of distance, in perspective, is a point or points, for there are sometimes two of them placed at equal distances from the point of sight. Accidental Points, or Contingent Points, in perspective, are certain points wherein such objects as may be thrown negligently, and without order, under the plan, do tend to terminate. For this reason they are not drawn to the point of sight, nor the points of distance, but meet accidentally, or at random in the horizon.

POINT of the Front, in perspective, is when we have the object directly before us, and not more on one side than the other, in which case it only shows the foreside; and if it be below the horizon, a little of the top too, but nothing
of the side, unless the object be polygonous.

Third Point, is a point taken at discretion in the line of distance, wherein all the diagonals, drawn from the divisions of the geometrical plane, concur.

Objective Point, a point on a geometrical plane, whose representation is required on the perspective plane.

Point of concourse, in optics, is that wherein converging rays meet; more commonly called the focus.

Point of dispersion, is that wherein the rays begin to diverge; usually called the virtual focus.

Point. This term is frequently used in a military sense, as point of intersection, intermediate point, &c.—The several applications of which may be seen in the General Rules and Regulations.

Covering Point, a point which, in changes of position, materially concerns the movement of one line with another.

When a change of position is made on a flank or central point of the first line, the movement of its covering point, of the second line, determines the new relative situation of that second line.

To find this point, it is necessary to premise, that if a circle is described from any point (A) of a first line (AE) with a radius equal to the distance betwixt the two lines; then its covering point (a) at that time in the second line will be always in the circumference of that circle, at such place as the second line becomes a tangent to the circle.—Should the first line, therefore, make a change of position (AR) either on a flank or central point (A); its covering point (a) will move so as still to preserve and halt in its relative situation (a, 2), and by the movement and halt of that point preceded by the one (d) of intersection, every other part of the second line, either by following them, or by yielding from them, is regulated and directed. Betwixt the old and new situation of the covering point (a), and equidistant from each, lies the point (d), where the old and new positions of the second line intersect, and which is a most material one in the movement of that line.—See Cavalry Regulations, page 263.

Point of Honour. See Honour.

Point of Appui, the point upon which a line of troops is formed. When the right stands in front, and the column is marching to form, the first halted company, division, &c. is the point of appui; and when the right is in front, the distant point of formation is the left.

Point of Intersection, the point where two lines intersect each other.

Intermediate Point. In marching forward that is called an intermediate point which lies between the spot marched from, and the spot towards which you are advancing. In forming line, the center point between the right and left is the intermediate point. It is of the utmost consequence to every body of troops, advancing or retreating, but especially in advancing towards the enemy, to find an intermediate point between two given, and, perhaps, inaccessible objects. The line of march is preserved by these means in its perpendicular direction, and every column may be enabled to ascertain its relative point of entry in the same line.

Point of Alignment, (point d’alignement, Fr.) the point which troops form upon and dress by.

Point of Formation, a point taken, upon which troops are formed in military order.

Perpendicular Point, the point upon which troops march in a straight forward direction.

Relative Points, the points by which the parallelism of a march is preserved.

Point of passing, the ground on which one or more bodies of armed men march by a reviewing general.

Point to salute at, the spot on which the reviewing general stands. This, however, is not to be understood literally, as every infantry officer, when he arrives within six paces of the general, recovers his sword and drops it, keeping it in that situation until he shall have passed him a prescribed number of paces. The cavalry salute within the breadth of the horse’s neck, the instant the object is uncovered.

Point of War, a loud and impressive beat of the drum, the perfect execution of which requires great skill and activity. The point of war is beat when a battalion charges.

Point-blank, (point en-blanc, Fr.) in gunnery, denotes the shot of a piece levelled horizontally, without either
mounting or sinking the muzzle. In shooting thus, the bullet is supposed to go in a direct line, and not to move in a curve, as bombs and highly elevated random shots do. We say supposed to go in a direct line, because it is certain, and easily proved, that a shot cannot fly any part of its range in a right line strictly taken; but the greater the velocity, the nearer it approaches to a right line; or the less crooked its range.

Point d'intersection, Fr. See Point of Intersection.
Point intermédiaire, Fr. See Intermediate Point.
Point du jour, Fr. break of day; dawn.
Point de vue, Fr. prospect, sight, aim.
De Point en blanc, Fr. point-blank.
A Point, Fr. in time.
A Point nommé, Fr. seasonably.
De Point en Point, Fr. thoroughly; completely.
Pointe de Terre, Fr. a point of land; a cape.
La Pointe, Fr. the point of the sword.
Pointer, Fr. to point; as, pointer un canon, to point a cannon.
Pointer une troupe ennemie, Fr. to fall unexpectedly upon a body of the enemy, and to throw it into disorder by a sudden attack with the bayonet, pike, or sword.
POINEUR, Fr. the man who points a gun.
POINEURS, Fr. levellers. Officers in the old French artillery, who were subordinate to the extraordinary commissaries; but who were never employed except upon field service.
Cardinal POINTS, (points cardinaux, Fr.) the North, South, East, and West. A tent cannot be properly pitched, unless these four points are minutely attended to. The weather-cords derive all their stay by being correctly carried to those points.
Points d'appui, Fr. basis, support. The general signification of this term expresses the different advantageous posts, such as castles, fortified villages, &c. which the general of an army takes possession of in order to secure his natural position. In a more limited sense, they mean those points which are taken up in movements and evolutions. See Point d'appui.

Vertical POINTS, (points verticaux, Fr.) two points in the globe, one of which is directly over our heads, and the other under our feet. They are called in astronomy, the zenith and the nadir.

Collateral POINTS, (points collatéraux, Fr.) two points in the globe where the sun rises and sets, called East and West, which the French likewise name o rient and occident, or levant, and couchant.
POINTING of a gun or mortar, is the placing either one or other, so as to hit the object, or to come as near it as possible.
POIRE A POU DRE, Fr. a powder-burn.
To POISON a Piece, (enclouer une pièce, Fr.) in gunnery, to clog or nail it up.
POISSON d'eau de vie, Fr. a quarter of brandy; a spirit formerly exported to other nations by France, but since her revolution, chiefly consumed by her soldiery.
POITREL, armour for the breast of a horse.
POIX, Fr. pitch.
Poix résine, Fr. rosin.
POLACRE, Fr. a lappelled coat.
POLACRE, or Polaque, Fr. a Levantine vessel, which carries a smack sail on the mizen mast, and square sails on the main-mast and bowsprit.
POLAIRE, Fr. polar.
POLBONICK, according to the last published Military Dictionary in France, the colonel of a Polish regiment is so called.
POLE, in a four-wheel carriage, is fastened to the middle of the hind axletree, and passes between the fore axletree and its bolster, fastened with the pole-pin, so as to move about it; keeping the fore and hind carriages together.
POLE, (pole, Fr.) one of the two points upon which the globe turns—One is called Arctick, and the other Antarctic pole; i.e. the Northern and the Southern.
POLES, in castrametation, long round pieces of wood, by which a marquee or tent is supported. There are three sorts, viz.
Ridge-Pole a long round piece of wood, which runs along the top of an officer's
officer's tent or marquée, and is supported by two other poles, viz.

*Front-Pole*, a strong pole which is fixed in the front part of an officer's tent or marquée, and is kept in a perpendicular position, by means of two strong cords, called weather-cords, that run obliquely from each other, across two other cords from the rear pole, and are kept fast to the earth by wooden pegs.

*Rear-Pole*, a strong pole which is fixed in the back part of an officer's marquée or tent, and is kept in the same relative position as has been described above.

*Fire-Poles, or Rods*, artificial fireworks. They are generally of the length of ten or twelve feet, and of the thickness of two inches at most. One of the ends of the fire-pole is hollowed out with three or four flutes to the length of two or three feet. Into one of these flutes are fixed rockets or squibs. Paper crackers are fixed in the others. After holes have been bored through the body of the pole, in order that the rockets may have communication with the crackers, they must be neatly wrapped in paper, the more effectually to deceive the spectators.

*Picket Poles*, round pieces of wood, shod with iron, and driven firmly into the earth, to fasten cavalry by, when at picket. The poles for the heavy horse should be longer than those which are commonly used. See *Pickets*.

*POLEAXE*, an axe fixed to the end of a long pole.—See *Battle Axe*.

*POLICE*, Fr. in a military sense, among the French, this term comprehends the inspectors, the treasurers, the paymasters, the commissaries, the provost marshal, &c.

*Police d'assurance*, Fr. a policy of insurance.

*POLICY IN WAR.—See STRATAGEM.*

*POLITICAL*, relating to policy, or civil government.

*POLITICS*, (Poltique, Fr.) a part of ethics which consists in the governing of states, for the maintenance of the public safety, order, and good morals.

*POLK*, Fr. a Polish term, signifying a regiment, from whence is derived Polbownick, Colonel.

*POLLAM, Ind.* a measure equal to twenty ounces: forty make a viz in weight in Madras.

*POLL-Money*, commonly called poll-tax, or capitation. A tax imposed by parliament on each person, or head, according to some known mark of distinction; thus, by Stat. 18 Car. II. every duke was assessed 100l. marquis 80l. baronet 30l. knight 20l. esquire 10l. and every single private person 12d. This was only a revived tax, as appears by former acts of parliament, particularly that anno 1380, when it was imposed upon women from the age of twelve, and men from fourteen. The income tax, which was originally proposed and carried in the British House of Commons by William Pitt, two years before he was dismissed from office, bears an affinity to the poll-tax, as far as it regards men of property. It is not so general as the original one, but what it wants in universality it amply makes up in progressive quantity. The army is not exempted from it.

*POLTROON, (Poltron, Fr.)* a coward, a dastard, who has no courage to perform any thing noble. The etymology of poltron, or poltroon, as it is usually pronounced, is curious. Both in ancient and modern times frequent instances have occurred of men, who had been forcibly enlisted, having rendered themselves unfit for service by cutting off their thumbs or fingers. When this happened among the Romans, they were called *pollice trunci*. The French, (as they do in most of their words that are derived from the Latin) contract these two, and by an elision make poltron or poltroon, from whence we have adopted the term.—Another, and, in our opinion, a more correct derivation, comes from the Italian *Poltrone*, which takes its derivation from *Poltro*, a cot; because of that animal's readiness to run away; or *Poltro*, a bed, as pusillanimous people take a pleasure in lying in bed. This last word is derived from the high Dutch *Polster*, which signifies a bolster or cushion. This contemptible character is so little calculated for a military life, that the slightest imputation of cowardice is sufficient to render an individual unworthy of serving among real soldiers. Poltroon and coward stand, in fact, foremost in the black catalogue of military incapacities. Every young man, therefore, ought well to weigh, examine,
amine, and digest the necessary qualifications for a profession, which, above all others, exacts a daring spirit, and an unqualified contempt of death. It is possible, however, that the very man who might have forgot himself in one action, and belied disgracefully, should make ample amends by his future conduct. We have a strong instance of this sort in the life of Themistocles, as related by Plutarch. His words are:—"The brave Leonidas defended the pass of Thermopylae with three hundred men, till they were all cut off except one man, who escaped to Sparta, where he was treated as a coward, and nobody would keep company or converse with him: but he soon after made glorious amends at the battle of Platea, where he distinguished himself in an extraordinary manner."

According to Tacitus, the old Germans were in the habit of smothing cowardly and even sluggish soldiers. They were buried alive in mud, and covered over with a hurdle. Hence, perhaps, the general term of dirty coward.

POLIGARCHY, (Polygarchie, Fr.) a government composed of many chiefs or leaders.

POLYGARS, Ind. Chiefs of mountainous and woody districts in the peninsula, who pay only a temporary homage.

POLYGON, (Polygone, Fr.) is a figure of more than four sides, and is either regular or irregular, exterior or interior.

Regular Polygon, is that whose angles and sides are equal. It has an angle of the center, and an angle of the polygon. The center of a regular polygon is the center of a circle which circumscribes the polygon; that is, whose circumference passes through all the angles of the figure.

Irregular Polygon, is that whose sides and angles are unequal.

Exterior Polygon, that whose lines touch the points of the flanked angles, when a place is fortified inwards.

Interior Polygon, that outward fortification which makes the angles of the gorge; so that the whole bastion is without the polygon.

POLYEDRICAL, having many POLYEDROUS, sides.

POLYEDRON, a solid figure or body consisting of many sides.

POLYGRAPHIE, Fr.—See Polygraphy.

POLYNOMIAL, (Polynome, Fr.) an algebraical term, signifying a quantity made up of many others by means of the sign + and the sign —.

POLYORCÈTE, Fr. a term used among the French to distinguish great warriors. It literally signifies the taking of strong towns. Marshals Saxe and Lowendall, les grands Polyorcètes of the last century.

POLYSPASTON, or what the French call poule multiplie, a species of crane which consists of several pulleys. It is also named corbeau d'Archimède. Demetrius Polyorcètes made use of this engine at the siege of Rhodes. Diogeteus the architect, who came after him, improved it considerably; and Collias, who had returned to Rhodes from Arado, brought it to the greatest perfection in those days. It had sufficient power to raise large turrets, and even whole galleries into the air.

POLYTECHNIQUE, a word Ecole Polytéchnique, derived from the Greek, and used by the French to distinguish an establishment in which all sciences are taught. The military school, which existed during the French monarchy, is comprised in this institution.—See Military School.

POMADA, an exercise of vaulting the wooden horse, by laying one hand over the pommel of the saddle.

POMERIUM, in ancient architecture, that space of ground which lay between the walls of a fortified town and the inhabitants' houses. The term is still used among modern architects, particularly by the Italians, as Peter Canonico, and Aghhis, to describe the breadth of the terme pleine of the rampart, its inward talus, and the vacant space which is usually left between this talus and the houses of the town.

PONNIEAU, Fr. See POMMEL.

POMMEL, (Pommeeau, Fr.) a piece of brass or other substance, at top, and in the middle of the saddle bow, to which are fastened the holsters, stirrup leathers, &c. Also, the knob at the extremity.
tremity of the handle that balances the
blade of the sword.

POMMES, Fr. round pieces of wood
which are variously used for ornament,
&c.

POMMES de pavillon et d'enseigne, Fr.
the piece of wood which is fixed at the
top of the colour staff, &c.

POMPE, Fr.—See PUMP.

POMPE à feu, Fr. a steam-engine.

Mr. Watts, of this country, has brought
the steam-engine to the highest point of
utility.

POMPE de mer, Fr. a sea-pump, or a
pump used on board a ship.

POMPER, Fr. to pump.

PONANT, Fr. the west. In the
French sea service, ponant signifies that
part of the ocean which is separated
from the seas in the Levant by the
straits of Gibraltar.

Officier PONANT, Fr. one who serves
upon the ocean.

Armée PONANTE, Fr. the army of
the west.

PONCEAU, Fr. a small bridge of
one arch, which is thrown across a ca-
nal or rivulet.

PONCER, Fr. to rub pounce upon
any thing.

PONCER, Fr. This word also signi-
fies to impress any drawing, plan, or
figure, upon a sheet of paper, by means
of a needle and some charcoal, or co-
oured dust; which is effected by prick-
ing through the different features, lines,
&c. of the upper sketch or drawing,
at small intermediate distances, and
then forcing the charcoal, which is
wrapped up in a piece of fine linen,
through the different holes, upon the
blank paper underneath.

PONIARD, a little pointed dagger,
very sharp edged.

PONT, Fr. a bridge; a deck.

PONT d'or, Fr. a figurative expression
which the French use, when they suffer
an enemy, whom they have defeated,
to retire without molestation. Hence,
faire un pont d'or à son ennemi, to suffer
your enemy to escape.

PONT flottant, Fr.—See Floating
bridge.

PONT-levis, Fr.—See Draw-bridge.

PONT-tournant, Fr. a moveable
bridge. It is of the nature of a draw-
bridge, with this difference, that it
turns upon a pivot, and goes entirely
round.

PONT de bois, Fr. a wooden bridge.

PONT de jonc, Fr. a bridge of rushes.

PONT de sortie, Fr. a sally-bridge.

PONT dormant, Fr. a wooden bridge,
which is generally laid upon the fosse of
a fortified town, for the purpose of main-
taining a constant communication be-
tween the main body of the place and
the outworks and country round. These
bridges are not thrown entirely across
the fosses, but terminate within twelve
or fifteen feet of the revetement; the
space from thence is supplied by draw-
bridges. When the ponts dormants are
very long, a swing bridge is constructed
in the center of it. When the ditches
are wet, and so constantly supplied with
water, that the depth of it is generally
the same, bridges of boats may be used
instead of ponts dormants. And in cases
of attack, floating bridges may be sub-
stituted in lieu of both.

PONT à bascule, Fr. a bridge which
is supported by an axle-tree that
runs through its center, and which is
lifted up on each side as occasion re-
sues.

PONT à coulisser, Fr. Coulisse liter-
ally signifies a scene, such as is used
in theatres, which can be shifted at
will. We may, therefore, not impro-
perly call it a sliding or shifting bridge.
This bridge is used for the purpose of
conveying troops, on foot, across a fossé
or a river of moderate breadth. It
must be very light and portable; con-
structed with boards, and measuring
about six feet in breadth. The planks
are numbered, so that the instant it is
found necessary to effect a passage,
they may be put together by means of
running grooves. When the planks are
thus arranged, the pontoneers, to whom
these matters are always entrusted,
thrown two thick beams across the fosse
or river, so as to be parallel to each
other, and about five feet asunder, to
allow the floor or platform half a foot
on each side. Small iron wheels or
casters are fixed underneath the two
sides of the floor or platform, in such
a manner, that the whole may be in-
stantly slided into the deep grooves that
have been previously made in the trans-
verse beams. This construction is ex-
tremely simple, and very practicable in
war. The sliding bridges may also be
used, to advantage, in crossing rivers
of
of larger dimensions. In these cases there must be two of the kind, and they are united in the middle by means of two piles, or strong stakes of wood, driven into the bed of the river, and upon which the transverse beams can rest from each side. It is here necessary to observe, that in a war of posts, and in a broken and mountainous country, an ingenious and active officer may, at the head of a body of pontoneers, be of the greatest service to a general, and even sometimes determine the issue of a battle. When the Austrian and French armies first met, near the memorable village of Marcungo, a large detachment of Bonaparte's army would have been drowned in the Scrivia, had it not been for the presence of mind and the activity of the officer who commanded a body of pontoneers. The republican troops, having been thrown into disorder, were flying in all directions, and as the Scrivia had been considerably swollen by the rain which fell the preceding night, they would have been cut off. Ponts à coulisse, or sliding bridges, with the assistance of some boats, were hastily established, and they not only escaped the pursuit of the victorious Austrians, but added to the strength of the French army, which had also given way. For the particulars of this transaction see Berthier's Report.

Pont à roulettes, Fr. a bridge on rollers or on casters.—See Pont à Coulisse.

Pont à quatre Branches, Fr. a bridge which consists of four abutments, and is constructed in such a manner as to unite, at one given point, the navigation of four different canals, by means of an arch that has four openings for the passage of barges and boats. A bridge of this description was erected in 1750, when the junction was made of the Calais and Airdes canals, on the new road which leads from Calais to St. Omers.

Pont aqueduc, Fr. a bridge, over which a canal flows; as the Pont du Gard in Languedoc in France.

Pont de batcaur, Fr. a bridge of boats. When a river is either too broad, too deep, or too rapid, to allow stone or pile-work to be used, a number of boats or barges must be moored and lashed together, at given distances, over the whole breadth of the river: and when this has been done, a solid floor or platform is constructed on them for the passage of cannon, wagons, &c.

Pont à fleur d'Eau, Fr. a bridge which lies upon the surface of the water. It is generally made for the purpose of keeping up a communication with the different works in a fortified place, when the ditches are filled with water. The floor is level with the water. The bridge is raised upon wooden trestles.

Pont de Communication, Fr. a bridge, which serves to keep up a regular communication between the different quarters or cantonments of an army, which is divided by a river, or by several strong currents. Several bridges of this description are built in time of war, in order to receive and to throw in supplies as they may be required.

Pont de Fuscines, Fr. a bridge made of hurdles or fascines. It is generally six toises in breadth, and is used at sieges when the fosses are filled with water. When the besiegers have resolved to storm a breach, the approach to which is interrupted by water, they throw one, two, or three beds of fascines across, fastened together and kept steady by means of wooden piles. Stones and earth are next thrown upon the fascines, to keep them steady in the water. An epaulement is then made towards the side of the remembrance of the place, and the bridge is finally constructed with thick planks. The epaulement serves to protect the workmen or artificers from the fire of the besieged.

Pont de Puntons, Fr. see Postonbridge.

Pont de Cordes, Fr. a bridge of ropes, or a bridge constructed with ropes. A French writer says, 'I have not been able to discover, in any work, not even in the Dictionnaire Raisonné des Sciences, a description of the bridge; yet it is well known, that by the means of this construction, which owes its origin to two Catalan priests, and to which we are indebted for the knowledge of a passage over the Legre), the Count D'Harcourt gained a victory over the Spaniards in the plain of Lorens, on the 23d of June, 1745. These bridges are made with strong
strong ropes twisted and interwoven together; and they are extremely useful in passing deep ravines and hollow ways.

Ponts de Tranchées, Fr. This term is used among the French to signify those parts of a trench which have been left unfinished through the flight or destruction of the artificers employed upon it; or because they have been too much wounded to continue at their work. In these cases the persons, who have the management of the sap, detach men from the quarters, where they may be least wanted, in order to complete the undertaking.

Pont suspendu, Fr. a hanging bridge. This sort of bridge is generally made for the purpose of securing a communication between two countries, which are otherwise separated by precipices or steep rocks. The bridge is supported by a quantity of strong chains, which are fastened at each of the two extremities. An undertaking of this kind must seem, at first sight, impracticable; but it has frequently succeeded in Europe, as may be seen in Piedmont and Savoy. In the latter country, indeed, there is a hanging bridge, which is built of stone on iron chains. See Hanging Bridge.

Pont volant, Fr. a flying bridge. This sort of bridge has a helm to it, by which the ferryman can guide it from one side of a river to the other. The one at Cologne, in Lower Germany, is large enough for four or five hundred men to cross at a time. See Flying Bridge.

Pont-levis à Bascule, Fr. a drawbridge, swung in such a manner, that the frame (half of which is concealed within what is called cage de la bascule, or hold of the swipe), and the other half (which is properly the tablier du pont, or frame itself,) covers all the exterior side of the gate, or entrance into the place.

Ponts-levis en zig-zag, Fr. drawbridges constructed in a zig-zag manner, before the gates of fortified towns or places, to prevent the enemy from entering the entrance.

Tête de Pont. See Tete.

Ponté, Fr. covered in, as a vessel which has a deck.

Ponton, Fr. lighter.

PONTONIER, Fr. lighterman.

PONTON or PONTOON, a kind of flat-bottomed boat, whose carcass of wood is lined within and without with tin: they serve to lay bridges over rivers for the artillery and army to march over. The French pontoons, and those of most other powers, are made of copper on the outside: though they cost more at first, yet they last much longer than those of tin; and, when worn out, the copper sells nearly for as much as it cost at first; but when ours are rendered useless, they sell for nothing. Our pontoons are 21 feet long, 5 feet broad, and depth within 2 feet 1. 5 inches.

Pontoons-carriage, is made with two wheels only, and two long side-pieces, whose fore-ends are supported by a limber; and serves to carry the pontoon, boards, cross timbers, anchors, and every other thing necessary for making a bridge.

Pontoons-bridge, is made of pontoons, slipped into the water, and placed about five or six feet asunder; each fastened with an anchor, when the river has a strong current, or to a strong rope that goes across the river, running through the rings of the pontoons. Each boat has an anchor, cable, baulks, and chests. The baulks are about 5 or 6 inches square, and 21 feet long. The chests are boards joined together by wooden bars, about three feet broad, and 12 feet long. The baulks are laid across the pontoons at some distance from one another, and the chests upon them joined close; which makes a bridge, in a very short time, capable of supporting any weight.

POOLBUNDY, Ind. a dam to prevent inundations.

POONA, Ind. a day fixed for the Zemindars to bring in their balances for the year.

POOLWA, Ind. the Indian name of a month.

POOR, indigent, necessitous, oppressed with want.

Poor in resources and expedients, of a limited conception; of a narrow understanding; unequal to an arduous enterprise.

POOR or PORE, Ind. when it terminates a word, means city; as Vizianpore, &c.

POOSE, Ind. the name of a month following
following Ughan: it in some degree accords with December and January.

POOSHTAY Bundee, Ind. embankments of rivers. It likewise means bridges thrown over rivers.

POOSKUT, Ind. a small weight, measuring eight koonchlys, or sixty-four handfuls; one koonchy being equal to eight handfuls.

POPULATION, Populacy, Popula-
tion, Fr. the state of a country with respect to numbers of people.

Population and strength of the European Powers. As the strength of every country must grow out of its population, more or less considered, we have collected the following short abstract of the population and strength of Europe.

Russia has a population of 25,000,000. In 1778 her peace establishment was composed of 150,000 effective men, trained to European discipline; but this force is now augmented to 400,000, including 60,000 Cossacks.

France has 32,000,000 of inhabitants. Since the revolution she has maintained 400,000 soldiers, and has augmented her army to 600,000 men during the war.

Austria has 18,000,000 of inhabitants. Since the Turkish war she has never reduced her military establishment below the force of 350,000 men, and has increased it in time of war to 400,000.

Prussia has 9,000,000 of inhabitants. She maintains, by a peculiar system, in time of peace, 250,000 exercised soldiers, and can augment her army, in time of war, to 360,000, perhaps 400,000 men.

Sweden has a population of 3,200,000 inhabitants, and an army of about 45,000 men, which she can augment to 100,000, in time of war, with the aid of a militia.

Denmark has a population of 2,600,000, with an army of 70,000 men, including a well armed and a peculiar sort of militia, commanded by regular and well informed officers, and attached to regular regiments. In time of war this force is greatly increased.

Spain has 9,000,000 of inhabitants. She maintains, in time of peace, 70,000 men, and has, in time of war, a force of 120,000, including a well composed militia; but her regular force is seldom complete.

Holland has 3,000,000 of inhabitants; an army of 16,000 men; but in the war of the succession she had a force of 102,000 men in her pay, and of which there were 65,000 men in the field, as appears by Lord Bolingbroke's dispatches. The Dutch always employed mercenaries. The decay of this force opened the Low Countries to the French.

Great Britain. Including Ireland her population consists of 15,000,000 of inhabitants.—She has the greatest capacity of any country to form an army, commensurate with her rank and resources; but she creates, by a false system, a feeble artificial force with great difficulty; and precipitates a reduction of that force, at the conclusion of every war, to the obliterating her military character, and the dissolution of awakened energies.

Portugal has 2,220,000 inhabitants, with an army of 40,000 men, and 100,000 militia, who serve without pay; but whom General Dumourier represents as being formidable to the Spaniards by their peculiar mode of carrying on warfare; but when General Stuart went to Portugal he found only 11,000 regular soldiers, instead of the number he had expected to find, viz. 60,000.

With respect to our own country it is necessary to observe, that, on an average, the population of the British Isles (including Ireland, which has considerably increased) has risen from 8,100,000 to 15,000,000 in a century. It has been computed that 186,000, or thereabouts, die annually in England; and that 255,426 are born, leaving the annual increase 99,426.
Distinct summary of the Population of the British Empire, not including our Foreign Possessions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Houses inhabited</th>
<th>Families</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>England</td>
<td>1,467,870</td>
<td>1,778,420</td>
<td>3,907,935</td>
<td>4,343,499</td>
<td>8,331,434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wales</td>
<td>108,653</td>
<td>118,503</td>
<td>257,178</td>
<td>284,368</td>
<td>541,546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scotland</td>
<td>294,553</td>
<td>364,079</td>
<td>734,581</td>
<td>864,487</td>
<td>1,599,068</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Army, including Militia</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>198,351</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>198,351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Navy, including Marines</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>126,279</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>126,279</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seamen in reg. shipping</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>144,558</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>144,558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Convicts in the hulks</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,410</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1,410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,870,476</td>
<td>2,260,802</td>
<td>5,450,292</td>
<td>5,492,354</td>
<td>10,942,646</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ireland computed at - - 4,000,000
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man 30,000

General Total 15,022,646

Tête de PORC. See Coin de Manœuvre Militaire: also Tête.

POREE, Fr. See Sécher à l'Ombre.

PORISTICK method, in mathematics, is that which determines when, by what means, and how many different ways, any problem may be resolved.

PORPHYRE, Fr. porphyry. A fine red marble.

PORT, Fr. a barbour.

Fermer les PORTS, Fr. to lay a general embargo upon shipping. During the French monarchy this practice frequently occurred, for the purpose of securing able bodied seamen.

Port, Fr. this word is likewise used to express the tonnage of a vessel.

PORTAL (portail, Fr.) the front or façade of a large building, where the principal gate stands.

Tirer à bout PORTANT, Fr. to fire at an object which lies as far off as a cannon or musquet can carry.

Tuer à bout PORTANT, Fr. to kill or do execution as far as a piece can carry.

To Port, to carry.

Port arms, a word of command which was adopted during the late war, and is universally practised in the British army. It consists in bringing the firelock diagonally across the chest from the carry. This position of the musquet affords a great facility to the person who inspects the touch-hole, &c. In dismissing guards, preparing to charge, &c. soldiers are ordered to port arms.

The French, as we have already observed, do not practice this method. Their word of command, haut les armes, corresponds with our recover.

PORTCLUSE, or PORT-cullice, in fortification, is an assemblage of several large pieces of wood, joined across one another like a harrow, and each pointed with iron at the bottom. They are sometimes hung over the gate-way of old fortified towns, ready to let down in case of a surprise, when the gates could not be shut.

Port-fire, in artillery, a composition put in a paper-case to fire guns and mortars, instead of a lint-stock and match. See Laboratory Works.

PORTGLAVE, Fr. See Porte-Epée.

Port de l'arme, Fr. the carriage of the firelock.

Porte, Fr. a gate. Portes d'une ville, the gates of a fortified town.

Porte. This word is used, both in French and English, to signify the court or residence of the Emperor of the Turks, and to distinguish it from that of the Grand Signor. The French say, la Porte Ottomane, the port, or Ottoman court.

Porte-arguebuse, Fr. the king's gunbearer.

Porte-baguette, Fr. the pipe of a musquet or pistol, into which the ramrod runs. It also signifies the cylinder of a Prussian musquet, which is parallel with its barrel.
citadel, which has an outlet towards the country, is so called. By means of this
gate the garrison can always receive succours or reinforcements, in cases of ci-
vil insurrection, or under circumstances of surprise.

Porte-toir, Fr. a speaking trumpet.

A la PORTEE, Fr. within the reach
or range. Hence à la portée d’un can-
on, within the reach or range of a cannon.

Portée du fusil, Fr. by this expression
the French generally understand the
distance which a musquet-shot goes
to its ultimate destination. It is sup-
posed to vary from 120 to 150 toises.

Portée des pièces, Fr. the flight or
reach of cannon.

Portée à toute volée, Fr. the flight
of a cannon shot when it makes an an-
gle of 45 degrees with the horizon, or
level of the country. In this manner
it completes the greatest possible range.

Portée de but en blanc, Fr. the for-
ward direction and flight, which a ball
describes from the mouth of the piece to
its ultimate object. It has been gene-
really found by experience, that the dis-
tance so described could not exceed
300 toises. Beyond that, the ball has
been known to deviate. According to
Belidor, pieces of ordnance will carry
further in the morning and at night,
when the weather is cool and rarefied,
than in the middle of the day, or at
noon, when the heat of the sun prevails.
This circumstance is amply discussed in
his Bombardier Français; and his ob-
servations were proved to be correct, by
experiments made in June, 1744, at
Usson. These experiments com-
menced at seven o’clock in the morn-
ing, and lasted till twelve. It was re-
marked, that the shells, which were
thrown out of three mortars, gradually
fell short of their original range. Be-
sides the portée a toute volée, and the
portée de but en blanc, or the full range
and the point blank shot, there is the
ricochet, which Marshal Vauban invent-
ed, and which see under the term Ri-
cochet.

PORTER, Fr. to carry. It is a ma-
rine term; as porter toutes ses voiles.

To carry all her sails. It is likewise
used as a word of command, viz. Portez
des armes, carry arms.

PORTER, Fr. This word is also ap-
plied
plied among the French, (and our word carry frequently corresponds with the various significations,) to the different directions or motions which belong to all fire-arms and missile weapons. They likewise say, in speaking of a gun-shot wound, that it is dangerous, because the ball (a porté sur l’os,) has reached or hit the bone.

Porte une botte, Fr. to make a thrust or pass.

Porteréau, Fr. a dam.

Portés d’une ville de guerre, Fr. openings which cross the ramparts of a fortified town or place, and are generally arched over. These openings are usually made in the middle of the curtain, between two bastions. They are from nine to ten feet broad, and from thirteen to fourteen feet high. The gates are mostly decorated with trophies of war: and in some instances a very superfluous magnificence is exhibited.

Fausses portes, Fr. false gates or imaginary inlets. These are almost always made in the reverse, or behind the orillon, in order to conceal and render easy any projected sallies against the besieging parties; or for the purpose of suddenly falling upon the advanced posts of an enemy.

Porteurs d’eau, Fr. water carriers. In India they are called beasties. Amongst the Turks, the sakkas, or water-carriers, are taken from the lowest rank of soldiers belonging to the Capiculy infantry. The number of these men depends upon the nature of the service on which the Turks are employed. They are under the orders of the officers who command companies; and although their situation is not only the most degrading, but the most laborious in the army, they may, nevertheless, become soldiers. Their dress consists of brown leather; and, from the continual fatigue which they undergo, their appearance is wretched in the extreme.

The Turks have more men of this description in their service, than are found in any other; not even India excepted. For, independent of the state of their climate, and the consequent necessity of having water brought from distant parts of the country, they use large quantities in ablution; every Turk takes care to wash himself from head to foot before he says his daily prayers.

Port-fire, a composition of meal-powder, sulphur, and saltpetre, driven into a case of paper, to serve instead of a match to fire guns.

Port-folio, in a general acceptance of the term amongst us, is a species of large leathern case, made like a pocket-book, and calculated to carry papers of any size. Among the French it not only signifies the same thing, but likewise a box made of paste-board, in which are contained the several papers that relate to any particular department. The adjutants, quarter-masters, &c. belonging to the staff, should be provided with port folios for the purpose of keeping their reports, &c. in regular order.

Port-glaive, from the French porteur and glaive. One who carries the sword before a prince or magistrate.

Port-holes, in a ship, are the embrasures or holes in the sides of a ship, through which the muzzles of cannon are run.

Portieres, Fr. two pieces or folds of wood which are placed in the embrasures of a battery, and which close the instant the piece has been fired. They serve to cover the cannoneers from the aim of the enemy, and to resist the discharge of musquetry. They are, however, seldom or ever used except when the batteries stand close to the counterscarp.

Portico, (portique, Fr.) in architecture, a kind of ground gallery, or piazza, encompassed with arches supported by columns, without any immediate relation to doors or gates, where people walk under cover. The roof is commonly vaulted, sometimes flat. The ancients called it lacunae.

Portmanneau, (valise, Fr.) a cloak bag to carry necessaries in a journey. It is sometimes made of leather.

Portmote, a court held in port towns, as swanimoine is in the forest.

Port-ropes, in a ship, such ropes as serve to haul up and let down the ports on the port-holes.

Portulan, Fr. a book or chart which gives a description of the situation, &c. of seaports.

Posca. See Oxycrat.

Poser, Fr. to lay down. It is used as
as a word of command in the French artillery, &c. viz. posez vos léviers; lay down your levers.

POSER une sentinelle, Fr. to post a sentry.

Poser un corps-de-garde, Fr. to post or establish a guard in any quarter.

Poser des gardes, Fr. to post different guards or sentries.

Poser les armes, Fr. to lay down arms.

Poser les armes à terre, Fr. to ground arms.

POSES, Fr. the sentinels that are posted.

Poses, (grandes poses, Fr.) a French military term, signifying the extraordinary sentinels or guards, which after retreat beating are posted in a fortified town or place, for the safety of certain specific quarters. The corporals who post the sentinels are directed to instruct them not to suffer any person to go upon the ramparts, unless he belong to the night patrole or rounds, &c.—These extraordinary guards are relieved at daybreak.

Priming POSITION, the position in which the musket is held at the time of putting the powder into the pan.—By the Regulations for the Manual and Platoon Exercise, published in 1804, it is directed, that the priming position shall be the same for all ranks, viz. the top of the cock opposite the right breast, and the muzzle of the piece elevated to the height of the peak of the cap.

Position (position, Fr.) This word is variously used in a military sense, both by the French and English. It is applicable to locality; as the army took an excellent position, or drew up on very advantageous ground, and in a very advantageous manner. Frederick the Great of Prussia has laid it down as a maxim, that no army should take up a position in rear of a forest, since it is thereby prevented from observing the movements of the enemy, and from countenancing their plans. See pages 323, and 331, in the Rules and Regulations.

Position of the soldier without arms. The equal squareness of the shoulders and body to the front, is the first and great principle of the position of the soldier: the heels must be in a line, and closed; the knees straight, without stiffness; the toes turned out, so that the feet may form an angle of about 60 degrees; the arms hang near the body, but not stiff; the flat of the hand, and little finger, touching the thigh, and the thumbs as far back as the seams of the breeches; the elbows and shoulders are to be kept back; the belly rather drawn in, and the breast advanced, but without constraint; the body to be upright, but inclining rather forwards, so that the weight of it may bear chiefly on the fore part of the feet; the head to be erect, and neither turned to the right nor to the left; the eyes alone will be glanced to the right. See page 3, Rules and Regulations.

Position of the soldier with arms. The body of the soldier being in the position above described, the firelock is to be placed in his left hand against the shoulder; his wrist to be a little turned out; the thumb alone to appear in front; the four fingers to be under the butt, and the left elbow to be rather bent inwards, so as not to be separated from the body, or to be more backward or forward than the right one. The firelock must rest full on the hand, not on the end of the fingers: and be carried in such manner as not to raise, advance, or keep back, one shoulder more than the other; the butt must therefore be forward, and as low as can be permitted without constraint; the fore part a very little before the front of the thigh; and the hind part of it pressed by the wrist against the thigh; it must be kept steady and firm before the hollow of the shoulder; should it be drawn back, or carried too high, the one shoulder would be advanced, the other kept back, and the upper part of the body would be distorted and not square with respect to the limbs.

The position in which a soldier should move, determines that in which he should stand still. Too many methods cannot be used to supple the recruit, and banish the air of the rustic. But that excess of setting up, which stiffens the person, and tends to throw the body backward instead of forward, is contrary to every true principle of movement, and must therefore be most carefully avoided. See page 21, General Rules and Regulations.
Position in marching. In marching, the soldier must maintain, as much as possible, the position of the body as directed in Sect. I. page 3, of the General Rules and Regulations. See likewise March.

Change of Position, the positive or relative movement of a body of troops on any given point. See Part IV. General Rules and Regulations, Page 308.

New Positions that a regiment or line can take with respect to the old one, are,

Parallel Positions, or nearly so to the old one.

Intersecting Positions by themselves, or their prolongation, some part of the old line or its prolongation.

New parallel Positions being necessarily to the front, or rear of the old one, the regiment will, according to circumstances, take them up by the diagonal march; the flank march of divisions after wheeling into column; or the movement in open column to the new line, and its subsequent formation in it.

New intersecting Positions, which themselves cut the regiment, will, in cavalry movements, be taken up by the diagonal march; or the flank march ranks by three's of divisions. All other new positions, which themselves, or their prolongation, intersect the old line, or its prolongation, will in general be taken up by the march in open column, and its subsequent formations, when it arrives at the line; some such positions will, however, allow of and require being made by the echelon march, or by the flank march of divisions. In general, the regiment will break to the hand which is nearest to the new position, be conducted to its nearest point in the new line, and form on it as directed. See pages 80, 81, Cavalry Regulations.

Position of the officer. See Sword.

Position du soldat sans armes, Fr. position of the soldier without arms.

Position du soldat avec les armes, Fr. position of the soldier with arms.

Position de l'extension, Fr. in fencing, position of extension.

POSSEDER, Fr. to possess, to be in possession of.

POSSE, an armed power, called out on any particular emergency; as the posse comitatus, who in England are called out by the respective lords lieutenant of counties.

POSSESSION, to take possession, is the act of occupying any post, camp, fortress, &c. which might facilitate the operation of an army, or which previously belonged to the enemy.

POST, in war, a military station; any sort of ground, fortified or not, where a body of men can be in a condition of resisting the enemy.

Advanced Post, a spot of ground, seized by a party to secure their front, and the posts behind them.

Post of honour, the advanced guard is a post of honour: the right of the two lines is a post of honour, and is always given to the eldest regiment: the left is the next post, and is given to the next eldest, and so on. The center of the lines is the post the least honourable, and is given to the youngest regiments. The station of a sentinel before the colours, and the door of the commanding officer, is a post of honour.

Advantageous Post. Every situation is so called which an enemy occupies in such a manner, that not only mere force of arms, but great military skill, and many stratagems are required to dislodge him. We have various instances in history of how much may be done on both sides, when one army has taken up an advantageous post, and another finds it necessary to drive him from it. This subject has been amply discussed in a French work, intituled, Stratagèmes de Guerre, page 71, &c.

Posts of exercise in the rear, the relative stations which officers take in the rear, when the ranks of a battalion are opened for the purpose of going through the manual and platoon exercises. It is likewise a cautionary word of command, viz. The officers will take post in the rear.

To Post. In the disposition of troops, to place the officers, music, drummers, fifers, and pioneers, according to their several ranks and appointments, either for inspection, or exercise in the field.

To Post, to station, to place, as a sentry, &c.

To be Posted, in military tactics, to be posted ready for action. Thus when
when troops are brought up in column, and ordered to deploy, it frequently happens, that some part of the line is refused, in order to flank an enemy, or to cover a weak position, the part that is assigned is said to be posted.

To Post up, (afficher, Fr.) to hold up to public censure or ridicule.

To be Posted, in a familiar sense, signifies to be publicly announced as an infamous or degraded character. Hence to post a man as a coward, is to stick his name up in a coffee-house or elsewhere, and to accuse him of a want of spirit, &c. The French use the phrase afficher in the same sense. They likewise say figuratively afficher sa honte; to publish or post up one's own disgrace; meaning thereby, that some persons are so totally regardless of decency and decorum, as to express sentiments which are unbecoming the character of an officer, or a gentleman.

POSTAGE of Letters. Non-commissioned officers and private soldiers are privileged to send or receive letters, from any part of the kingdom, on payment of one penny only for the postage.

In the instructions to postmasters, (dated General Post Office, Feb. 4th, 1799,) concerning the exemptions granted to seamen in the navy, and privates in the army, in respect of the postage of their letters, it is specified, that

"No single letter sent by the post from any seaman or private, employed in his Majesty's navy, army, militia, fusible regiments, artillery, or marines, shall, whilst such seamen or private shall be employed on his Majesty's service, and not otherwise, be charged with an higher rate of postage than the sum of one penny for the conveyance of each such letter; such postage to be paid at the time of putting the same into the post office of the town, or place from whence such letter is intended to be sent by the post.

"Provided that no such letter shall be exempted from postage, unless there shall be written thereon, in the handwriting of, and signed by the commanding officer, for the time being, of the ship or vessel, or of the corps, regiment, or detachment to which such seaman or private shall belong, the name of such commanding officer, and of the ship, vessel, corps, regiment, or detachment commanded by him.

"No single letter, directed to any such seaman, or private, upon his own private concerns, only whilst such seaman, or private, shall be employed on his Majesty's service, and not otherwise, shall be charged with a higher rate of postage than one penny for each such letter, which penny shall be paid at the time of the delivery thereof.

"Provided that no such letter shall be exempted from the rates of postage chargeable upon letters, unless any such letter shall be directed to such seaman, or private, specifying the ship, vessel, regiment, troop, corps, company, or detachment to which he may belong; and provided also, that it shall not be lawful for the deputy-postmaster of the town or place to which such letter shall be sent to be delivered, to deliver such letter to any person except to the seaman, or private to whom such letter shall be directed, or to any person appointed to receive the same, by the commanding officer of the ship, &c. to which the seaman, or private to whom such letter shall be directed, shall belong.

"The exemptions do not extend to letters sent to or received from countries independent of England: they do extend to the West India islands, and British America.

"All postmasters are desired to take particular notice, that double letters to and from soldiers and sailors and their families, are liable to the full double rates, the same as letters in general; and some postmasters having conceived that letters containing money orders might pass under the exemptions of this act, they are desired to understand that such letters are chargeable with full double rates also.

"Recruiting serjeants, who may carry on a correspondence with their officers on the recruiting service, cannot send or receive their letters on that service, under the exemptions granted by this act.

"The above exemptions granted by the legislature do not extend in the navy to any other than seamen, and not to officers of any description whatever; and in the army, only the privates,
vates, with serjeants and serjeant-majors are included. Many officers both in the army and navy, having construed the act to extend to their own correspondence, it is hereby publicly stated that such a construction is altogether inapplicable.

"Francis Freeling, secretary."

The act in its literal meaning includes in this indulgence all non-commissioned officers, although they are excluded by this official interpretation.

According to a letter issued from the post-office, dated 18th Sept. 1799, to all postmasters, in addition to the rates above-mentioned, these letters are chargeable with inland postage, to and from London, excepting single letters to and from soldiers and sailors, and it is to be left to the option of the writers to pay the postage or not on putting them into any post-office.

N. B. Letters sent to officers in Egypt were charged eight-pence inland postage.

POSTE, Fr. a word generally used in the plural number to signify small shot, viz. Son fusil était chargé de douze ou quinze postes; his gun or musket was loaded with twelve or fifteen shot.

POSTES, Fr. This word is always used in the masculine gender when it relates to war, or to any specific appointments; as poste avancé, an advanced post. Poste avantageux, an advantageous post.—Mauvais poste, an unfavourable post.—The French say figuratively, un poste est jaloux, thereby meaning, that a post is extremely open to an attack, and that the troops in it may be easily surprised.

POSTE avantageux, Fr. See Advantageux post.

POSTES jaloux, Fr. a military post is so called, when it is likely to be surprised, from its situation.

POSTES d’alarme, Fr. alarm-post. See ALARM.

POSTES des invulnérables, Fr. See MONT PAGNOTTE.

POSTER, Fr. to place or post, as poster des gardes, to place or post sentries or out-guards.

POSTES, Fr. machines which are made of osier branches, standing six feet in length upon three in breadth; about six inches thick, and covered on each side by two pieces of thick strong pasteboard. Each machine is made fast to a large stake, which is fenced with iron, and driven deep into the earth. There are two openings or loopholes in each post, through which sentries may fire upon the enemy, when he approaches towards a post which has been established on the high road, for the purpose of attempting a surprise or coup de main. This machine was invented by General Sernepon, then Gouvernor of Boulogne sur mer, and it was used by the Duke de Guise, with great success, when he besieged and took Calais in 1558.

POSTES de campagne, Fr. Every construction or groupe of buildings that will admit of being defended, and is consequently tenable, is called a poste de campagne, or field-work. Of this description are churches, houses, country-houses, farm-houses, villages, redoubts, &c. in which a sufficient number of men may be stationed for the purpose of holding out against an enemy, until succours can arrive. Chevalier Folard has written upon this subject; and since him, F. Gaudi, with comments and illustrations by A. P. J. Belair, chief of brigade in the Republican French army. We recommend the latter production, which appeared in 1795, to the perusal of every British officer. The work is intituled, Instruction adressée aux officiers d’Infanterie pour tracer et construire toutes sortes d’ouvrages de campagne. See likewise, Aide Mémoire pour les officiers d’artillerie. We think it due to the exertions of an officer in our own service to mention a late work, entitled Duties of an Officer in the Field, &c. by Baron Gross, of the Dutch brigade. This gentleman seems to have availed himself of what has appeared in foreign treatises, and to have added some very sensible remarks of his own.

Officers should never lose sight of the many advantages which may be derived from a knowledge of field fortification, and a competent skill to choose a good position, and a tenable post. There is scarcely any building, especially in an intersected country, and in a war of posts, which may not be rendered highly serviceable to one side, and detrimental to the other. Acre, though dignified by the name of a town, when considered in a military point of view,
view, was nothing more than a post! yet by the gallant defence which was made there, (against Bonaparte and his whole army,) Sir Sidney Smith, and a few brave seamen and marines, not only covered themselves with glory, but were the primary causes of the final rescue of Egypt out of the hands of the French. History is full of instances of valour, and of consequent success, on this head. The defence which Charles the XIIIth, of Sweden, made, in his own dwelling, when he had only eight men to stand by him, is, perhaps, unexampled; that also of Marshal Saxe, in 1705, is equally memorable.

Petits Postes séparés, Fr. small detached posts.

Postes intermédiaires, Fr. intermediate posts, or men so stationed between different corps, that, in cases of urgency, they may, with ease, advance to the support of that which is more immediately threatened by the enemy.

POSTERN, more frequently called a sally-port, is a small door in the flank of a bastion, or other part of a garrison, to march in and out unperceived by an enemy, either to relieve the works, or make sallies.

POSTICHE, Fr. any thing fictitious put in room of something that has been real and natural. In military matters, among the French, it serves to distinguish supernumerary or auxiliary soldiers that are taken from one or more companies, to strengthen any particular body of men.

POSTLION, Fr. an express-boat which is kept in French sea-ports for the purpose of carrying and bringing intelligence.

POT, Fr. a vessel used in the making of artificial fireworks, &c.

Pot, Fr. a pot; an utensil of first necessity, either for culinary or private domestic purposes.

Stink-Pot, a vessel filled with combustible matter, which is thrown on various occasions, when men come into close action. The consequences of its explosion are sometimes fatal, and always dangerous.

Pot à aigrette, Fr. an artificial firework, the center of which contains a certain quantity of powder, which, upon being inflamed, communicates itself to several other branches, and exhibits the appearance of an aigrette, or cluster of rays, such as issue from diamonds arranged in a particular manner. The aigrette takes its name from a bird so called, whose feathers serve to make up an ornament for the head. It was given in diamonds, as a particular mark of distinction, by the Grand Signor, to Lord Nelson, after his glorious conduct in the battle of the Nile. Lord Hutchinson and Sir Sidney Smith have deservedly received the same marks of distinction.

Pot à braise, Fr. an iron pot in which pitch or tar is melted.

Pot de Chambre, Fr. literally means a chamber-pot; which, to those who can afford to have one, may also be called an utensil of first necessity. Each officer has one in barracks, but the soldiers have not any, for obvious reasons. This word has given birth to a phrase among the French, which has been transferred to us, and was lately used (we hope not ludicrously, for the discussion was serious) in a grave British assembly by a British general.—Vide Parliamentary Report and the Militia Bill, March 28th, 1805. We shall quote the term.—

Guerre des Pots de chambre, Fr. a war of chamber-pots, or a contest about trifles.

Pot à feu, Fr. a fire pot; a hand grenade.

Pot d'une fusée volante, Fr. the carcass of a fusée.

Pot en tête, Fr. a head-piece made of iron, which is proof against musquet-shot. This head-piece is sometimes placed in the crown of the hat, and is otherwise used by sappers.

POTEAU, Fr. a stake, post.

POTÉE, Fr. putty.

POTENCE, Fr. Troops are ranged en potence by breaking a straight line, and throwing a certain proportion of it, either forward or backward, from the right or left, according to circumstances, for the purpose of securing that line. An army may be posted en potence by means of a village, a river, or a wood. The derivation of the word may be variously explained, viz.—From Potence, a gibbet. Potences, crutches or supports. Potence likewise means a piece, of wood which is thrown across
two uprights; also a cross table, as table en potence; and a measure to ascertain the height of a horse or man.

The disposition en potence is frequently necessary in narrow and intersected ground.

Double Potence, Fr. two sides of a square, of more or less extent, thrown opposite to each other from another side. Thus, in narrow ground, the two flank companies may be filed from the battalion, and facing inwards, constitute together the double Potence.

Triple Potence, Fr. if the term can be used, signifies three sides of a square, and is, in fact, the double Potence taken collectively.

Quadraple Potence, Fr. the complete square.

POTENTAT, Fr.—See Potentate.

POTENTATE, a sovereign prince, whose power is rendered formidable by the various means of authority which are vested in him.

POTERNE, Fr. a postern gate, a sally port.

Poterne, Fr. likewise signifies a secret gate. Gates of this description are made behind the orillons at the extremities of the curtain, in the angle of the flank, and in the middle of those curtains where there are no gates. The sewers generally run under the poternes. Belidor, in his Art of Engineering, recommends small arched magazines to be constructed on the right and left of the paths that lead to these gates.

POTESTAS or Imperium, a command among the Romans, which came direct from the people, and without which authority no general could carry on the war. Of this description was the command given to Fabius, and afterwards divided by the people between him and Minucius. See Presumption.

POUCH, (gibere, Fr.) a case of black stout leather with a flap over it, which is generally ornamented by a brass crown, &c. for the battalion-men; a fuse for the grenadiers, and a bugle-horn for the light infantry. The pouch hangs from a buff cross belt, over the left shoulder, and is worn in that manner, by the infantry, for the purpose of carrying their ammunition. The pouches in use among the cavalry are smaller.

Pouc-h-flap, the outside covering of the pouch. It is made of the stoutest blackened calf-skin, and ought always to be substantial enough to turn the severest weather.

POUCE, Fr. an inch.

POUDRE, Fr.—See Gunpowder.

Poudre, Fr. The French say, figuratively, when a country is surrounded by enemies—Ce pays sent la Poudre à Canon, this country smells of gunpowder.

Poudre muette, poudre sourde, Fr. a species of gunpowder which is free from noise or detonation.

Poudre fulminante, Fr. a species of gunpowder which makes a greater noise than the common sort. This powder is composed of three parts saltpetre, two parts salt of tartar, and one part sulphur.

Poudre à gros grains, Fr. gunpowder which is used for artillery pieces. It is likewise called Poudre à Canon.

Poudre à mousquet, Fr. gunpowder used for musquets, and other fire-arms.

POUдер, Fr. a gunpowder-maker. It also signifies an hour-glass.

POVERTY, a goddess adored by the Pagans, and familiar to Christians. She was reverenced, as a deity, by the heathens, because they feared her, and was very justly considered as the mother of industry and fine arts. Among military men, poverty is seldom felt whilst the active duties of the profession are executed with zeal and good sense, and the individuals entrusted with them, are not only paid with punctuality, but are secured in their honest hopes of promotion: Economy is the basis on which every soldier should build his views of personal comfort and independence; and if he attend to the perpetual calls of service, he will not fail to realize them. For a life of real service affords no scope for extravagance; and when a good soldier becomes unequal to the hardships it imposes, the nation should provide for him.

POUF, Ind. a word used among the Africans and blacks to describe the explosion of fire-arms.

POULEVRIN, Fr. fine grains of gunpowder which have been pounded, and serve for priming.

POULIE, Fr. a pulley.

A POUND sterling, a money in account value 20s.
POUND NOTE, a printed paper, which is issued from the Bank of England, and is ordered to be taken at the current rate of twenty shillings, making one pound sterling.

POUNDAGE, a rate in the pound sterling, which is allowed for collecting money. Army agents, &c. are entitled to poundage, which consists in a certain deduction from the pay of officers, non-commissioned officers and soldiers — Agents are not allowed any poundage on the pay of the privates in the militia.

POUNDER, a great gun or piece of ordnance, denominated according to the weight of the ball it carries, as a 6, 12, 24 pounder. For some particulars relative to an improvement in iron-field-artillery, discovered by Lieutenant-Colonel Shrapnel, see page 392, Vol. II. Regimental Companion, 6th edition.

POURIE, Ind. a wooden sandal, which is used in India during the wet season.

POURSUITE, Fr. pursuit.

POURSUIVANTS d'armes, Fr. — See Pursuivants at arms.

POURSUIVRE, Fr. to pursue.

POURSUIVRE l'épée dans les reins, Fr. to pursue with unrelenting activity.

POURSUIT, Fr. in architecture, the circumference of any place.

POURVOIR, Fr. to provide, to lay in store, &c.

POURVEYEURS des vivres, Fr. purveyors.

POUSSE-balle, Fr. a small cylindrical instrument made of iron, which is used to ram down a ball in a rifled barrel.

POUSSE-cu, Fr. a bum-baiff; a reptile well known to the navy and army of Great Britain, especially at the conclusion of a war; and he is likely to continue so, unless some addition be made to their pay.

POUSser, Fr. to push, to press upon, to drive before you, viz. Pousser aux ennemis; to advance rapidly against the enemy. This expression is used in a neutral sense, and relates chiefly to the operations of cavalry.

POUSser un cheval, Fr. to make a horse go full speed.

POUSser les frontières d'un état, Fr. to break through the frontiers of a neighbouring state, and to continue the incursion; so that it may literally be said, that the frontiers are pushed forward. The modern French have done this to no small extent.

POUsser ses conquêtes, Fr. to extend one's conquests.

POUSser ses succès, Fr. to follow up a successful undertaking.

POUssIÈRE, Fr. dust; the earth you tread on: it also signifies the dust which remains after the formation of gunpowder into grains.

Mordre la POUssIÈRE, Fr. literally to bite the dust. Hence, il a fait mordre la poussière à son ennemi, Fr. he has made his enemy bite the dust, or he has destroyed his enemy. The French also say, figuratively, of any man who has been in several engagements, il s'est couvert d'une noble poussière, he has covered himself with noble or illustrious dust; i.e. he has distinguished himself on various occasions.

POUTRE, Fr. a beam.

POUTRELLE, Fr. a small beam.

POWDER, commonly called gunpowder. (Poudre à Canon, Fr.) Although, under the latter term, we have entered, rather diffusely, into the invention and the properties of this destructive composition; we have, nevertheless, omitted some additional observations, which we have selected since that article was worked off. Under the word poudre we have also stated a curious opinion relative to its first discovery; we shall now extract, from a late French publication, some other particulars on the same subject. Speaking of the opinion of father Gaubil, the Jesuit, in favour of the Chinese, the writer says, "It is difficult to establish the truth or falsity of the assertion." It is not, however, immaterial (in order to arrive at the truth as near as possible), to mention what Sainte-Foix has said on gunpowder; and he is an author by no means apocryphal, but to be depended upon.

"In 1330," observes Sainte-Foix, "a monk of the order of St. Augustine, who was a great alchemist, having put a mixture of sulphur and saltpetre in his mortar, was suddenly struck by the explosion of all the ingredients, through a spark of fire having accidentally fallen upon them. Naturally disposed to investigate so extraordinary an effect, he set about tracing the cause, which soon appeared to him very clear, when he compared the hot and dry quality of the sulphur with the cold and moist one of the saltpetre; he therefore added some
some pounded charcoal to them, for the purpose of ignition. Having thus established the principles of inflammation, he next observed with what violence the fire, if compressed, went into a state of detonation. He accordingly placed a certain quantity of the composition in a small tube, and communicated a secret, whose promulgation has, hitherto, proved so fatal to the human race."—See Traité de l’Artillerie, par Diego Velasco. It has also been said, that gunpowder was known in Europe as far back as the year 1323, since there was a piece of ordnance in the arsenal, at Bamberg, about that period. Others again assert, that the English made use of cannon at Creci in 1388; and that Edward III. owed his victory to the tremendous, and, until then, unheard explosion which took place from a height in the neighbourhood of Creci. Our French author, in compliment, we presume, to the acknowledged humanity of the French people, takes care to tell us, that they were in possession of the secret, but that it was reserved for the barbarous and ferocious temper of the British to make use of it. Credat Judeus! He then adds, that he has discovered a much more interesting account of this composition than even the one furnished by Sainte-Foix, in a book which was published in 1586, and whose title is de inventoribus rerum. Virgilius Polidorus, who is the author of this curious treatise, after having described the different machines which were used by the ancients, thus expresses himself:—

"A man, who seems to have been born for the destruction of his fellow creatures, had preserved a preparation of sulphur, for medical purposes, in a mortar, which he covered with a stone. It so happened, that whilst he was striking a piece of steel close to the mortar, a spark flew accidentally into a small aperture of the latter, and the instant it got in contact with the contents, a blaze suddenly issued forth, and, with a loud explosion, the stone was cast into the air. Led on by this discovery, the same person made a small iron pipe, and filled it with the powder. From this he obtained fresh discoveries, which at last gave him the idea to construct a machine that was first tried at Chiozza, when the Venetians were at war with the Genoese. The reward, according to Polidorus, which this inventor got for his ingenuity and perseverance, is said to have been the total suppression of his name, in order to rescue it from the execration of all mankind. "Did he not merit, in fact," continues Polidorus, in the same strain of fine feeling, "to fall, like Salamine, a victim to his own invention?"

Notwithstanding these clouds, which have been successively thrown over the original inventor, it does not appear that his name has been wholly buried in oblivion, since, almost every author that has treated of gunpowder, gives the first discovery of it to Berthold Schwartz, a religious man, who resided at Friburg, the capital of Brisgaw, in Germany, lying twenty-six miles South of Strasburg, and being the seat of an university.

President Hainault fixes the date of this fatal invention in 1380. This must certainly be a mistake of the press, (which we have inadvertently followed under the article gunpowder,) for all authors, who have written upon the subject, state it to have been discovered in 1530; and from what we have said, respecting the first use of cannon, it is probable that the original invention goes much higher.

It is also attributed to Roger Bacon, an Englishman, who lived in the thirteenth century. If this conjecture be correct, it is still more ancient. We know, from unquestionable authority, that the English (as we have already stated in the liberal words of a French writer,) were the first who used ordnance with gunpowder in 1547, at the memorable battle of Crécy, where the French were so completely overthrown. We refer our readers to other works, which have been written on this composition, such as Antoni, Robinus, &c. for further information respecting its nature and qualities.

POWDER Horn, a horn flask, in which powder is kept for priming guns. Light infantry have frequently a powder horn for carrying spare powder.

POWDER-magazine, a bomb-proof arched building, to hold the powder in fortifed places, &c. containing several rows of barrels laid one over another. See Magazine.

POWDER-carriage, a two-wheeled carriage,
POW

Fiage, covered with an angular roof of boards. To prevent the powder from getting damp, a tarred canvas is put over the roof; and on each side are lockers to hold shot, in proportion to the quantity of powder, which is generally four barrels.

Powder-mill, a building in which the materials are beat, mixed together, and grained: they are placed near rivers, and as far from any house as can be, for fear of accidents, which often happen. See MILL.

POWER, a natural faculty of doing or suffering anything. Mr. Locke, in his Essay on the Human Understanding, considers power under two heads. One he calls active, and the other passive power.

. Power. This word sometimes signifies host, army.

Power of Attorney, (procuration, Fr.) an authority given to a third person to act between one or more parties. When an officer is not on the spot to receive his half-pay, it is usual for him to empower some army-agent to act for him, either in Great Britain or Ireland, according to circumstances. General officers, when they obtain regiments, grant powers of attorney to their agents; but they are, to all intents and purposes, responsible to the public for the trust so delegated.

To be in the power of any body, in a figurative sense, to have committed yourself in such a manner as to be under the necessity of keeping upon good terms with a person who might injure you by a disclosure of your secrets. To avoid putting yourself in the power of any man, hear much, say little, and write less. These are maxims which every public character ought to attend to; and which every general should cautiously follow during an active campaign, when there are so many occasions to communicate with spies, &c. and he is so frequently obliged to hold intercourse with suspected persons.

To be in the power of an enemy, to have taken up, injudiciously, such a position as to expose you to a defeat whenever the enemy may think proper to attack you.

Powers of lines and quantities, are their squares, cubes, &c. or other multiplications of the parts into the whole, or of one part into another.

POX

Cow POX, a disorder incident to cows, from which much benefit has been promised to the human race, by introducing what is called vaccine matter into the habit, and thereby preventing the fatal effects of the small pox. Doctors, however, disagree as to its efficacy. Doctor Moseley, of Albany House, who has combated the doctrine, as hitherto practised, speaks of it in the following manner: "There may be some good in the cow-pox, if we can bring it under proper management. If it be only a temporary security against the small pox, it may still be turned to some account, employed to prevent the destructive rage of the small pox in fleets, camps, and armies; and on board African ships, to guard against its ravages, which are sometimes dreadful, during their voyage to the West Indies; and on plantations there, for occasional purposes, when surprised by the small pox breaking out in an epidemic season." See page 120, second edition of a Treatise on the Lues Bovilla, or Cow-Pox.

Small Pox, a disease to which most infants, adults, &c. are exposed; and which has been rendered less malignant by inoculation. When recruits join a regiment they should be examined respecting this disease; and no man should be lost in inoculating them.

Great Pox, commonly called the French disease. Few men are more likely to catch this cruel disorder than soldiers; and in no case ought the attention of the regimental surgeon to be more imperiously engaged than in the speedy cure of it. In the navy, where the disease is often prevalent, the surgeons are entitled to receive a certain sum of money, which is stopped out of the pay of their venereal patients, for extraordinary trouble and attendance. No specific regulation exists in the army. Sometimes, indeed, the captains of companies have assumed a discretionary power with respect to their men, and the latter have submitted to the charge. One great evil has, however, grown out of both practices, namely, the men, to avoid the stoppage, have applied to country quacks, and very frequently taken nostrums of their own. Every officer of a company, who has the welfare of his soldiers at heart, should examine their linen at the weekly
ly inspections, as the disorder generally manifests itself, particularly in its first stages, in stains upon the shirt.

It is generally believed, that the veserial malady was first brought into Europe in 1492, by the followers of Christopher Columbus, after his discovery of America. These people gave it to their countrywomen in Spain; the Spaniards extended it to Naples, and the French caught it during the siege of the latter place in 1495; and from France it was rapidly spread over the rest of Europe; so that its original nursery, on this side of the Atlantic, seems to have been a camp.

PRACTICABLE, a word frequently used in military matters, to express the possible accomplishment of any object. Hence, "a practicable breach."

PRACTICE, or Gun-practice. In the spring, as soon as the weather permits, the exercise of the great guns begins, for the purpose of shewing the gentlemen cadets at the royal military academy at Woolwich, and the private men, the manner of laying, loading, pointing, and firing the guns. Sometimes instruments are used to find the center line, or two points, one at the breech, the other at the muzzle, which are marked with chalk, and whereby the piece is directed to the target: then a quadrants is put into the mouth, to give the gun the required elevation, which at first is guessed at, according to the distance the target is from the piece. When the piece has been fired, it is spunged, to clear it from any dust or sparks of fire that may remain in the bore, and loaded; then the center line is found, as before; and if the shot went too high, or too low, to the right or to the left, the elevation and trail are altered accordingly. This practice continues during the whole of the day, and for about six weeks, more or less, according as there is a greater or less number of recruits.

In the mean time, others are shown the motions of quick firing with field-pieces.

Mortar-practice, is generally executed in the following manner: a line of 1500 or 2000 yards is measured in an open spot of ground, from the place where the mortars stand, and a flag fixed at about 300 or 500 yards; this being done, the ground where the mortars are to be placed is prepared and levelled with sand, so that they may lie at an elevation of 45 degrees; then they are loaded with a small quantity of powder at first, which is increased afterwards, by an ounce every time, till they are loaded with a full charge: the times of the flights of the shells are observed, to determine the length of the fuzes.

The intention of this practice is, when a mortar-battery is raised in a siege, to know what quantity of powder is required to throw the shells into the works at a given distance, and to cut the fuzes of a just length, that the shell may burst as soon as it touches the ground.

PRACTICE-Book. See Book.

To PRACTISE, in a military sense, to go through the manual and platoon exercises, or through the various manoeuvres, &c. for the purpose of becoming thoroughly master of military movements. Hence, to practise the nineteen manoeuvres. Practise is likewise used, in imitation of the French, to signify the act of effecting or executing any military operation, viz. to practise a mine beneath the covert way, &c.

PRAEFECTURA, Lat. During the time of the Romans, there were certain conquered cities in Italy, which were exclusively governed by Roman magistrates whose laws and regulations they were obliged to obey. These magistrates were called praefectus. In imitation of the Romans, the modern French have established what they name préfectures and préfets. It also signifies, according to Adam Littleton, a lieutenantcy, or captainship, or place of rule; a government, a district, a province, or place of jurisdiction.

PRAEFECTUS, Lat. See Prefect.

Praefectus Castrorum, Lat. an officer among the Romans, whose rank and situation correspond with those of a Maréchal de Camp in the French service, and a quarter-master general in the British.

Praefectus Classis, Lat. the commander-in-chief of a naval armament among the Romans. His command lasted one year.

Praefectus Pretorii, Lat. the prefect, or chief officer in command, in the Roman pretorian bands, who had charge of the emperor's person; and who, from a very circumscribed situation, gradually
ally rose into the most important sta-
tion.
PRETOR, Lat. After the expulsion of
the kings, the consul was, at first, so
called among the Romans. He pos-
essed kingly power both for civil and
military affairs. Adam Littleton.
PRETORIANA CASTRA, Lat. the
main guard.
PRETORIANI MILITARES, Lat.
the general's body guard. They origi-
nally consisted of a cohort, and were
first established as a guard by Scipio
Africanus.
PRETORIAN BANDS, a select
body of troops among the Romans,
which gradually obtained so much ascen-
dancy, that they elected emperors at
will, and dethroned them at pleasure.
They became enervated at last, and
the power they had possessed was
absorbed by the legions, or regular sol-
diers, who, as Junius somewhere says,
came from the distant provinces, and
gave away the empire. These bands,
indeed, were originally chosen on ac-
count of their merit, (as all life and
body-guards ought to be,) and when first
instituted, always accompanied the com-
mander in chief, or the general into ac-
tion.
The consular guard and the legion of
honour, established by the Emperor
Napoleon, are, in some degree, imita-
tions of these bands; and the janissa-
rries of Constantinople have sometimes
followed their example, in disposing of
the Grand Signor's title.
PRETORIUM, Lat. (Prétoire,) the
Roman general's tent or pavilion. It
also signified what we call head-quar-
ters.
PRAME, Fr. This word is some-
times written Praum: it is a sort of
flat-bottomed boat or barge which is
used on the canals in France, &c.
PRAME, in military history, a kind of
floating battery, being a flat-bottomed
vessel, which draws little water, mounts
several guns, and is very useful in cov-
ering the disembarkation of troops.—
They are generally made use of in trans-
porting the troops over the lakes in
America. These vessels are well cal-
culated for the defence of large havens
and seaports. Belair, in his Éléments de
Fortification, page 397, strongly recom-
mends the use of prames in cases of inunda-
tion, &c. See the improvements
proposed by him in page 316, where he
speaks of "Bateaux insondables."
DiPRATICA, Ital. free intercourse;
admitted to pratique. Persons who,
having performed quarantine, are per-
mitted to land in Italy, and mix with
the inhabitants.
PRATICABLE, Fr. See Prati-
cable. This word is in general use
among the French, viz.
Les chemins ne sont pas praticables,
Fr. the roads are not passable.
Le gué n'est pas praticable dans
cet moment-ci. The river is not ford-
able at this moment; verbatim, the ford
is not practicable at this moment.
PRATIQUE, Fr. practice. The
term likewise signifies, among the
French, commerce, intercourse, traffic,
&c.
Avoir Pratique avec des insulaires,
Fr. to trade, or have intercourse with
the inhabitants of islands.
Une Pratique éclairie, Fr. a project
undertaken and put into execution upon
solid principles.
Une Pratique aveugle, Fr. a plan
ill-digested, and executed without dis-
cernment or ability.
Pratiques, Fr. in the plural, this
term signifies the same as mal-pratiques,
or secret intelligence with an enemy,
viz.
Entretien des Pratiques avec le
commandant d'une place, Fr. to hold
communication, or keep up a secret cor-
respondence with the commandant of a
fortified place.
Pratiquer des intelligences, Fr. to
collect; to gather useful information.
Il a voit Pratique dans cette place
des intelligences qui lui ont donné le
moyen de la surprendre, Fr. he had gath-
ered such information, by holding se-
cret intelligence with the inhabitants,
as to be able to surprise the place.
Pratiquer, Fr. in architecture, to
contrive, to make, to render conve-
nient.
Donner Pratique à un vaisseau, Fr.
to allow a vessel to enter into port and
unload. This expression is used in the
Mediterranean under circumstances of
quarantine, and comes from Pratio.
Pratiquer, Fr. to practise. Prat-
tiquer une homme, to try a man; to put
his abilities to the test. It likewise sig-
nifies to gain over, to suborn.
PRECEDENCE, priority. Priority in rank or precedence in military life, arises from the date of an officer's commission, or the corps in which he serves.

PRECEDED, any act which can be interpreted into an example for future times, is called a precedent. Persons in high official situations are extremly scrupulous with respect to precedent especially in military matters.

PRECIPIT, Fr. to precipitate; to urge or hasten on; to do any thing prematurely. This word appears to be used by the French in almost all the senses to which we attach it, especially in military matters.

PRECIPIT sa retraite, Fr. literally signifies, to precipitate one's retreat. It may be taken in a good or bad sense, to signify the act of flying away blindly or rashly, without judgment or discretion; or of urging your retreat under circumstances of imperious necessity, yet with proper caution and foresight. So that to precipitate, both in French and English, signifies, faire très promptement, ou trop promptement; to do any thing very promptly, or too promptly.

PRECISION, exact limitation, scrupulous observance of certain given rules.

PRECISION of march. On the leading platoon officer of the column much of the precision of march depends; he must lead at an equal, steady pace; he must lead on two objects either given to him, or which he himself takes up on every alteration of position; this demands his utmost attention; nor must he allow it to be diverted by looking at his platoon, the care of whose regularity depends on the other officers and non-commissioned officers belonging to it. The second platoon officer must also be shewn, and be made acquainted with the points on which the first leads; he is always to keep the first officer and those points in a line, and those two officers, together with the placed mounted officers, thus become a direction for the other pivot officers to cover. In marching in open column, the covering serjeants are placed behind the second file from the pivot officers, that the officers may the more correctly see and cover each other in column.

PREDAL, or a War, a war carried PREDATORY, by plunder and rapine; such as the French republic has been carrying on since the year 1793, against the Continental powers, levying enormous contributions on all the conquered towns or states.

PREDESTINARIAN, a person who believes in predestination. Every Turk may be considered a predestinarian. A Turkish soldier is taught to believe that if he falls in battle he will instantly go to heaven. This is a comfortable idea even for Christian soldiers. How far it ought to be encouraged, doctors and able casuists must determine.

PREFECT, (prifet, Fr.) a governor or commander of any place or body of men. Among the Romans, this was a title of great importance, both in civil and military situations. During the existence of the republic the Praefectus Legionis had a considerable command. The two Aes, or great divisions of the allies, had each a Prefect appointed them by the Roman Consul, who governed in the same manner as the Legionary Tribunes. For a specific account see pages 193, 194, 195, of Kennett's Roman Antiquities. There was likewise, during the time of the Roman Emperors, an officer called the Prefect of the Pretorian Band, or body guards. The French have adopted the word in their new constitution. The functions of a modern French prefect correspond almost wholly with those of a governor under the old regime or system.

PREFERMENT, the state of being advanced to a higher post.

PRÉFÉTS du Palais de la cour des premiers Rois François, Fr. these persons were formerly called comtes du palais et préfets du prétoire. They had once the sole direction of the government; managing all state affairs, as well with respect to the exterior as to the interior relations of peace or war. A Préfet du Palais was also called Major-dome; under which title Charles Martel is mentioned by several old writers. It was afterwards changed into Sénéchal; in which capacity we find Thibaud, Count of Blois, who is sometimes stiled Mejo dormant, and at others Sénéchal.

PRÉFETS de Soldats, Fr. See Prefect.

PREJUDICE, (préjugé, Fr.) possession, judgment formed beforehand without examination. A celebrated French writer calls it an opinion taken up
up without judgment, *Le préjugé est une opinion sans jugement.* Voltaire. It is used in two instances, viz. for and against a person.

**PRELIMINARY,** (*préliminaire,* Fr.) previous, introductory, &c. Preliminary, as a substantive, signifies an introductory measure, a previous arrangement. Hence the "preliminaries of peace."

**PRENABLE,** Fr. that may be taken. There is no place but what may be taken by famine.

**PRENDE,** Fr. a French military term. It is variously used, and accords generally with our word to take, viz.

**Prendre une ville d'assaut; par famine,** &c. Fr. to take a town by assault; by famine, &c.

**Prendre à droite, ou à gauche,** Fr. to go to the right or left.

**Prendre à travers,** Fr. to run across.

**Prendre des devant,** Fr. to anticipate, to get the start of any body.

**Prendre le pas,** Fr. to take precedence.

**Prendre la droite,** Fr. to take the right.

**Prendre terre,** Fr. to land.

**Prendre le large,** Fr. a term used figuratively, to signify the act of running away.

**Prendre la clé des champs,** Fr. literally, to take the key of the country, or to run over it.

**Prendre son élan,** Fr. to dart forth, to spring forward.

**Prendre un rat,** Fr. a figurative expression used among the French, when a musket or pistol misses fire, viz. *Il voulut tirer, mais son pistolet pris qu’un rat,* literally, he would have fired, but his pistol only caught a rat.

**Prendre du temps,** Fr. to take time in executing a thing.

**Prendre son temps,** Fr. to do a thing with perfect convenience to one’s self.

**Prendre la parole,** Fr. to speak first.

**Prendre sa revanche,** Fr. to make up for any past loss or disadvantage.—We familiarly say, to take one’s revenge.

**Prendre à partie,** Fr. an expression peculiar to the French, in judicial matters, which signifies to attack a judge, for having prevaricated and taken the part of one side against another, without any regard to justice. It likewise means to impute misconduct or criminality, and to make a person responsible for it.

**Se prendre de vin,** Fr. to get drunk. Excess of drinking was so little known before the revolution, among French officers and soldiers, that the greatest disgrace was affixed to the habit. It is recorded, that when Marshal Richelieu had determined to storm a place in the Mediterranean, he gave out the following order—"Any soldier who shall appear the least intoxicated, shall be excluded from the honour and glory of mounting the assault to-morrow morning." Every man was at his post, and not a single instance of intoxication occurred. Such was the *esprit de corps* and the *amour propre* which prevailed in all ranks, that the dread of corporal punishment had less effect than the being deprived of an opportunity to shew courage and resolution.

**Prendre langue,** Fr. a figurative expression among the French, which signifies to get intelligence by secret means. Thus, a spy that is sent into an enemy’s camp, may be said to go in order to hear what passes, and to pick up information.

**Faisseur PRENEUR,** Fr. a term peculiarly applicable to a ship that has taken a prize.

**PREPARATIFS de guerre,** Fr. war-like preparations. A French writer, under this article, very judiciously observes, that the necessary arrangements which must be made before an army takes the field, and sometimes before an open declaration of war takes place, ought to be managed with extreme caution and great secrecy; although it is impossible to prevent the neighbouring powers from being totally ignorant of what is going forward. It is recorded that Henry the IVth of France, having conceived a vast military project, kept it a profound secret for several years, and made the necessary preparations with extreme caution, before he put it into execution.

When Louis the XIVth resolved to invade Italy, in 1663, he dispatched commissaries, surveyors, &c. the preceding year, under various pretences.
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to buy up corn, to secure forage for his cavalry, and to provide every thing that might be wanted in the train of artillery; and in 1667, when he formed the plan of entering Belgium in person, he arranged all matters relative to the interior government of France during his absence, examined into the state of the finances, filled his treasury with money, augmented, by insensible degrees, the different regiments of his army, and by means of these and other sage precautions, secured the conquest of his object. In fact, well digested plans and cautious arrangements previous to the execution of a military project, however apparently tedious, are the sure prerequisites of a prompt and decisive success. Deissow was a maxim among the ancients, and is still one among the moderns, 'la guerre est de grosses et courtes'; to make war upon a scale as previously vast and heavy, that resistance may be ultimately short and effectual.

He is a wise man, and of course a wise king, who keeps the following maxim constantly in his mind: — si vis pacem, para bellum. If you wish to secure peace, be always ready to go to war. The Turks are, perhaps, the only people who adhere to this Roman adage. Their troops are always ready for action; or, as a French writer says, — Le biscuit est prêt, de sorte qu'ils n'ont qu'à s'arrêter en route, the biscuit is at hand, so that they have nothing to do but to move, or begin their route.

PREPARATIVELY, having the power of preparing, qualifying, or fitting. This word is used, in a military sense, to give notice of any thing about to be done. Hence

PREPARATIVE, a beat of the drum, by which officers are warned to step out of the ranks when the firings are to commence.

When the Preparative is beat, for the firings, the officers in the front rank step out nimbly two paces from the vacancies between the divisions, platoons, companies, or sub-divisions, face to the left without word of command, and look right of companies, &c. When the Preparative has ceased, they severally commence the firing. When the general is beat, they fall back into the front rank.

To PREPARE, to take previous measures.

PREPARE, for action, a word of command used in the British artillery.

PREPARATORY, antecedently necessary; giving that knowledge in any art or science which is necessary to qualify individuals for a superior class or branch. Hence preparatory schools.

PREPARATORY academies. The junior department of the Royal Military College, is preparatory to the senior. The first elements of military science are taught in the former, and officers get qualified in the higher branches of the profession when they enter the latter.

PRESENCE of mind, ready conception of expedients, producing promptitude of action under difficult and alarming circumstances. Archduke Charles, in 1796, when the Austrians were precipitately retreating, dismounted and placing himself at the head of the grenadiers, exclaimed, "There is the enemy," pointing to the French, "you have mistaken the road—there shall be no retreat where I am."—And be beat the French.

PRESENCE of mind. There is a very remarkable instance of that species of presence of mind which gives a sudden turn to public opinion, and, as it were, electrifies the human mind. When a dangerous mutiny broke out among the Roman legions, on a proposed expedition against the Germans, Cesar suddenly exclaimed, "Let the whole army return ignominiously home, if it think proper, the tenth legion and myself will remain and combat for the republic." Having, as Plutarch observes, excited his troops to fresh ardour, he led them against the Germans; and being informed that the enemy had been warned by their soothsayers not to engage before the next moon, he took an immediate occasion to force them to battle, in which he, as usual, obtained a victory. On a subsequent occasion this great man discovered a promptitude of conception and a presence of mind which have since been imitated by a modern general, but have never been surpassed in ancient or modern history.

Having led his army against the Ner
dvii, the most uncivilized, and the most fierce of all the nations bordering upon
the Roman territory, he met a resistance, which, as it was not expected, somewhat shook the firmness of his troops. The Zervii, by a sudden onset, at first routed his cavalry; but perceiving the danger to which his army was exposed, Caesar himself snatched up a buckler, and forcing his way through his own men, he, with the assistance of his tenth legion, changed the fortune of the day, and cut the enemy almost entirely off. For, as Plutarch states, out of 60,000 soldiers, not above 500 survived the battle.

En Presence, Fr. in sight.

All PRESENT, a term used when an officer takes his serjeant's report, and makes the necessary enquiry respecting the state of his troop or company.

To Present, (Présenter, Fr.) This word is used in various senses. Those which are more immediately applicable to military usage are as follow:

To Present, to offer openly; to exhibit; to give in ceremony; as to present the colours.

To Present arms, to bring the firelock to a certain prescribed position, for the purpose of paying a military compliment, See Manual.

To Present, to level; to aim; to bring the firelock to a prescribed position, for the purpose of discharging its contents.—See Platoon Exercise, under Manual. The French use the term Present in almost all the senses that we do. There is an exception in the phrase Present Fire, instead of which they say, Joue, Feu. The word joue, which signifies cheek, being expressive of the particular position of the musquet when the soldier takes aim. It corresponds with Present in this particular case.

PRÉSENTER les armes, Fr. to present arms, to bring the firelock to any position that may be prescribed in military exercise. In the firings it signifies make ready, viz. Présentez les armes, make ready; Joue, present; Feu, fire. In the manual and other exercises of the piece, it corresponds with our term.

PRÉSENTER la baionette, Fr. to charge bayonet.

PRÉSENTER la baionnette à la cavalerie, Fr. to receive the cavalry with charged bayonets; literally, to present bayonet against the cavalry.

PRESIDENCY, the seats of government are so distinguished in India—There are four presidencies, viz. Bombay, Calcutta, Fort St. David, and Madras.

PRESIDENT of a general or regimental court martial. The officer, oldest in rank, who sits, in conjunction with other officers, for the trial of military offences is so called. The court consisting of an odd number of members, when their opinions are equal, the president has the casting vote.

The commander in chief for the time being, is, by virtue of his appointment, perpetual president of the supreme board of the royal military college in Great Britain. And the resident governor, or, in his absence, the lieutenant-governor of that establishment, is perpetual president of the collegiate board.

PRESQUILE, Fr. See Peninsull.

PRESS-money, money given to the soldier when taken or pressed into the service: but as the entrance into the British service is a voluntary act, it is now more properly called bounty or enlistment money.

PRESTATION de serment, Fr. the taking an oath.

PRESUMPTION and VANITY, (Présumption et Vanité, Fr.) Under the latter word Bailey very justly includes emptiness, unprofitableness, vanity, glory, and pride; and of all follies, burdening upon vice and crime, it is, perhaps, the most dangerous in a military character. We lament that the limits of this publication will not allow us room to illustrate the truth of this observation, by transcribing out of Plutarch, in the life of Fabius Maximus, more than what is given respecting the conduct of Minucius, who was his colleague, and who fought conjointly with him against Hannibal. We shall, however, quote enough to exhibit a serious lesson to aspiring, self imagined heroes.

After Fabius had been named dictator, in consequence of the danger to which Rome was exposed by the victories of Hannibal; Minucius, who stood under him, increased that danger, during his absence, by presumptuously fighting contrary to his orders. Although Fabius expressed much dissatisfaction, yet Metilius, who was a tribune and a secret friend to Minucius, had address sufficient to persuade the people
ple to make Minucius the Dictator’s
colleague.

Fabius (to use Plutarch’s words), be-
ing under apprehensions that the rash-
ness of Minucius might hurry him and
the army into some dangerous enter-
prise, returned back with all possible
secrecy and speed, and found Minucius
so elated with his new dignity, that,
not satisfied with a joint authority, he
required that they should have the com-
mand of the army every other day by
turns. Fabius rejected this proposal;
and thinking it less dangerous to divide
the army, and that each general should
command his part, took the first and
fourth legion, and delivered the second
and third to Minucius; each also had
an equal share in the auxiliary forces.

Minucius, on being thus exalted, could
not forbear boasting, that, from a
regard to him, the people had hul-
bled the dictatorial power: to which
Fabius replied, “Consider Minucius, it
is Hannibal, and not Fabius you are to
combat; but if you must needs con-
tend with your colleague, let it be by
shewing, that he who is honoured and
favoured by the people, is not less con-
cerned for their welfare than he whom
they have treated ill and disgraced.”
But Minucius considering this as the
raillery of an old man, immediately
drew off his part of the army, and en-
camped by himself.

Hannibal, who was attentive to every-
thing, was not ignorant of what had
passed. Between his army and that of
the Romans was an eminence that
seemed an advantageous post, and
round it was a large plain, that appeared,
at a distance, perfectly smooth and
even, though it had, in reality, many
hollows and ditches. Had Hannibal
thought proper, he might easily have
taken possession of the above emi-
rence, but he reserved it as a bait for
the Romans. Observing that Fabius
and Minucius were divided, he, in the
night, lodged a number of men in the
ditches and hollow places; and, early
in the morning, sent a small detach-
ment to seize the post, in order to
tempt Minucius to dispute the posse-
sion of it. This design succeeded:
Minucius sent out a body of light-arm-
ed troops, then some horse, and at last
perceiving Hannibal himself advancing
to the assistance of his forces, marched
with the remainder of his army, and,
with great resolution, attacked those
posted on the rising ground. The en-
gagement continued equal for some
time; but Hannibal no sooner perceiv-
ed the whole army advanced within the
toils he had laid for them, than he gave
the signal, and his men instantly rush-
ed out of the ditches and low places;
and, attacking Minucius’s rear, made
great slaughter. The Roman army was
instantly thrown into the utmost terror
and confusion. Minucius, filled with
amazement, looked round on his offi-
cers, and saw that none of them could
maintain their ground, as the soldiers
every where began to fly; but even in
this there was no safety, for the vic-
torious Numidians, who had spread
themselves every way, cut to pieces all
whom they found scattered about the
plain.

In the meanwhile Fabius, foreseeing
what would happen, had caused his
troops to take to their arms; and, from
an eminence near his camp, viewed all
that passed; when, observing Minu-
cius’s army encompassed by the enemy,
and hearing their distant cries, he, with
a deep groan, striking his hand on his
thigh, exclaimed, “O Heavens! how
much sooner than I expected has Mi-
cius ruined himself!” then command-
ing the ensigns to march, and the army
to follow him, he called aloud, “Now
let all who remember Minucius hasten
to his assistance: he is a brave man,
and a lover of his country. If he has
been too forward to engage the enemy;
we will tell him of it hereafter.” Fa-
bius then marched at the head of his
men, cleared the plain of the Nu-
midians, and falling on those who were
charging the Romans in the rear, cut
to pieces all who opposed him; while
the rest, fearing that they should be
surrounded, as the Romans had been,
saved themselves by flight: on which
Hannibal, seeing such a sudden change,
sounded a retreat, and drew off his
men; while the Romans under Minu-
cius were equally glad to retire in sa-
tety. It is said, that on this occasion
Hannibal said to his friends,—“Did
not I tell you that the cloud which ho-
overed on the tops of the mountains
would, one time or other, come down
upon us with a storm?”

Fabius having suffered his men to

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strip the dead bodies of his enemies, retired to his camp without saying a harsh thing of his colleague; who, having on his side assembled his troops, thus addressed them.

"Never to err, my fellow soldiers, in conducting great affairs, is above the power of human nature; but to improve by our faults is becoming a good and a prudent man. I have some reasons to accuse Fortune, but I have many to thank her; for in a few hours she has taught me what I had never before learnt, that I am unfit to command others, and have need of another to command me; and that we ought not to contend for a victory over those to whom it is our advantage to yield. For the future, therefore, the Dictator must be your commander: I will still, however, be your leader, in shewing you an example of gratitude, and in being the first to obey his orders." He then commanded all his men to follow him to the camp of Fabius, and on his entering it, marched towards the Dictator's tent. Fabius came out to meet him; when Minucius, fixing his standards before him, saluted him with a loud voice by the name of Father, and his soldiers saluted those of Fabius with the title of Patrons, a name by which those who are made free call those to whom they owe their liberty. When silence being made, Minucius said,—

"You have this day, Fabius, obtained a double victory; one by your valour over your enemies, and another over your colleague by your humanity and prudence: by the one you have preserved us, and by the other we are instructed. Hannibal's victory over us is not more disgraceful than your's is honourable and salutary. I call you father, because I know no title more honourable; but I am more obliged to you than to my father, for to him I am only obliged for my own life, but to you I owe my own life, and the lives of all here present." We should not have made our extract so copious, had we not been induced to do so, by the noble manner in which Minucius made atonement for his vanity. We press the bad effects of his error, in the first instance, upon the attention of every young officer, because we know that there are manifold occasions to commit the one, and seldom or ever an oppor-

tunity occurs to put in practice the other.

PRET, Fr. the subsistence or daily pay which is given to soldiers. The French say,

Payer le PRET, to pay subsistence.
Recevoir le PRET, to receive subsistence.

Toucher le PRET, to touch subsistence or daily pay.

PRET also signifies a loan of money.
PRETENDER, (prétendant, Fr.) one who pretends to any thing, whether it be his own or the property of another. Hence the Pretender, who thought the Crown of England his own, on the ground of hereditary right; but whose lineal claim was set aside by the Parliament of Great Britain, in favour of a collateral Protestant branch.

PRÉTER, Fr. in military tactics, to expose, as

Préter son flanc à l'ennemi, to expose one's flank to the enemy; to march in so unguarded a manner, or to take up one's ground so disadvantageously as to stand in continual danger of being out-flanked.

The French likewise say, figuratively, prêter le flanc, to put one's self in the power of another.

PRÉTER le collet à quelqu'un, Fr. to fight body to body; or at close quarters.

PRÉTOR, (prêteur, Fr.) among the Romans, the governor of a province, who had served the office of Pretor, or chief minister of justice in ancient Rome. The provinces so governed were called Pretorian.

PRETORIAN, (prêtorien, n., Fr.) appertaining to Pretor; as Pretorian Band, the general's guard among the ancient Romans.

PRETORIUM, (prêttoire, Fr.) the hall or court wherein the Pretor lived and administered justice. It also denoted the tent of a Roman general, in which councils of war were held. The place where the Pretorian guards were quartered or lodged, was likewise called Pretorium.

PREVARICATION, according to the laws of England is, where a lawyer pleads booty, or acts by collusion, &c. It also denotes a secret abuse committed in the exercise of a public office, or of a commission given by a private person. The word is unknown in milita-
ry phraseology, and is only explained in this place to stand as a landmark to the open ingenious character of a soldier.

PRÉVENIR l'ennemi, Fr. to get the start of an enemy, or to anticipate his movement. This occurs when the general of an opposing army has reason to suspect, that his adversary intends to march against him, and the former, on the contrary, marches first against him; or when an enemy endeavours to get possession of an open post, and his adversary gets the start, by previously taking possession of it.

PRÉVOST, Fr. provost.

PRÉVOST d'une armée, Fr. provost-marshal belonging to an army.

PRÉVOT de l'artillerie, Fr. an officer under the old government of France, who only exercised the duties of his situation during actual service, and who always came in rear of the baggage.—There were some cases in which the power of life or death was absolutely vested in him; and in others, he was obliged to refer the sentence to the high bailiff belonging to the royal arsenal in Paris, as a last resort.

PRÉVOT Général de la connétable, gendarmerie et Maréchaussée de France, camps et armées du roi, Fr. provost-general belonging to the jurisdiction of the high constable of France, &c. This place or commission is of very ancient date, having first taken place during the second race of French kings, and being as old as that of connétable or constable of France; with this only exception, that the appellation of maréchaussée was added after the suppression of the connétable in 1667. The company, which immediately was attached to the provost-general and which the colonel's, or la colonelle, took precedence over all others of the same description. This superior officer was, in his own right, provost-general throughout the king's camps and armies in war time. An independent company always attended the provost, in order to execute his orders, as well as those of the most ancient Marshal of France, who represented the constable since the suppression of that title. There was also a guard at the marshal's headquarters, which was constantly mounted by a given number of cavalry, and which was subject to the orders of the provost-general. The provost-general was always present whenever a council was assembled by the Marshal of France, to settle disputes and differences which might arise between persons of distinction, noblemen or private gentlemen; and to determine generally upon points of honour. The sentence or opinion of this tribunal was final and decisive.

PRÉVOT Général des Monnoies, Fr. provost-general, or what we call master of the mint. Under the old monarchy of France, this person was vested with the same powers that were annexed to the title of Prévôt des Maréchaussées, and had a seat at the council of the Marshals of France.

PRÉVOT Général de l'île de France, provost-general of the Isle of France, (so called from an insular spot formed by the Seine in the centre of Paris)—This officer had under his command a body of horse, divided into eight brigades, which were distributed round the neighbourhood of Paris, to secure the country round from the depredations of the capital. He had, like the other prévots, a separate tribunal of his own. It were devoutly to be wished that, among our manifold imitations of the Germans, we could condescend so far to imitate the French, as either to employ some of our useless cavalry in and about the skirts of London, or to form some specific body of men, whose duty should be to patrol within the bills of mortality at least. In time of peace this plan might easily be adopted; and we could point out a corps, which might be rendered very serviceable. But we think such an establishment ought to be carried on a large and liberal scale. The community would be benefited by it; and if public money is to be expended, in time of peace or in time of war, how can it be more rationally employed than for the safety of those who contribute towards the public purse?

PRÉVOTS Généraux des Maréchaussées, Fr. provosts-general of the different marshalsies of France. Under the old government, provosts of this description were distributed through the different jurisdictions of the kingdom. It was necessary that each should have been previously employed under the provost-general, and had the command of a troop of cavalry, with subordinate officers to conduct it in their absence. These officers
lieutenant, (who commanded in their absence,) a certain proportion of ex-empted, brigadiers, and sub-brigadiers, and there was besides a tribunal, called the provost's tribunal, to which delinquents, &c. were amenable. These troops were drafted out of the gen-
darmes, and were under the control of the Marshals of France.

PRICES of Commissions. See Regulation.

PRICKER, a brass-wire, used for clearing the touch-hole of a musket, &c. a light horseman was formerly so called.

To PRICK out, an expression used among engineers, &c. signifying to mark out the ground where a camp, &c. is to be formed.

To PRICK out the line of circumvalla-
tion. This is done by the chief engineer and quarter-master-general whenever an army entrenches itself before a town, or takes possession of any given lot of ground, and begins to hut.

PRICKING, among mariners, to make a point on the plan or chart, near about where the ship then is, or is to be at such a time, in order to find the course they are to steer.

PRIEST'S CAP, (bonnet de prêtre, Fr. See Fortification, and Bonnet.

PRIME, a word of command used in the platoon exercise. See Manual.

Prime and load, a word of command used in the exercise of a battalion, company or squad. See Manual.

Prime parade, in fencing, is formed by dropping the point of your sword to the right, bending your elbow, and drawing the back of your sword hand to within a foot of your forehead, in a line with your left temple, so that your blade shall carry the thrust of your an-
tagonist clear of the inside or left of your position.

Prime thrust, a thrust applicable after forming the above parade, and deliv-
ered at the inside of the antagonist. — To obtain an opening for this thrust, it is necessary to step out of the line to the right as you parry, or else to op-
pose the sword of your antagonist with your left hand. The first method is most eligible.

Prime Hanging Guard, with the broadsword, a position in which the hand is brought somewhat to the left, in order to secure that side of the face and body. See Broadsword.

PRIMING, in gunnery, the train of
powder that is laid, from the opening of the vent, along the gutter or channel, on the upper part of the breech of the gun, which, when fired, conveys the flame to the vent, by which it is further communicated to the charge in order to discharge the piece. This operation is only used on ship-board, at the proof, and sometimes in garrison; for on all other occasions, tubes are used for that purpose.

PRIMING, or prime of a gun, is the gunpowder put in the pan or touch-
hole of a piece, to give it fire thereby.

PRIMING-case, a small tin case, about the size and shape of a cartridge, for the purpose of keeping a certain quantity of gunpowder, for priming, constantly ready and dry. It is to be hoped, that this rational and economical invention, which has been seen by the commander in chief, will be universally adopted.

PRIMING position. See Platoon Ex-
ercise under Manual.

PRIMING-wire, in gunnery, a sort of iron needle, employed to penetrate the vent or touch-hole of a piece of ord-
nance, when it is loaded, in order to dis-
cover whether the powder contained therein is thoroughly dry, and fit for immediate service; as likewise to search the vent and penetrate the cartridge, when the guns are not loaded with loose powder.

PRIMIPILARIIS, PRIMOPILARIS,
or PRIMIPILARES, among the Ro-
mans were such as had formerly borne the office of Primipulus of a legion. — The banner was entrusted to his care. Among other privileges which the Pri-
 mipilarii enjoyed, they became heirs to what little property was left by the soldiers who died in the campaign.

PRIMIPILAIRE, Fr. See PRIMI-
PILARI.

PRIMIPULUS, the centurion belong-
ing to the first cohort of a legion. He had charge of the Roman eagle.

PRIMITIVES, Fr. Primitive colours are distinguished by this term among the French. They are, the yellow, the red, and the blue; white and black being the extremes.

PRINCIPES, (princes, Fr.) Roman soldiers. They consisted of the strongest
est and most active men in the infantry, and were armed like the Hastati, with this difference, that the former had half-pikes instead of whole ones.

PRINCIPAL, in the militia, a person who has been regularly ballotted for, and is chosen to serve for a limited period. The act directs, that every such person shall be enrolled (in a roll to be prepared at a subdivision assembled for that purpose) to serve as a private militia-man for a limited period. But every person so chosen by ballot may produce for his substitute a man of the same county or riding, or of some adjoining county or riding, able and fit for service, who shall not have more than one child born in wedlock, and who shall be approved by any two or more deputy lieutenants. The necessities of the times have rendered it expedient to deviate from the strict letter of the law with respect to substitutes. Any able-bodied man, Welch, English, Scotch, or Irish, Protestant, or Roman Catholic, may serve for a principal who has been regularly chosen and ballotted for.

That part of the oath, which confined the services of the individual to an exclusive acknowledgment of the established religion of Great Britain, is now wholly omitted. The oath runs:—I A. B. do sincerely promise and swear, that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to his Majesty King George, and I do swear I am a Protestant, &c. By means of this omission, (which is done by courtesy, and ought to be sanctioned by law) persons of all persuasions may join their country's standard. Principals in the militia, who have served five years, may claim their discharge; but substitutes are obliged to continue as long as the militia remains embodied, receiving one guinea at the expiration of the term for which they originally existed, viz., five years.

PRINCIPLE, according to the schools, that from which any thing is done or known.

PRINCIPLE also denotes the foundations of arts and sciences.

Military Principles, the basis or groundwork upon which every military movement is made, and by which every operation is conducted.

PRIS, Fr. This word is variously used by the French, in a figurative and proverbial sense. C'est autant de pris sur l'ennemi. An expression, signifying that some advantage, at least, has been gained.

Une Ville PRISÉ, Fr. a town which has been taken.

PRISÉ des dehors d'une place, Fr. The taking possession of an enemy's out-works.

PRISAGE, that share which belongs to the king or admiral out of such merchandises, &c. as are lawfully taken at sea.

PRISÉ de possession d'une place conquise par les armes, Fr. the taking possession of a place which has been conquered by force of arms. When a town surrenders under these circumstances, the walls of the place, and a bell belonging to each parish, become the property of the conqueror. The bells are intended to replace the damage which may have been done to the ordnance in carrying on the siege; but the inhabitants are always at liberty to redeem them, by paying down a stipulated sum of money.

PRISÉ de corps, Fr. arrest.

PRISÉ sur soi, Fr. The French say, donner prise sur soi, to let another take the advantage of one. Ignorant, presumptuous, and unexperienced officers, are much exposed to this fatal error.

PRISÉ, Fr. The French say, lacher prise, which literally means to lose one's hold. This expression is used, when a general of an army who, from his forces being either not sufficiently strong, or from having himself omitted to take the best advantage of ground, &c. is obliged to give way. Whenever this happens, it may be said, with much truth, that such a general ought not to be entrusted with the command of an army. The circumstances must be very peculiar indeed, which could exculpate him in the eyes of military men.

PRISÉS, Fr. See PRIZES.

PRISÉS sur l'ennemi, Fr. every thing taken from the enemy is so called.

PRISONERS OF WAR, those of the enemy who are taken in or after a battle, siege, &c. they are deprived of their liberty at large, until exchanged, or sent on parole.

PRISONNIERS de guerre, Fr. prisoners of war.

Pain des Prisonniers, Fr. the bread which each state furnishes for the support of prisoners of war.
PRIVATE, a term used in the British service to express a common soldier. Thus, though a corporal constitutes one of the rank and file, he is not a private; but every man under him is so called.

PRIVATE is likewise a word frequently placed at the corner of a letter to distinguish it from a mere official document; or rather to confine the communication to the perusal of one person only.

PRIVATE, (prièr, Fr.) not open; secret.

PRIVATE CONVERSATION, confidential communication with one or more persons; anything said which is not to be made public. It also signifies, according to Johnson, familiar discourse, chat, easy talk; opposed to a formal conference. Hence, to repeat private conversation has, at all times, and by all civilized persons, been reckoned a gross breach and violation, not only of good manners, but of every principle of rectitude and honour.

PRIVILEGE, is any kind of right or advantage which is attached to a person or employment, exclusive of others.

PRIVILEGES. Among the different privileges which prevail in the British army, we ought to notice, that the Life Guards receive their promotions direct from the king, without passing through the commander in chief, as all other corps do. The appointment of colonel in the life guards gives the honorary title of Gold Stick, and the field officer of the day is the Silver Stick, through whom all reports, &c. are conveyed to the king. Although there is a lieutenant-general of the London district, the foot guards have the privilege of reporting to head-quarters direct.

The foot-guards enjoy the privilege of ranking, from the ensign, one step higher than the line. A lieutenant, for instance, ranks as captain, and can purchase as such into any marching regiment without having waited the regulated period; and a captain, having the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel, may leap over all the majors of the line, by getting appointed to a marching regiment. The promotions of the guards, among themselves, are, however, extremely slow; and the only indemnification they have must be at the expense of the line.

PRIVILÉGES des régiments, Fr. certain privileges attached to regiments.

PRIVY Council, (conseil privé, Fr.) a council of state held by the king in person, with his counsellors, to concert matters for the public service.

PRIVY SEAL, a seal which the king uses previously to such grants, &c., as are afterwards to pass the great seal; as also in matters of less consequence, as payments of money, &c., which do not pass the great seal.

Lord Privy Seal, the fifth great officer of the crown. He is a lord by office, and a member of the privy council.

PRIX des emplois, ou charges militaires, Fr. the price of commissions, or military employments. During the monarchy of France, a company in the French guards sold for 80,000 livres, 3250l.

A company in the six first regiments of infantry, went for 75,000 livres.—The six following, exclusive of the régiment du roi, went for 55,000 livres.—One in the regiment of Poitou, and as far down as the Penthièvre, 40,000 livres; in the Penthièvre, and from that to the last regiment inclusive, 30,000 livres.

A company in the Scotch gendarmes cost 180,000 livres; in the English, the Bourguignon, and Flanders, 150,000 livres. The other companies of gendarmerie went for 135,000.

The sub-lieutenants in the gendarmerie paid 100,000 livres, and those in the light horse, 95,000 livres. The ensigns and first cornets, including the guidon belonging to the Scotch gendarmes, gave 62,000 livres.

The guidons and second cornets, 30,000 livres.

There was no specific regulation for the purchase of a regiment of heavy cavalry or dragoons. Appointments in the ént-majors, or staff belonging to the cavalry and the royal regiments, (let rayaux) sold for 100,000 livres; in the dragoons, from 100,000 to 120,000 livres.

The troops or companies in cavalry regiments, in the royal corps, and in the état-major or staff, were fixed at 10,000 livres, and the rest at 8000.

A troop of dragoons sold for 7000 livres. No company or other appointment in the infantry, was allowed to be bought.
bought or sold. It will strike the military reader, that although the purchase of commissions was, in some degree, sanctioned by the old French government, it was nevertheless extremely limited, and confined to the upper ranks. The efficient part of the army, which is certainly the infantry, received its commissions gratis.

PRIZE-FOOTER. See GLADIATOR.

PRIZE-MONEY, officers and soldiers of the line doing duty on board ships of war, are entitled to prize-money as marines.

PRIZE-MONEY, share of; (part de prise, Fr.) the proportion which is paid to the several individuals belonging to the navy or army, who, on the capture or surrender of a place, &c. become entitled to the produce of what is seized upon, according to the laws of war. By a late Act of Parliament, it is rendered illegal for any person to alienate his prize-money, in the same manner, that no half-pay officer can dispose of his allowance.

PROA, Ind. a sailing vessel is so called in India.

PROBABILITY, (probabilité, Fr.) is nothing but the appearance of the agreement or disagreement of two ideas by the intervention of proofs, whose connection is not constant and immutable, or is not perceived to be so; but is, or appears for the most part to be so, and is sufficient to induce the mind to judge the proposition to be true or false, rather than the contrary.

PROBLEM, (problème, Fr.) in the general acceptance of the term, a doubtful proposition, which will admit of several solutions.

PROCEDURE MILITAR, Fr. military process. It consists in the investi- gation of all crimes and offences committed by soldiers which come under the cognizance of a military tribunal; in contradistinction to the authority which is vested in the civil magistrates.

To PROCLAIM, (proclamer, Fr.) to promulgate or denounce by a solemn or legal publication. Hence, to proclaim peace, which is used in contradistinction to the term to declare, which denounces war. Both French and English say, déclarer la guerre, to declare war; proclamer la paix, to proclaim peace.

PROCLAMATION, an instrument which is published by the king, with the advice of his privy council, whereby the country at large is advertised of something, and whereby the people are sometimes required to do, or not to do certain things: A proclamation has all the efficacy of law, because it is supposed to be in concord with the law already in being.

PROCLAMATION of peace, a declaration of the king’s will openly published by the herald at arms in the most public places of London and Westminster.

PROCONSUL, among the Romans, a magistrate who was sent to govern a province with consular authority.

PROCURATION. See Power of Attorney.

PROHIBITION. See TREACHERY.

PRODUCE, (produit, Fr.) effect, PRODUCT, (fruit. In arithmetic, it is the quantity which grows out of the multiplication of two or more numbers or lines, one by another: 5 for instance multiplied by 4, will give the produce 20; and the produce of two lines, multiplied one by the other, is called the rectangle of these lines.

PROFILE, in drawing, side-ways, or side-view. A picture in profile represents a head or face set sideways.

PROFILER, Fr. the act of profiling, or designing with rule and compass.

PROFILE, (profil, Fr.) in architecture, the draft of a building, fortification, &c. wherein are expressed the several heights, widths, and thicknesses, such as they would appear were the building cut down perpendicularly from the roof to the foundation. It serves to show those dimensions which cannot be represented in plans, but are yet necessary in the building of a fortification: they are best constructed on a scale of 30 feet to an inch. It is also called Section, Orthographical Section, and by Vitruvius, Sciatoraphy. It is sometimes used in opposition to Ichnography.

PROFITEER, Fr. to take advantage of.

PROFITEER de la retraite d’un ennemi, Fr. to take advantage of an enemy’s retreat.

PROGRAM, (programme, Fr.) a word
word derived from the Greek, signifying any public edict, notice, or declaration. Any paper which is stuck up for public information. The French make use of the word on occasions of national ceremony.

**PROGRÈS, Fr. progress;** which Bailey thus renders, a proceeding or going forward in any undertaking; also a journey taken by a prince or nobleman. In a military sense, it signifies a series of conquests or advantages gained over an enemy. The French say, ce général a fait de grands progrès dans cette guerre, that general has made much progress, or has gained many advantages in this war. Il a arrêté les progrès des ennemis, he has stopped the progress, or checked the movements of the enemy.

**PROJECTILES, (projectiles, Fr.)** are such bodies as, being put in motion by any great force, are then cast off, or let go from the place where they received their quantity of motion; as a shell or shot from a piece of artillery, a stone thrown from a sling, or an arrow from a bow, &c. This line is commonly taken for a parabola, and the ranges are computed from the properties of that curve. The assumption would be just, in case the ball, in its motion, met with no resistance: but, the resistance of the air to swift motions being very great, the curve described by the shot is neither a parabola, nor near it: and by reason of the resistance, the angle which gives the greatest amplitude is not 45 degrees, as commonly supposed, but something less, probably 43½. Hence the sublile mathematics are absolutely necessary in the investigation of the track of a shell or shot in the air, known by the name of military projectiles.

Galileo having discovered that bodies, projected in vacuo, and in an oblique direction to the horizon, do always describe a parabola, he concluded that this doctrine was not sufficient to determine the real motion of a military projectile; for, since shells and shot move with a great velocity, the resistance of the air becomes so great, with respect to the weight of the projectile, that its effect turns the body very considerably from the parabolic tract; so that all calculations grounded on the nature of this curve, are of little use on these occasions. This is not to be wondered at, since Galileo, in his enquiry, paid no regard to any other force acting on bodies, than the force of gravity only, without considering the resistance of the air.

Every body, moving in a fluid, suffers the action of two forces: the one is the force of gravity, or the weight of the body; and it is to be observed, that this weight is less than the natural weight of the body, that being diminished by an equal bulk of the fluid in which the body moves. The other force is that of the resistance, which is known to be proportional to the squares of the velocity of the body; and when the body is a globe, as is commonly supposed, the direction of this force is diametrically opposite to that of the motion of the body. This force changes continually, both in quantity and direction; but the first force remains constantly the same. Hence, the point in question is, to determine the curve which a body, projected obliquely, must describe when acted upon by the two forces just now mentioned.

Although this question is easily reduced to a problem purely analytical, the great Newton, notwithstanding his ingenious endeavours, did not arrive at a complete solution of it. He was the first who attempted it, and having succeeded so well in the supposition, that the resistance is proportional to the velocity, it is almost inconceivable that he did not succeed, when the resistance is supposed proportional to the squares of the velocity, after solving a number of questions incomparably more difficult. The late Mr. John Bernoulli gave the first solution of this problem, from which he drew a construction of the curve, by means of the quadratures of some transcendental curves, whose description is not very difficult.

This great problem was, therefore, very well solved long ago; yet the solution, however good in theory, is such as has hitherto been of no use in practice, nor in correcting the false theory grounded on the parabola, to which the artillerist is still obliged to adhere, notwithstanding he knows it to be insufficient. It is certain that that solution has been of no real advantage towards improving the art of gunnery; it has only served to convince the student in that art, of
the error of his principles, drawn from the nature of the parabola, although he is still to abide by them. It is indeed something to know, that the common rules are erroneous; but unless we know how much they err in any case, the advantage is very little.

One may think it a work of infinite labour to establish rules for the flight of cannon-shot, agreeable to the real curve which a body describes in the air: for although, according to the hypothesis of Galilae, we want only the elevation of the piece, and the initial velocity, and it is therefore not difficult to calculate tables to show the greatest height of the projectile, and the point where it must fall in any proposed case; yet in order to calculate similar tables, according to the true hypothesis, care must be taken, besides the two particulars already mentioned, to have respect as well to the diameter of the projectile as to its weight: therefore the practitioner will be reduced to the necessity of calculating tables, as well for the diameter of each projectile, as for its weight; and the execution of such a work would be almost impracticable. We therefore refer the curious to Mr. Euler’s True Principles of Gunnery, translated, with many necessary explanations and remarks, by the very learned and ingenious Hugh Brown.

PROJECTION, (projection, Fr.) in mechanics, the action of giving a projectile its motion. It is also used to signify a scheme, plan, or delineation.

PROJET, Fr. a rough draft; a sketch or plan of fortification, with its relative works. A projet, or rough draft, is distinguished from a real plan, or one that is to be put in execution, by a wash made of Indian gum, which is the only colour used on these occasions. The term is also used among French engineers to express what works are required to be made for the inward or outward defence of a fortified town or place. It likewise signifies, in diplomacy, a plan or statement of terms and conditions, which one country makes to another, for a final adjustment of differences.

Contre-Projet, Fr. a rescript or answer to terms proposed.

PROLONGATION, (prolongation, Fr.) an extension of leave of absence, or a continuation of service. Military men, after having served their five years, are entitled to a fresh guinea, for prolongation of service. When a truce between two armies is prolonged, it is called prolongation d’une trève, the prolongation or extension of a truce.

PROLONGE, Fr. a long thick rope, which is used to drag artillery; hence called a drag-rope.

PROMENADE, Fr. walk; walking. See Grand manœuvre de guerre.

PROMENER, Fr. to walk or move on leisurely.

PROMENER un cheval, Fr. to walk a horse up and down.

Se PROMENER à cheval, Fr. to go out riding.

PROMONTORY, (promontoire, Fr.) an elevated piece of land, or a high rock which hangs over the sea.

PROMOTION, (promotion, Fr.) this word signifies, in military matters, the elevation of an individual to some appointment of greater rank and trust than the one he holds.

PROMOUVOIR, Fr. to promote.

PROMU, Fr. promoted.

PROOF, in arithmetic, an operation whereby the truth and justness of a calculation are examined and ascertained.

Proof of artillery and small arms, is a trial whether they will stand the quantity of powder allotted for that purpose.

Government allows 11 bullets of lead in the pound for the proof of muskets, and 29 in two pounds, for service; 17 in the pound for the proof of carbines, and 20 for service; 28 in the pound for the proof of pistols, and 34 for service.

When guns of a new metal, or of lighter construction, are proved, they are then, besides the common proof, fired 2 or 300 times as quick as they can be, loaded with the common charge given in actual service. Our light 6-pounders have been fired 300 times in three hours, 27 minutes, loaded with 1lb. 4oz. without receiving any damage.

Proof of powder, is the trial of its goodness and strength. There have been different inventions proposed and put in practice heretofore, for the proof of powder. See Gunpowder and Eprozette.

Proof of cannon, is made to ascertain their being well cast, their having
no cavities in their metal, and, in a word, their being fit to resist the effort of their charge of powder. In making this proof, the piece is laid up on the ground, supported only by a piece of wood in the middle, of about five or six inches thick, to raise the muzzle a little; and then the piece is fired against a solid butt of earth.

Tools to prove cannon are as follow, viz. Searcher, an iron socket with branches, from four to eight in number, bending outwards a little, with small points at their ends: to this socket is fixed a wooden handle, from eight to twelve feet long, and ½ inch in diameter. This searche is introduced into the gun after each firing, and turned gently round to discover the cavities within: if any are found, they are marked on the outside with chalk; and then the

Searcher with one point is introduced, about which point a mixture of wax and flour is put, to take the impression of the holes; and if any are found of 1-9th of an inch deep, or of any considerable length, the gun is rejected as unserviceable to government.

Reliever, an iron ring fixed to a handle, by means of a socket, so as to be at right angles: it serves to disengage the first searcher, when any of its points are retained in a hole, and cannot otherwise be got out. When guns are rejected by the proof-masters, they order them to be marked X which the contractors generally alter to W P, and after such alteration, dispose of them to foreign powers for Woolwich proof.

A most curious instrument for finding the principal defects in pieces of artillery, has been invented by lieutenant-general Desaguliers, of the royal regiment of artillery. This instrument, grounded on the truest mechanical principles, is no sooner introduced into the hollow cylinder of the gun, than it discovers its defects, and more particularly that of the piece not being truly bored; which is a very important one, and to which most of the disasters happening to pieces of artillery, are in a great measure to be imputed; for when a gun is not properly bored, the most expert artillerist will not be able to make a good shot.

Proof of mortars and howitzers, is made to ascertain their being well cast, and of strength to resist the effort of their charge. For this purpose the mortar or howitzer is placed upon the ground, with some part of its trunnions or breech sunk below the surface, and resting on wooden billets, at an elevation of about 70 degrees.

The mirror is generally the only instrument to discover the defects in mortars and howitzers. In order to use it, the sun must shine; the breech must be placed towards the sun, and the glass over against the mouth of the piece: it illuminates the bore and chamber sufficiently to discover the flaws in it.

Proof armour, armour hardened so as to resist the force of an arrow, a sword, or other weapons in use before the discovery of gunpowder; and sometimes of shot itself.

Proof charge, the quantity of gunpowder which is used in trying the several pieces of ordnance.

PROPER, in military matters, stands as a reduplicative, serving to mark out a thing more expressly and formally, viz.

PROPER front of a battalion. The usual continuity of line, which is given to the formation of a battalion, and which remains unaltered by the countermarch or wheelings of its divisions; or if altered is restored by the same operation.

PROPER right, the right of a battalion, company, or subdivision, when it is drawn up according to its natural formation.

PROPER pivot flank, in column, is that which, when wheeled up to, preserves the divisions of the line in the natural order, and to their proper front. The other may be called the reverse flank. In column divisions cover and dress to the proper pivot flank; to the left when the right is in front; and to the right when the left is in front.

PROPLASM. See Mould.

PROPORTION, (proportion, Fr.) the relation which parts have among themselves, and to the whole.

PROPORTIONS, (Proporions, Fr.) in architecture, the several relations which all the works have to their parts, and which every one has separately to the whole edifice.

PROPOSER une personne pour une charge, Fr. to recommend a person for a situation.
PROPOSITION, (Proposition, Fr.)
in geometry, the declaration of a truth
which is proved by demonstration. Such
are the propositions in Euclid's Ele-
ments. Propositions are divided into
Problems and Theorems.

PROPREFECT, among the Ro-
mans, the prefect's lieutenant, whom
he commissioned to do any part of his
duty in his place.

PROPRÉTE des soldats, Fr. clean-
liness required in soldiers.—See Se-
RJEANT.

PROPRETOR, the same in his re-
late capacity as proconsul among the
Romans. He was a magistrate who,
after having discharged the office of
pretor at home, was sent into a province
to act in the same capacity.

PROQUESTOR, among the Ro-
mans, the questor's lieutenant, who dis-
charged his office in his stead.

To PROSECUTE, to carry on.—
Hence to prosecute the war.

PROSECUTOR, ( accusateur, Fr.)
the person who exhibits charges against
a delinquent. When the king is con-
cerned, the advocate-general assumes
that character.

PROSPECTIVE, appertaining to
viewing.

PROSTYLE, any building having
pillars in the front only.

PROCTOR. This word some-
times denotes the regent of a kingdom.
Oliver Cromwell assumed this title on
the death of Charles the First.

PROTOCTORES DOMESTICI,
body guards, which were instituted
about the decline of the Roman Em-
pire: they did duty both on horseback
and on foot.

PROTESTANT, an appellation first
given in Germany to all who adhered
to the doctrine published by Luther, in
opposition to the Roman Catholic reli-
gion.

PROTESTANT religion, the established
religion of Great Britain.

PROTOPATHAIRE, the principal
officer in the guards that did duty over
the Emperor of Constantinople. The
guards themselves were called Spa-
thaires, on account of the long sword
with which they were constantly ar-
med.

PROVEDIT, (Providence, Fr.)
The Venetians had two appointments of
this description before the Revolution
occasioned by the French.—One gave
the supreme command of the armies on
shore, the other that of the fleets.

Of these proveditors, there were three
who had the direction of matters relat-
ing to policy throughout the Signory.

PROVEDITORES GENERALIS OF THE sea, an
officer in Italy, whose authority extended
over the fleet, when the captain-general
was absent. He had particularly the
disposal of the cash.

PROVISIONS, are properly those
articles of food and sustenance which
soldiers receive from the public, and
which are paid for by deductions from
their pay. On the 6th of February,
1799, a warrant was issued from the
war-office, declaring the deductions to
be taken, under various circumstances
of service, out of Great Britain, and
in general hospitals, at home and
abroad, from the full pay of non-com-
missioned officers and soldiers. By
this warrant the regulations, which are
specified in the schedule annexed to a
warrant of the 5th day of July, 1797,
and in any subsequent ones issued from
the office of the commander in chief,
or secretary at war, are cancelled, and
it is ordained, that there shall be taken
a deduction of sixpence a day from the
full pay of every seaman, corporal,
trumpeter, drummer, fifer, private man
of the life guards, horse guards, dra-
 goon guards, dragoons, foot guards, in-
fantry of the line, militia, fencible in-
fantry, and companies of invalids, when
serving out of Great Britain, on sta-
tions at which provisions are supplied
by the public; also when embarked in
transports, or other vessels; (except
while serving as marines, or during
their passage to and from India at the
expense of the East-India company;) also when prisoners of war, and main-
tained at the expense of Great Britain;
and likewise when in general hospitals,
either at home or abroad. A deduc-
tion of three-pence halfpenny is like-
wise to be made from the full pay of
each seaman, &c. when stationed in Ja-
magua, in New South Wales, at Gibral-
tar, (the loss by exchange at the latter
place continuing as before) and while
on their passage to and from India at
the expense of the East India com-
pany.

These.
These deductions commenced, in regard to the troops at home, on the 25th of February, 1799; and in regard to the troops abroad, on the 25th of April, 1799.

PROVISIONAL, (provisonnal, Fr.) temporarily established.

PROVISIONAL Cavalry, a kind of militia cavalry, first raised by act of parliament in 1797; each county or district being divided into classes of ten householders in each. The person on whom the ballot fell was constrained to find a man and horse, etc. Like the militia they were commanded by officers having commissions from the lord lieutenant of the county.

PROVISIONALLY, (provisonement, Fr.) by way of provision, or temporary arrangement. This word is frequently used, both in French and English, to distinguish the exercise of temporary functions from that of permanent appointments.

PROVOCATOR, (Provoquer, Fr.) a challenger. Among the Romans there was a particular gladiator of this appellation. He was armed with a sword, shield, head-piece, and cuissarts, made of iron.

PROVOQUER, Fr. to provoke; to draw on.

PROVOQUER un combat, Fr. to provoke or challenge to battle.

PROVOQUER à se battre, Fr. to provoke any body to fight.

PROVOST-Marshal, of an army, is an officer appointed to secure deserters, and all other criminals: he is often to go round the army, hinder the soldiers from pillaging, indict offenders, execute the sentence pronounced, and regulate the weights and measures used in the army, when in the field. He is attended by a lieutenant's guard, has a clerk, and an executioner.

PROWESS, valour, bravery in the field, military gallantry.

PRUDENCE (La Prudence, Fr.) Wisdom in managing and conducting affairs. This quality of the mind is, perhaps, as necessary an ingredient as the whole collective assemblage of talents and acquirements which constitute the character of an able general. It was an old saying among the Romans, nullum numen abest sî sit Prudentia, every divinity is with you, or no divinity is absent, provided there be prudence at hand.

PRYLIDES, a military dance which was practiced among the Greeks.

PRYTANEE, Fr. from the Lat. prytaneum, and originally from an institution at Athens for the support of those persons who had deserved well of their country. The name of the Ecole Militaire was altered by the Emperor Napoleon, when he was first consul of France, to that of Prytanie.

This institution is situated in the Rue St. Jacques, in the Faubourg St. Marcel. The grand building, which may be seen in the maps of Paris, serves as barracks for the flying artillery.

The Prytanie, as an establishment for the education of military characters, is remarkable for the liberality of its regulations with respect to religious tenets. Protestant as well as Catholic boys, &c. are received and educated there without being molested on the score of religion.

PRESENT, an abbreviation of the word present. It is used in plateau firings.

PSIOLOI, light armed men among the Greeks, who fought with arrows and darts, or stones and slings, but were unfit for close fight. They were in honour and dignity inferior to the heavy armed. Next to these were the Pelasgi, a middle sort of foot soldiers between the Hoplites and the Psilois, being armed with spears, but far inferior in bigness to those of the heavy armed; their name is taken from their narrow shields, called Pelte. Potter's Greek Antiquities, Vol. II. C. 3.

PITEROPHRES, heralds or messengers among the Romans who brought tidings of a declaration of war, of a battle having been lost, or of some check sustained by the army. They generally wore feathers at the end of their pikes.

PUBLICANS, persons who keep alehouses, &c. for the accommodation of travellers. Troops upon the march, or in quarters, may be billeted on them, under certain regulations.

PUCKA, Ind. a putrid fever, generally fatal in twenty-four hours.

PUCKALLIES, Ind. leather bags for
for carrying water. They are placed on the banks of oxen. The word is also used for water-carriers.

PUDILAYS, pieces of stuff to do the office of levers or handspikes.

PUGILISM, (Pugilat, Fr.) the art of boxing, which was held in high repute among the Greeks, and was constantly practised by them. Except in England, this art is not known among modern nations. With us it has had its parliamentary advocates.

PULIR Din, Ind. watches kept in the day; of which there are four; a similar number is kept in the night, called Pukur rat.

PUISARDS de sources, Fr. openings or drain wells which are made in the earth, for the purpose of collecting water from the different sources, and of lodging it in a reservoir; from whence it may be conveyed, by means of an aqueduct, to the several spots that require it.

PUISANT, Fr. a well built of dry stones, or made in a wall to serve as a reservoir for water.

PUISANCE, Fr. in algebra and geometry, powers of lines and quantities.

PUISOIR, Fr. a copper vessel which is used in making saltpetre.

PUITS, Fr. a well.

Puits de mineur, Fr. a perpendicular opening, about four feet square, which is made in the earth for miners to let themselves down, as deep as may be judged expedient, in order to push the subterraneous galleries beneath the covert-way, or under any other works constructed by the besieged or besieger.

PULK, a tribe, a particular body of men. This word is chiefly used in Russia; as a Pulk of Cossacks.

PULVÉRIN, Fr. priming powder.

PULVIS fulminans, the same as poudre fulminant, the thundering powder, a mixture of three parts of saltpetre, two of tartar, and one of brimstone; all finely powdered. A small part, even a single grain of this being put into a shovel over a gentle fire, till it melts by degrees and changes colour, will go off and explode as loud as a musket. But it will not do any injury, because its force tends chiefly downward.

PULLEY, in military mechanism.—See Mechanick.

PULWAR, Ind. a light boat for dispatches.

PUMICE-stone, a spugny, light, crumbling stone which is cast out of mount Etna, and other burning mountains. It is used in graving, polishing, &c.

PUMMEL.—See Pommel.

PUMP, (Pompe, Fr.) a well known engine used in the elevation of water.

PUNCH, (poinçon, Fr.) an instrument for making holes. Every serjeant of a company, at least, and indeed every corporal of a squad, should be provided with a punch, as there is frequent occasion to fit on the cross-belts, &c.

PUNCTO, the point in fencing.

PUNICK, (Punique, Fr.) from punicus, of Puni, the Carthaginians, who were reckoned a perfidious people.

PUNICK-faith, (la foi punique, Fr.) falsehood, treachery, perfidy. The modern French have thought proper to attach this term to honest old England; and, in order to prove the absurdity and injustice of the application, have, in every act, (especially towards their prisoners,) exemplified the adage themselves.

PUNISHMENT, in the army, in general, signifies the execution of a sentence pronounced by a court-martial upon any delinquent; but in particular it means that kind of punishment which is often used by inflicting a certain number of lashes upon a reduced non-commissioned officer, or private man. There are various methods in different countries which have been adopted for the punishment of officers and soldiers, without ultimately depriving the public of their services. Those in the British are simple, and in general very summary; especially with regard to officers. In some foreign services it is usual to send an officer from his regiment to do duty in a garrison town, during which period he loses all the advantages of promotion. Hence être envoyé en garnison, to be sent into garrison, implies a species of military chastisement. Perhaps the method, which is adopted in our navy, of putting an officer at the bottom of the list of his own rank, might be beneficial in the army.

PUNITIONS corporellas, Fr. corporal punishments. In the old French service, military punishments or chastisements, which were not of a capital nature, were of two kinds. The pcket was
was for the cavalry, and the gauntlet, or passing through the rods, for the infantry. The rods, or baguettes, (which properly mean small sticks, or switches), were generally osier or willow twigs. Previous to the execution of the sentence, a corporal, with two privates of the company to which the culprit belonged, were sent to get the rods. These they brought in a bundle to the guardhouse, or to any place of security which was near the spot where the punishment was to be inflicted. The criminal, under an escort of two serjeants and four grenadiers, with fixed bayonets, went for the bundle, and as he passed through the interval of the line which was faced inwards, each soldier drew out one twig. The grenadiers at the head of the line took off their slings, which they used instead of rods. When the culprit reached the end of the line, he undressed himself naked to the waist. The right and left openings of the double line, faced inwards, were closed by the grenadiers that had escorted the prisoner, viz. two with one serjeant at the head of the right, and two with ditto at the head of the left. It sometimes happened, that a serjeant or corporal marched backwards in ordinary time; keeping the point of his pike directed at the chest of the man who received the lashes. The culprit was, however, generally allowed to make the most of his legs. Whilst he was receiving his punishment, the drummers of the regiment, who were equally divided and stationed behind the grenadiers that had formed the escort, beat the charge. If a French soldier was convicted of theft, or any flagrant dishonourable practice that injured the military character, he not only underwent this punishment, but he was conducted, in the most ignominious manner, to the outward gate of a frontier town; there expelled the country, and cautioned never to be found within its limits under pain of suffering death. The nicety of military honour and reputation, among French soldiers, used to be proverbial. They never survived a blow, even among themselves, nor would a private soldier exist under the disgrace of having been struck by an officer.

When a girl of the town, or a notorious prostitute, was taken up, and ordered to be punished in a camp or garrison, she went through the same process; the drums beating the marionnetes, a sort of rogue's march, during the execution of the sentence.

In the life of Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, it is observed, that he was remarked for being strict to his officers and mild to the private men. It was a principle with him, that even a common soldier should rarely, if ever, receive corporal punishment; fully persuaded, that such a disgrace cast a damp afterwards upon his vivacity, and agreed not well with the notions which an high spirit ought to entertain of honour. It was his idea, that a man of bravery would sooner forgive a sentence of death, inflicted upon him by a court-martial, than pass by the scandal of corporal chastisement. His general rule, therefore, was to degrade or banish.—Essay on the Military State of Europe in the former part of the 17th century; vol. I. page 6, Life of Gustavus Adolphus.

PUNITIONS Militaires, Fr. See PURCHASE.

PURCHASE. Although the sale and purchase of commissions are countenanced by government, and the prices of those commissions are regulated by the king's authority, yet there are various ways through which young men of fortune and connexions may get over the heads of veteran officers. Notwithstanding the avowed existence of this deplorable system, it must be acknowledged, that its abuses have, in some degree, been provided against by a specific regulation, which says, that the names of the officers who intend to purchase shall be regularly transmitted, upon the back of each regimental return, every six months at least, to the commander in chief, in order that the same may be laid before his Majesty.

Purchase and sale are terms unknown in the navy; and we are happy to prognosticate, from the laudable exertions of the present commander in chief, that in the course of time, the word purchase will be erased from the vocabulary of military terms; as far, at least, as it regards the British service.

Highland PURSE, from the Gaelic Sporan, and sometimes called Check-purse.
Purse, a part of the Highland dress, which claims great antiquity. Something similar to it is to be found in the early history of those nations that inhabit the temperate regions.

The purse which is at present worn by our Highland regiments, consists of goat skin, and the tassels hanging from them are of the long hairs or bristles.

The Highlanders seem formerly to have displayed great ingenuity in making their purses, both with regard to the pockets, and to the different heads of animals with which they decorated the fronts.

Purse, (with the grand signor), a gift, or gratification of 300 crowns.

Purse of money, (in the Levant) about 112l. sterling. It is so called, because all the grand signor's money is kept in leather purses or bags of this value in the seraglio.

Purse-proud Fellow, (gros richard), a term in common use among the generality of mankind, but seldom known in military life. A creature whose only value is his weight of gold.

Pursevant, Pursuivant, from the French pourvant, a sort of serjeant at arms, who is ready to go upon any special occasion, or to carry any special message. His general office is to apprehend a person who has been guilty of an offence.

Purseness, a disconcerted, a shortness of breath.

Pursuit, (poursuite, Fr.) the act of following with hostile intention.

Purveyor, a person employed in the quarter-master or commissary-general's department. Likewise one belonging to a military hospital, whose duty it is to provide food and necessaries for the sick.

To Push, (pousser, Fr.) to make a thrust.

To Push back, to force an enemy to retreat.

A Push, (un coup, Fr.) as a push of the bayonet. Un coup de la bayonnette.

Pusillanimous, cowardly, wanting spirit.

To Put a horse, in horsemanship, signifies to break or manage him.

To Put a horse upon his haunches, to force him to bend them in galloping in the Manege, or upon a stop.

Putting-Stone, a great stone, which formerly was laid at the gate of a laird in Scotland, and by which he tried the bodily strength of each man in his clan.

Pyke, Ind. a person employed as a guard at night.

Pyramid, (Pyramide, Fr.) This word is originally derived from the Greek, and takes its name from a resemblance to the spiral ascendency of fire. It is the same as obelisk.

Geometrical Pyramid, a solid standing on a square basis, and terminating at the top in a point; or a body whose base is a polygon, and whose sides are plain triangles, their several tops meeting together in one point.

Pyramid, (in architecture), a solid, massy edifice, which, from a square, triangular, or other base, rises in gradual diminution to a vertex or point.

Pyramidal numbers, (in arithmetic,) the sums of polygonal numbers, collected after the same manner as the polygon numbers themselves are extracted from arithmetical progressions.

Pyramidal, pertaining to, like Pyramidal, to a pyramid.

Pyramidoid, from the Greek, is what is sometimes called a parabolick spindle, and is a solid figure formed by the revolution of a parabola round its base, or greatest ordinate.

The Pyramids of Egypt are enormous piles of building, within three leagues of Grand Cairo, and are called one of the seven wonders of the world.

The pyramids of Giza, the largest of which was originally built by Cheops, are supposed to have been erected about 15 years after the building of Solomon's temple, about 2661 years ago. The pyramids are known by various names, viz.

Pyramids of Giza, (five in number) which are those already mentioned, and near which the French established a camp in 1799.

Pyramids of Saccara, (three in number). These stand in the plain of Mummies, and are about 600 feet high.

Dashour Pyramids, six in number, stand in the same plain, and appear, somewhat lower. The French General Friant, in 1799, pursued Murad Bey across this plain, leaving the pyramids on his left.

The
The Southern, or Great Pyramid.—This pyramid has been called by Bruce, the traveller, the False Pyramid. It stands in the plain of Mummies, and appears to be about 600 feet high.

Pyramids, in ruins. Two pyramids of smaller size, which stand near the Fisume Mountains, close to Joseph's canal.

Battle of the Pyramids, so called from having taken place close to the large pyramids in the plain of Mummies, at Waardam, within a few miles of Grand Cairo. A previous engagement had been fought on the 15th of July, 1799, between the Mamalukes under Murad Bey, and the French army, commanded by Bonaparte in person. The second battle, called the Battle of the Pyramids, put the French in possession of Lower Egypt. The following short extract from the Epitome of Military Events, may not be uninteresting.

"The French army, which, during its last marches had suffered excessive fatigue, halted at Waardam, in order to recruit its strength, remount the artillery, and clean the muskets that were so subject to take rust from the moist vapours of the Nile. On the 21st of July, 1799, the second battle, called the Battle of the Pyramids, was fought. General Désix, with his advanced guard, at first made a corps of Mamalukes fall back; the order of battle of the other divisions was nearly the same as on the 13th, being drawn up by echelons, so as to flank themselves between each other; and the line of battle, which was itself flanked by two villages. Each division was concentrated into a compact body, and formed a square, having its baggage in the centre, and the artillery in the intervals of the battalions. This formidable disposition presented a double fire in flank and in front, and opposed an invincible obstacle to the impetuous, but unconnected charges of Murad Bey's cavalry. To return to the action of the 21st, General Désix's advanced guard, and Regnier's division, formed the right wing of the army, and were at first charged with the greatest impetuosity, by one half of the Mamalukes cavalry; the other half having remained to support the intrenchments of the village of Embâbi.

Notwithstanding this determination to anticipate the attacks of the French columns, the rash valour of the Mamalukes again failed against those compact bodies, bristling with bayonets, and keeping up, within half musket shot, a most galling fire. While these charges were taking place against his right, and the Mamalukes were retreating in disorder, Bonaparte directing the two divisions of his center against the intrenchments, ordered the village of Embâbi to be turned by means of a ditch which masked this movement, and thus cut to pieces, or rather drove into the Nile, 1500 of the enemy's cavalry. In a map lately published by Heastie, the number is stated to have been 2000. The attack, which was extremely warm, was conducted by General Marmont.

Forty pieces of cannon, the camp of the Mamalukes, their rich spoils, together with upwards of 400 camels, fell into the hands of the conquerors. See pages 119 and 120 of the Epitome of Military Events.

In the year 1801 a detachment of the British forces in Egypt defeated the French close to the Pyramids, and took possession of Grand Cairo. This battle decided the fate of Egypt, and rescued that country out of the hands of the French.

PYROBOLY, the art of gunnery, &c.

PYROBOLIST, (Pyroboliste, Fr.) a maker of fire balls, &c.

PYROETS, in horsemanship, are motions either of one tread or pist, or of two treads or pists.

PYROETS of one tread, or what the French call de la tête à la queue, from the head to the tail, are entire and very narrow turns made by a horse upon one tread, and almost at one time, so that his head is placed where his tail was, without putting out his haunches.

PYROETS of two pists, are turns of two treads upon a small compass of ground, almost of the length of the horse.

PYROTECHNIC, of or appertaining to Pyrotechny.

PYROTECHNIE, Fr. See Pyrotechny.

PYROTECHNY, in military matters, the doctrine of artificial fireworks, and fire-arms, teaching the structure and service, both of those used in war, for
for the attacking of fortifications, &c. as cannons, bombs, grenades, gunpowder, wildfire, &c. and those made for diversion, as serpents, St. Catherine's wheel, rockets, &c.

PYRRHICA, a dance invented by King Pyrrhus. It was performed by the soldiers striking their shields together and in cadence, so as to resemble the noise and action of a battle. This amusement was practised by the Greeks and Romans; on which occasions, the men and women were armed with wooden swords.

PYXIS NAUTICA, (Boussole, Fr.) a mariner's compass. It was invented by Goja of Amalphiis, in the year 1300.

QUADRANGLE,  a square figure having four right angles.

QUADRANT, in gunnery, an instrument made of brass or wood, divided into degrees, and each degree into ten parts, to lay guns or mortars to any angle of elevation.

The common sort is that whose radii project the quadrant about twelve inches, and whose plummet suspends in its centre, by means of a fine piece of silk; so that, when the long end is introduced into the piece, the plummet shows its elevation.

The best sort has a spiral level fixed to a brass radius; so that, when the long end is introduced into the piece, this radius is turned about its centre till it is level: then its end shews the angle of elevation, or the inclination from the horizon; whereas the first shews that angle from the vertical. — See Level.

QUADRATE, or to quadrat a gun, is to see it duly placed on its carriage, and that the wheels be of an equal height.

QUADRATES, a square having four equal and parallel sides.

QUADRATIC Equations, are such as retain, on the unknown side, the square of the root, or the number sought.

QUADRATRICE, Fr. See QUADRANT.

QUADRATURE, Fr. quadrature. The French pronounce this word quadrature.
their direction, and afterwards personally introduced to the Roman Senate.

**Quaestores Candidati, Lat.** During the reign of certain Roman emperors the Quaestores Candidati, who were officers that always attended their persons, stood proxies for, or delivered the sentiments of the consuls, when the latter did not choose to attend the Senate.

**Quaestorium,** the Exchequer, among the ancient Romans; also the tent, pavilion, or head quarters of the quaestor. It was there likewise that the military chest belonging to the army was deposited.

**Quai, Fr.** See **Quay.**

**Quaiche,** or **Caiche,** Fr. a decked vessel, a ketch.

**Qualification,** that which makes any person or thing fit for any thing. It is a term particularly used with respect to the militia of the three united kingdoms; the lords lieutenants, deputy lieutenants and officers belonging to that establishment being directed, under a specific penalty, to give in their several qualifications, as far as they relate to property (landed or personal, as the case may be), within a prescribed period. For particulars see Military Finance.

Qualifications required to constitute an efficient soldier, are—bodily strength, activity, hardihood, active courage, passive courage, dexterity or skill, steadiness, discipline, watchfulness, cleanliness, good conduct (in which is included sobriety), enthusiasm, and contempt of death.

To **qualify,** to fit for any thing.

To give in the necessary qualifications for the exercising of a civil or military employment. In a general acceptation of the term, To qualify does not mean to give proofs of mental ability.

**Quantieme, Fr.** a term used among the French to signify, not only the day of month, as quel quantième du mois avons nous? what is the day of the month? but likewise the numerical order in which an individual stands upon a muster roll, &c. viz. Le quantième d'es vous dans notre compagnie? How do you rank in your company? or, of what standing are you?

**Quantity,** the amount; bulk; weight; that property of any thing which may be increased or diminished.

**Quarantine,** (Quarantaine, Fr.) the time which persons, suspected of having any contagious disorder, are obliged to remain without mixing with the inhabitants of the sea port or town at which they arrive. It takes its name from quarantaine, the term of 40 days.

**Quarre, Fr.** Although this word is written with a Q in all the French Dictionaries, (except in that published by the academy at Paris,) it ought nevertheless to stand Carré. In the first hurry of our compilation we omitted to notice this error, so that Batallions carré d'hommes, signifies a square. The French say, Partie carrée, a party consisting of four people. See Square.

**Quarreaux, Fr.** Darts or arrows which the bowmen anciently used, and which were so called from the iron at the end being square, with a sharp point.

**Quarrels,** in a military sense, are disagreements between individuals of that serious nature, as to produce challenges, duels, &c. In Section the VIIth, Art. IVth of the Articles of War, it is specified, That all officers, of what condition soever, have power to quell all quarrels, fray's, and disagrements, though the persons concerned should belong to another regiment, troop, or company, and either to order officers into arrest, or non-commissioned officers or soldiers to prison, until their proper superior officers shall be made acquainted therewith; and whosoever shall refuse to obey such officer (though of an inferior rank) or shall draw his sword upon him, shall be punished at the discretion of a general court-martial.

**Quarel, Fr.** an arrow with a square **Quarry.**

**Quart, Fr.** a fourth.

**Quart de Cercle, Fr.** a quadrant, such as bombardiers use when they take the angles, and give what inclination they think necessary to a mortar. Also the fourth part of any given circumference containing ninety degrees.

**Quart de Conversion, Fr.** a military movement by which a body of armed men are made to describe the quarter of a circle round the leading file of the right or left flank, and which becomes, of course, the point d'apptui to the rest. See Quarter-wheeling.
Demi-Quart de conversion, Fr. half-quarter-wheel.

QUARTE, Fr. in fencing. See CArTE.

QUARTER, in war, signifies the sparing of men's lives, and giving good treatment to a vanquished enemy.—Hence to give quarter.

To QUARTER UPON, (loger, Fr.) to oblige persons to receive soldiers, &c. into their dwelling houses, and to provide for them.

QUARTERS. Military stations are so called; as head quarters, home quarters, regimental quarters, &c.

Quarters, at a siege, the encampment upon one of the most principal passages round a place besieged, to prevent relief and convoys.

Head Quarters of an army, the place where the commander in chief has his quarters. The quarters of generals of horse are, if possible, in villages behind the right and left wings; and the generals of foot are often in the same place: but the commander in chief should be near the center of the army.

Quarters of refreshment, the place or places where troops that have been much harrassed are put to recover themselves, during some part of the campaign.

Quarter of assembly, the place where the troops meet to march from in a body, and is the same as the place of rendezvous.

Intrenched Quarters, a place fortified with a ditch and parapet to secure a body of troops.

Winter Quarters, sometimes means the space of time included between leaving the camp and taking the field; but more properly, the places where the troops are quartered during the winter.

The first business, after the army is in winter quarters, is to form the chain of troops to cover the quarters well: which is done either behind a river, under cover of a range of strong posts, or under the protection of fortified towns. Husars are very useful on this service.

It should be observed, as an invariable maxim, in winter quarters, that your regiments be disposed in brigades, to be always under the eye of a general officer; and, if possible, let the regiments be so distributed, as to be each under the command of its own chief.

In Quarters, within the limits prescribed.

Out of Quarters, beyond the limits prescribed. Officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, who sleep out of quarters, without leave, are liable to be tried by a general or regimental court-martial, according to the rank they severally hold.

Quartermaster, is an officer, whose principal business is to look after the quarters of the soldiers, their clothing, bread, ammunition, firing, &c. Every regiment of foot, and artillery, has a quartermaster, and every troop of horse one; who are only warrant-officers, except in the Blues.

Quartermaster-general, is a considerable officer in the army, and should be a man of great judgment and experience, and well skilled in geography; his duty is to mark the marches, and encampments of an army; he should know the country perfectly well, with its rivers, plains, marshes, woods, mountains, defiles, passages, &c. even to the smallest brook. Prior to the march, he receives the orders and route from the commanding general, and appoints a place for the quartermasters of the army to meet him next morning, with whom he marches to the next camp; where, after having viewed the ground, he marks out to the regimental quartermasters the space allowed each regiment for their camp: he chooses the head quarters, and appoints the villages for the generals of the army's quarters: he appoints a proper place for the encampment of the train of artillery; he conducts foraging parties, as likewise the troops to cover them against assaults, and has a share in regulating the winter quarters and cantonments.

Quartermaster-staff, (bison à deux bouts, Fr.) an old military weapon, made of strong even wood, bigger and heavier than a pike: it is 6½ feet long between the ferrules that keep fast the two pikes of iron stuck into the ends of the staff.

Quarter, in the manigé, as to work from quarter to quarter, is to ride a horse three times in upon the first of the four lines of a square; then, changing your hand, to ride him three times upon the second; and so to the third and fourth; always changing hands, and observing the same order.
Quarter-wheeling is the motion by which the front of a body of men is turned round to where the flank stood, by taking a quarter of a circle.

Quartering troops, is to provide them with quarters.

Quarteron, (one, Fr.) a quarteron; one born of a white man and a mulatto woman, or of a mulatto man and a white woman.

Quartidi, Fr. the fourth day of the decade according to the distribution of the French republican year.

Quarter, Fr. For its general acceptance see QUARTERS.

Quarter de cantonnement, Fr. any space or extent of country in which troops are cantoned.

Quarter de précaution, Fr. a camp which is established on one of the chief roads or leading avenues of a besieged or masked place, for the purpose of intercepting any succours or provisions that might be brought to relieve it.

Quarter d'un siège, Fr. a station taken, or an encampment made in one of the leading avenues to a besieged town or place. When the quarter d'un siège was commanded by a general officer, during the French monarchy, it was called quarter du Roi, the king's quarters.

Quartiers de sièges, Fr. the different spots or places within the lines which are occupied by troops that are encamped under the orders of a general officer, subordinate to the commander in chief. These quarters must be on the flanks or wings, and on the center of the lines.

Quarter des vues, Fr. the park of stores, provisions, &c. any place where the stores and provisions of an army are deposited.

Quarter d'hiver, Fr. winter quarters. Count de Turpin has written largely upon this subject. See Essai sur l'Art de la Guerre; likewise, Suite de la Science de la Guerre, tom. iv. p. 170.

Quarter de rasratchisements, Fr. those places are so called in which troops are permitted to halt and take up their quarters for any period, during a campaign.

Quarter de fourrage, Fr. foraging quarters. When the active operations of a campaign are necessarily inter-
rupted by the inclemency of the season, means are adopted to lessen the heavy expences of winter quarters, by remaining a certain time in foraging quarters. A wise general will take care to live as long as he can upon his enemy's country, in order to draw as little as possible from his own.

Quarter du Roi, ou du Général, Fr. head quarters, or the spot where the king or commander in chief resides. When an army takes up its ground in low-marshy places, &c. the royal or head quarters are marked out in the most advantageous manner, so as to have the king's or general's person secure. When an army went into action or stood in battle array, it was customary among the French to say, Le quartier du Roi est partout, the king's station is every where. Nevertheless it was always judged prudent not to expose the royal person, or the commander in chief, too much. On this principle, head quarters were always established in a place which was surrounded by the best troops, and was supported by epaulements on the right and left, with the addition of a rear guard. Since the revolution these arrangements have been much changed.

It cannot, however, be uninteresting to give a general outline of what was practised during the monarchy. The quarter du Roi or head quarters, when a town was besieged, were always fixed out of the reach of ordnance, and in a village that was well secured by entrenchments. Before the cannonade commenced, it was usual for the besieged to ascertain the exact station of head quarters, that their fire might not be directed towards them; nor did the real assault of the town take place from that direction. Wherever the king, or, in his absence, the commander in chief took up his quarters, the camp assumed its name from that particular spot or village.

Quarter général de la tranchée, Fr. head quarters, or principal station of the trenches. That spot is so called in which the commanding officer of the trenches takes post, and to which all reports of progress, &c. are, from time to time, conveyed. When the siege is somewhat advanced, it is usual to fix this quarter, near the outlet of the last parallel
parallel which leads to the head of the
saps, in the principal line of attack.

Quartier d'assemblée, Fr. the
ground on which troops assemble to
commence their military routes, or to
be otherwise prepared for active opera-
tions.

Un Quartier bien retranché, Fr. a
quarter that is well entrenched.

Un Quartier enlevé, Fr. quarters
taken possession of by force.

Officiers de Quartier, Fr. officers
who were upon duty for three months,
or during the space of one quarter of a
year. This term was used in the old
French service, to distinguish such offi-
cers from those who did duty through-
out the year.

Etre de Quartier, Fr. to be upon
duty for three months.

Quartier général, Fr. general
head quarters.

Quartier-maître, Fr. quarter-master.
This term, with respect to foreign
troops, corresponds with maréchal des
logis in a French infantry corps.

Quartier-maître, Fr. The situa-
tion of quartier-maître among the
French, corresponds with that of a re-
gimental paymaster in the British ser-
vice. Among the Germans he holds
the rank of captain. The French also
call him quartier-maître trésorier. When
he is first appointed, he receives the
rank of lieutenant, and after a certain
number of years, holds that of captain.
He never does any sort of military duty,
or, to use a French phrase, Il n'est pas
en bataille. He generally rises from the
ranks.

Quartier-Maître-Général, Fr. quar-
ter-master-general. Among foreign
troops the same as maréchal général des
logis in the old French service. There
is a quarter-master-general in the Turk-
ish service, whose immediate duty is to
mark out the ground of encampment,
the instant he has received orders to that
purpose from the grand Vizir, or, in his
absence, from the seraskier, who is the
general in ordinary, and who is always
with the army, whether the Grand
Vizir be present or not.

Quartier, Fr. This word is also
used by the French in many other sig-
ifications, viz.—

Mettre, donner l'alarme au Quar-
tier, Fr. to give the alarm in quarters.

This is either done by the enemy's ad-
vanced posts, or designedly contrived
to keep soldiers on the alert.

Donner Quartier, Fr. to give quar-
ter. See Représailler.

Prendre Quartier, Fr. to take
quarter, or to surrender at discretion.

Demander Quartier, Fr. to ask
quarter, or to throw one's self on the
mercy of a conqueror.

Ne point faire de Quartier, Fr. to
give no quarter, or to put to the sword.

Officier de Quartier, Fr. the officer
who, during the old government of
France, did duty for three months in
the French guards.

Promettre Quartier, Fr. to pro-
mise quarter, or to spare the life of an
enemy that surrenders at discretion.

QUATRE, Fr. four.

To QUELL, to crush, to subdue.
Military force is sometimes resorted to
by the civil magistracy to quell riots,
&c. In which case, the riot-act must
be read by a justice of the peace, and
if the rioters or insurgents do not dis-
perse, the magistrate may order the offi-
cer to do his duty, by firing, &c. upon
them. When military law has been
proclaimed, there is not any necessity
for this preliminary caution.

Vidr une QUERELLE, Fr. an ex-
pression among the French, which is
used when two persons meet to deter-
mine their quarrel by fighting with
sword or pistol. They also say prendre
querelle pour quelqu'un, to take up the
cause of another man, and to fight it
out against those who may have injured
or offended him.

Querelle d'Allemand, Fr. an ex-
pression used among the French, to
signify a drunken quarrel.

Querelles, Fr. quarrels, feuds, &c.

To go in QUEST of an enemy, to
send out vedettes, patroles, &c. for the
purpose of ascertaining an enemy's mo-
tions.

QUERRY.—See EQUERRY.

QUESTE, Fr. This word means lit-
erally in quest. In the days of ancient
chivalry, the different journies which
were performed by knights newly re-
ceived, either on their way to or from
some grand tournament or grand festi-
vial, which was connected with the or-
der, were said to be made en quête. It
also signified (in our opinion more ap-
propriately),
propriately), the excursions which were undertaken by the knights, when they went in quest of some brother knight who had fallen into the hands of an enemy. The whole dress and travelling equipage of one of these knights were very plain, and their manner of living extremely frugal. They were also remarkable for their sobriety. All their ambition went to the discovery of the object for which they were in quest. They were sometimes a whole year on one of these adventurous excursions; at the expiration of which they returned and gave a faithful account, at a meeting of their brother knights, of all they had seen or done. The French writer, from whom we have extracted this article, concludes it in the following curious manner.

"There are still men to be found who make it their business to go in quest, d’aller en quête; but their object is to rob and murder on the highway, by stopping inoffensive travellers. There are others again, who insinuate themselves into the good graces of honest and industrious individuals, for no other purpose than that of plundering them eventually. Hence the origin of Chevaliers d’Industrie. But to return to our authority, the knights described in this article, neither plundered community by infesting the public roads, nor murdered for the sake of gain."

QUEUE, from the French, which signifies tail; an appendage that every British soldier is directed to wear in lieu of a club. Regimental tails are ordered to be nine inches long; among the guards they are fourteen.

QUEUE D’ARONDE, a corruption of Queue d’Yrondé. It signifies a piece of wood which is so made that it resembles at each end a swallow’s tail.

QUEUE d’Yrondé, ou d’Yrondelle, Fr. See Swallow’s Tail.

QUEUE d’un bataillon, Fr. the rear or serre-file of a battalion, when it is countermarched by files; the front files passing to the rear.

QUEUE du Camp, Fr. literally means the tail or extremity of the camp. It is the line which is drawn in the rear of the camp, and which is directly opposite to the one in front, called the head of the camp.

QUEUE de Pauv, Fr. literally means a peacock’s tail. It is used in architecture, to signify the different compartments or spaces which, in a circular figure, spread gradually from the center to the circumference.

QUEUE à queue, Fr. one after another.

Être à la QUEUE, Fr. to be behind, or in the rear.

Avoir l’ennemi en QUEUE, Fr. to have the enemy close at one’s heels.

QUEUE de la tranchée, Fr. that part where the opening of a trench first commences, and where the men are covered from the fire of the besieged. See Tail of the Trenches.

QUIBERON, or Quiberon, a small peninsula of France, in Bretagne, in the bishopric of Vannes, and to the north of Belleisle; as also a small island called the Point of Quiberon, separated from the peninsula by a channel, and the sea next it is called the Bay of Quiberon. This spot has been rendered remarkable by the expedition which took place in June, 1795. Upwards of 3000 regular troops (composed mostly of French emigrants that had served abroad, with the ill-judged addition of some French prisoners, taken out of English gaols) were landed upon the coast. This force was intended as a co-operation with the insurgents of La Vendée, and was afterwards to have been increased by the descent of an English army, under the command of the Earl of Moira. His lordship had, indeed, already been instructed to detach a covering body for that purpose; but the British did not land, having been driven from the French coast by stress of weather. We think it right to observe, on this occasion, that a direct invasion of France, by the British, was not within the plan of this unfortunate expedition, nor within the intentions of the worthy nobleman, when he volunteered a service, which ultimately cost him so many personal sacrifices.

QUICK, with celerity. It forms the cautionary part of a word of command when troops are ordered to move in quick time; as Quick — March.

QUICK Step, or Quick Time, is 108 steps of 30 inches each, or 270 feet in a minute, and is the step used in all files of divisions.

QUICKEST-Step, or Quickest Time,
is 120 steps of 30 inches each, or 300 feet in a minute. In this step all wheelings are performed, as also the doublings up of divisions, and their increase or diminution in front.

QUICK-Match, in laboratory works.

See Laboratory.

QUIETISM, apathy, indifference.

QUIETISME, Fr. the state of those persons who did not take an active part in the French revolution.

QUIETISTE, Fr. a man who did not meddle with the revolution.

QUIETUS, a term used in public accounts, signifying a complete settlement between individuals and the government by which they have been employed. Until this has taken place, no public accountant can be secure in the enjoyment of one farthing he has earned; nor are his heirs exempt from the visitation of an exchequer writ. Nullum tempus occurrit regi.

QUILLON, Fr. the cross-bar of the hilt of a sword.

QUILTING grape-shot, in gunnery.

See Laboratory, and To make Grape Shot.

QUINCUNX, (quinconce, Fr.) an ancient order of battle, in which the legion stood with five or more fronts upon different lines, with intermediate distances. This formation was somewhat similar to a chess-board.

QUINUQUANGULAR, having five corners or angles.

QUINTEINE, an instrument used

QUINTIN, in the ancient practice of tilting. It consisted of an upright post on the top of which a cross post turned upon a pivot; at one end of the cross-post was a broad board, and at the other a bag of sand. The practice was to ride against the board with a lance, and at such speed, as to pass by before the sand-bag could strike the tilter on the back. This word signifies the same as pal, poteau, or jaquemart. The latter word, according to the Dictionnaire de l'Academie Francaise, means a man in complete armour. It is also used by way of derision.

QUINTAL, Fr. one hundred weight. The quintal varies in different places, according as the pound consists of more or fewer ounces. The English quintal is 112 pounds, and is divided into quarters.

QUINTANA, Lat. Among the Romans, the quintana signified that part of an encampment, where the sutlers and camp followers, remained. The Turks imitate this mode of encampment to this day.

QUINTE, Fr. a low thrust in fencing, delivered at the outside of the position, with the nails turned up, as in low carte. When this thrust is forced over the blade from the guard in carte, it is termed flancenade.

QUINTIDI, Fr. the fifth day of the decade in the French republican year.

QUINTUPLE, fivefold.

QUIRITES. In ancient Rome, the common citizens were so called, as distinguished from the soldiery.

To QUIT, to leave, to abandon.—This word is variously used in military phraseology, viz.

To QUIT your post, to retire within.

To QUIT your ranks, out having received any previous order for that purpose, from a station entrusted to your care. Any officer or soldier who, during the heat of an engagement, shall quit his ranks, may be shot, or otherwise dispatched upon the spot. A sentry who quits his post before he is regularly relieved, is ordered to suffer death, or such other punishment as may be inflicted by a general court-martial.

QUIT your Arms, a word of command which is not used, having been replaced by that of Pile Arms. It formerly signified to lay down the musquets; at which order, the soldiers grounded their arms, then stood up and remained till they were directed to face Right About, when they marched clear of their pieces, and dispersed. On the beat of the drum, they ran to their arms with a huzza; the officers having their swords drawn, and holding the point upwards.

To QUIT the Siege of a Place, (abandonner la Siege d'une Place, Fr.) to leave the different positions which have been taken for the purpose of reducing a garrison, in a fortified place, to the necessity of surrendering, or of stormsing it, and to withdraw the troops that have invested it.

QUITTANCE, Fr. receipt, acquittance.

QUITTANCE de finance, Fr. a term formerly used among the French, to express...
press any sum paid into the king's treasury, for an appointment or place.

QUITTER, Fr. to quit.

QUITTER l'épée, Fr. figuratively to leave the profession of arms.

QUIVER, a case for arrows.

QUI vive ? Fr. literally, who lives

QUI va là ? there? Who goes there?

QUI est là ? Who is there? Terms used by the French sentries when they challenge. They correspond with our word, Who comes there?

Etre sur le Qui vive, Fr. to be upon the alert.

QUI trop embrasse mal etreint, Fr. the man who undertakes too much, calculates badly. It literally signifies, he who embraces too much, binds or connects badly. This proverb is much used among the French, and comprehends a serious lesson to those would be great generals and officers, who falsely imagine, that military reputation consists in rank only.

A QUIZ. This cant word is frequently used as a substantive to describe a strange, out of the way character. It is a term of ridicule.

To QUIZ. A cant word much in use among fashionable bucks or blades, as certain creatures are called. It signifies to turn another into ridicule, by some allusion to his dress or manners, some ironical word or quaint expression. In other terms, to take unwarrantable liberties with the natural defects, or harmless habits, of offending individuals. This absurd and childish practice, (which grows out of ignorance, is supported by privileged assumption, and ought to be discouraged by every sensible man) has sometimes found its way into the British army. We need scarcely add, that it has frequently been the cause of the most serious quarrels, and is always contrary to good order and discipline. Commanding officers should, on all occasions, exert their authority, whenever there appears the least tendency to this unmanny, unofficer-like, and ungentleman-like custom. It ought constantly to be remembered, that the influence of evil is much stronger upon the commonalty of mankind, than that of good. If an officer suffer himself to be quizzed by a brother officer, he will, by degrees, become ridiculous to the soldiers; and if he resent it, as he ought to do in primo limine, by a manly explanation with the weak fool who attempts to be witty, without possessing one spark of real wit, it is more than probable, that much ill blood will be engendered between them. The Articles of War have, in some degree, provided against this evil. In Sect. VII. Art. I. it is there specifically stated, That no officer, non-commissioned officer, or soldier, shall use any reproachful or provoking speeches or gestures to another, upon pain, if an officer, of being put in arrest (or if a non-commissioned officer, or a soldier, of being imprisoned) and of asking pardon of the party offended, in the presence of his commanding officer.

A QUIZER, a creature who, without possessing any real wit or humour, affects to turn others into ridicule, by an insolent affectation of the talent. The thing is generally found among fashionable young men, which (to use a very common, yet a very appropriate expression) has more money than wit, plumes itself upon birth or connexion, and endeavours to make up by noise, turbulence, and privileged contradiction, what it wants in real knowledge and solid understanding. It is sometimes seen at a military mess, and about the periwigs of St. James's.

QUOIL, in gunnery, a rope laid round in a ring, one turn over another.

QUOINS, in architecture, denote the corners of brick or stone walls.

QUOIN, (coin, Fr.) a wedge used to lay under the breech of a gun, to raise or depress the metal.

QUOIT, the ancient discus—an olympic game, still practised in some parts of England. It consists in throwing a large iron ring, to a considerable distance, at an iron peg, driven into the ground.

QUOTIENT, in arithmetic, the number resulting from the division of a greater number by a smaller, and which shews how often the smaller, or the divisor, is contained in the greater or dividend.
RABINET, formerly a name given to a small sort of ordnance between a falconet and a base, about one inch and a half diameter in the bore, five feet six inches long, and 300 pounds in weight, loaded with six ounces of powder, and carrying a shot one inch and three-eighths in diameter.

RACHAT du pain, Fr. a certain pecuniary allowance which was made in the old French service, to the officers of each company for the surplus rations of ammunition bread that were left in the purveyor's hands. The same rule exists in our service, when troops are in camp or barracks.

RACINE, Fr. See Root.

RACLOIR, Fr. a scraper. It is used in the artillery to cleanse out mortars.

RACOLER, Fr. to entice men to enlist.

RACOLEUR, Fr. a crimp, a bringer of recruits, one who entices others to enlist. Men of this description are to be found in all countries where military establishments prevail.

RACORDEMENT, Fr. this word is derived from racorder, which, in French architecture, signifies to join two pieces of building on one surface, or to unite an old building with a new one.

RADE, Fr. road for ships to ride in; road for anchoring.

RADEAUX, Fr. rafters. They are frequently used in sieges, for the purpose of crossing ditches, &c. Chevalier Folard enters largely into the nature of these rafters, particularly in his 4th volume, page 67. See RAFP.

RADIOMETER, (radiomètre, Fr.) This instrument is sometimes called Jacob's staff, bâton de Jacob. It is used by some to take the sun's altitude, and by others to ascertain elevations at sea.

RADIUS, the semi-diameter of a circle. In fortification, the radius is distinguished into exterior, interior, oblique, and right radius. The three former are noticed each under its initial letter. The latter is a perpendicular line drawn from the center of a polygon to the exterior side.

RAFFINAGE, Fr. a term used by the French to express the operation through which saltpetre passes after it has been boiled once. The literal meaning is refinement; the act of cleansing any thing from recrementitious matter.

RAFFINER, Fr. to refine.

RAFFINOIR, Fr. a wooden cask, or copper vessel in which saltpetre is deposited after it has been boiled once. It usually remains thirty minutes, after which it is let out through a cock fixed for that purpose at the bottom of the vessel.

RAFRAICHIR, Fr. to cool; to spunge; as rafraichir le canon, to spunge a cannon.

RAFRAICHIR une place, Fr. to succour a place by sending in fresh troops and provisions.

RAFRAICHIR des troupes, Fr. to allow troops to repose; likewise to supply them with fresh provisions.

RAFRAICHISSEMENTS, Fr. This word literally signifies refreshments. It is used in a military sense among the French, for cantonments or quarters of repose, after troops have been much on service. It also means fresh stores and provisions for the army.

RAFT, or species of floating bridge, (radeaux, Fr.) a machine which is readily constructed, and is used for the passage of troops over rivers or ground that may be overflowed. It consists of a certain number of planks that are fastened together, and form a sort of flat deck or barge, upon which men and light artillery may be embarked.

Rafts are also used by miners, when the fosses are full, that they may be
able to carry on their works at the foot of the revetment belonging to the bastion, which they have directions to blow up.

M. Philipps made use of rafts with considerable advantage in 1743, when he enabled the Marquis du Châtelet to pass the river Isere, after he had been forced to evacuate Ingolingen, at the head of 1400 men. When Hannibal resolved to cross the Rhone, (a large river in France, which rises in Mount Fourche, on the confines of Switzerland, and falls by several mouths into the Mediterranean,) and found it expedient to take his elephants with him, he constructed a quantity of double rafts, and effected his purpose.

Rafts are preferable to boats or barges, on account of the ease with which they may be put together. The Swedes, who call these rafts prams, make use of them on every occasion, and they unite the several pieces by means of a frame. Chevalier Folard does not hesitate to give a preference to the rafts, over bridges constructed on boats. Yet the French author, from whose work we have extracted this article, expresses his doubt by saying, that a bridge of boats seems to him to be better calculated to resist the current of a rapid river, than any raft can possibly be. “Nevertheless,” continues the same author, “the opinion of such a man as Chevalier Folard is unquestionably great; and the example of Charles XII. of Sweden, who excelled in every sort of movement which was connected with the passage of rivers, &c. is still more powerful.”

The modern French are so convinced of the necessity of these constructions, (call them rafts, or pontoons, or by any other name,) that they have established two regular battalions, for the purpose of being employed on that specific service. In the last printed état militaire de l’empire, or imperial army list, we find the following distribution of a corps under the appellation of bataillon de pontonniers, or battalion of pontooners. These battalions are divided into first and second, and consist each of the following officers:

Chef de bataillon, commandant, or colonel commandant.

Quartier-Maitre Trésorier, or paymaster.

Adjudant-Major, or major.

Adjudant, adjutant.

Chirurgien Aide Major, assistant surgeon major.

Sous Aide Major, deputy assistant surgeon major.

8 Captains of companies belonging to the first class.

8 Ditto ditto belonging to the second class.

8 Lieutenants of the first class.

8 Ditto of the second class.

RAFTERS, (solieurs, chevrons, Fr.) are pieces of timber, which standing by pairs on the reason or raising-piece, meet in an angle at the top, and form the roof of a building.

It is a rule in building, that no rafters should stand farther than 12 inches from one another: and as to their sizes and scantlings, it is provided by act of parliament, that principal rafters, from 12 feet 6 inches to 14 feet 6 inches long, be 5 inches broad at the top, and 8 at the bottom, and 6 inches thick: those from 14 feet 6 inches to 18 feet 6 inches long, to be 9 inches broad at the foot, 7 inches at the top, and 7 inches thick: and those from 18 feet 6 inches, to 21 feet 6 inches, to be 10 inches broad at the foot, 8 at the top, and 8 thick.—Single rafters, 7 feet in length, must have 4½ inches, and 3½ in their square. Those of 9 feet long, must be 5, and 4 inches square.

RAGÉ-PUTES, Fr. Indian soldiers, who, during the days of the Emperor Tamerlane, were supposed to be invincible. According to F. Catrou, a French writer, the Raspoutes and Rageputes mean the same people.

RAJAI, Ind. This word means king. The Rajahs are generally tributary to the Mogul, but are suffered to follow their own modes of government.

RAJAPOOTES, Ind. a tribe of Hindoos, but of various denominations. They are soldiers by profession, and the most warlike of the Hindoos. They rank next to the Bramins. See Orme’s history of the Carminic, pages 6, and 40.

RAIF, Fr. properly means a seam, furrow, streak.

RAINURE, Fr. a groove.

RAIS, Fr. a spoke of a wheel.

To RAISE Troops. See LEVY.

To RAISE a plan of a fortress, is to measure.
measure with cords and geometrical instruments, the length of the lines, and the capacity of the angles, that by knowing the length, breadth, and thickness of all the different parts of a fortification, it may be represented upon paper, so as to find out its advantages and disadvantages.

RAISON, Fr. This word is used by the French, in a mathematical sense, to express the relation which one number has to another, and, in general, that which exists between one quantity and another. The term is distinguished into raison arithmetique, or arithmetical reasoning; and raison geometrique, or geometrical reasoning. French carpenters likewise use the term, to shew that pieces of wood, &c. are properly laid, viz. Des pieces de bois en leur raison.

RAILLEMENT, Fr. rallying point. It is sometimes written raliment.

Mot de Rallement, Fr. a word or countersign, which is given to out-posts, and to sentries that are stationed beyond the lines.

Point de Ralllement, Fr. the rallying point; any spot particularly marked out, to which troops are directed to repair in cases of discouragement or surprise.

RALLUMER, Fr. to light up again, to rekindle, to renew.

RALLY, one of the bugle horn soundings.

To RALLY, (Rallier, Fr.) to bring troops back to order that have been dispersed.

RALLYING, in war, re-establishing, or forming together again, troops broken and put to flight.

To RAM, to drive with violence, as with a battering ram.

To RAM down, to force any thing downwards, or to fill with any thing driven hard together, as in the charge of fire-arms.

Ram down Cartridge, a word of command which is used in the platoon exercise. See Manuel.

Battering Ram, in antiquity, a military engine used to batter and beat down the walls of places besieged.

The battering ram was of two sorts, the one rude and plain, the other compound. The former seems to have been no more than a great beam, which the soldiers bore on their arms and shoulders, and with one end of it, by main force, assailed the walls. The compound ram is thus described by Josephus: it is a vast beam, like the mast of a ship, strengthened at one end with a head of iron, something resembling that of a ram, whence it took its name. This was hung by the middle with ropes to another beam, which lay across two posts, and hanging thus equally balanced, it was by a great number of men drawn backwards and pushed forwards, striking the wall with its iron head.

Plutarch informs us, that Mark Anthony, in the Parthian war, made use of a ram 80 feet long; and Vitruvius tells us, that they were sometimes 106, and 120 feet long: to this perhaps the force and strength of the engine was in a great measure owing. The ram at one time was managed by a whole century of soldiers; and they, being exhausted, were seconded by another century; so that it played continually, and without any intermission.

The momentum of a battering ram 28 inches in diameter, 180 feet long, with a head of cast iron of one tun and a half, the whole ram, with its iron hoops, &c. weighing 41,112 pounds, and moving by the united strength of 1000 men, will be only equal to that of a ball of 36 pounds, when shot point blank from a cannon.

RAMADAN, Fr. a month so called among the Turks, during which period they observe fast days.

RAMASSE, Fr. a sort of sledge, in which travellers are conveyed from the tops of mountains that are covered with snow.

RAMASSER, Fr. to collect, to get together. On a ramassé tout ce qu'on a pu trouver de soldats; they got as many soldiers together as they could.

RAMASSE, Fr. gathered together, collected. This word is likewise used to distinguish men that are hastily raised and embodied, from soldiers who have been regularly disciplined, viz.—Ce ne sont pas des troupes régulées, ce sont des gens ramassés; they are not regular troops, but persons hastily got together.

RAMASSÉ, Fr. strong, vigorous. Un homme ramassé; a strong athletic man. Ramassé, in this sense, agrees with the English word tight-built, thick-set, &c.
RAMAZAN. See Ramadan.
RAMBERGE, Fr. an advice boat.
RAME, Fr. an oar. It is likewise called Aevron.
Balle Ramée, Fr. cross-bar shot.
rameaux de la mine, Fr. branches belonging to a mine. See Gallery.
RAMMER, an instrument used for driving down stones or piles into the ground in military works; or for beating the earth, in order to render it more solid for a foundation.
Ramm', or Ramrod of a Gun, the ramrod or gun-stick; a rod used in charging a gun, to drive home the powder and shot, as also the wad, which keeps the shot from rolling out. The rammer of a piece of artillery, is a cylinder of wood, whose diameter and length are each equal to the diameter of the shot, with a handle fixed to it, at the end of which is another cylinder, covered with lamb-skin, so as to fit the gun exactly, and called a sponge: it is used to clean the piece before and after it is fired. The ramrod of a musquet is one entire piece of iron. The ramrod was formerly called scowrer.
RAMNENSIS, one of the three mounted centuries or centuries which were formed by Romulus. They retained the appellation of the three first tribes, consisting of the Ramnusians, the Tatians, and the Luceres.
RAMPART, (Rampert, rampier, Fr.) an elevated piece of ground, or a great massy lump of earth raised about a place to resist the enemy's great shot, and cover the buildings. A parapet is raised upon this bank or elevation which looks towards the country. It is generally about three fathom high, and ten or twelve thick; but this depends upon the quantity of earth which may be taken out of the ditch, and cannot be otherwise disposed of. A rampart with half moons has advantages from being low, because the musquets of the besieged can better reach the bottom of the ditch; but care must be taken, that it is not commanded by the covert-way. A rampart ought to be sloped on both sides; that is, the mass of earth which composes the rampart, ought always to be larger at bottom than at top; more or less so, according to the nature of the earth: it should be broad enough to allow the passing of wagons and cannon, independent of the parapet which is raised on it. As the earth, of which the rampart is composed, is taken from the outside of it (because by so doing the rampart and the fosse are made at the same time), it follows, that their several proportions must depend upon one another; for since the rampart is made of a certain size, the fosse must be dug deep enough to supply earth for the rampart, the parapet, and the esplanade. Sentinels are regularly distributed round the ramparts, and pieces of heavy ordnance are planted, at given distances, for the protection of the place.
RAMPE ou Pare extrêmenm ent douce qu'ont fait le long des talus des ramparts, Fr. a slope, or declivity, which is extremely gradual along the talus of ramparts. These slopes contain two toises in breadth, and are cut upon the interior talus. They are made, according to circumstances and the exigencies of the place, sometimes within the angle of the rampart, opposite to the entrance into the bastion, when the latter is full; sometimes along the flanks, or at the flanked angle when the bastion is empty. Pieces of ordnance, ammunition, &c. are conveyed up these slopes to the embrasures of the ramparts.
RAMPS, (Rampes, Fr.) in fortification, are sloping communications, or ways of very gentle ascent, leading from the inward area, or lower part of a work, to the rampart or higher part of it.
Return RAMROD. See Platoon Exercise under Manual.
RAMS-HORNS, in fortification, are a kind of low works made in the ditch, of a circular arc; they were invented by M. Belidor, and serve instead of tennails.
RANCHER, Fr. a sort of ladder which is made of wooden pegs, and is used on various occasions.
RANCON, Fr. ransom. It was likewise the name of an old French weapon, consisting of a long stake with a sharp iron point at the end, and two blades or wings bent backwards, and extremely keen.
RANÇONNER, Fr. to ransom.
RANDOM SHOT, in artillery, when the piece is elevated at an angle of 45 degrees upon a level plane. See Range.
RANG, Fr. rank.
RANG d'un escadron ou d'un bataillon, Fr. rank in a squadron of horse, or battalion of infantry. Any straight line which is formed by soldiers standing on the side of each other, is so called.

Doubler les Rangs, Fr. to form rank entire, or to throw two ranks into one, and thereby diminish the depth of any given number of men, by extending their front. Hence to double up, or extend the front of any leading line.

Rang, Fr. the relative rank which is observed in military corps with regard to precedence, tour of duty, &c. In some instances rang et grade mean the same thing.

De Rang, Fr. a-breast, side by side.

Paroi sur les Rangs, Fr. to enter the list.

Etre sur les Rangs, Fr. to be numbered amongst any particular set of men.

Mettre au Rang, Fr. to class with, to associate.

Vaisseau du premier Rang, Fr. a first rate ship of war.

Vaisseau du second, ou troisième Rang, Fr. a second or third rate.

Placer par Rang de taille, Fr. to size.

RANGE, in gunnery, the distance from the battery to the point where the shot or shell touches the ground.

Point-blank Range. When the piece lies in a horizontal direction, and upon a level plane, without any elevation or depression, the shot is said to take a point-blank range. See Point-blank.

RANGÉ, Fr. the participle of Ranger, drawn out or placed in regular order.

RANGÉE, Fr. a series of things placed upon the same line.

Bataille Rangée, Fr. a pitched or set battle, in which two armies are drawn up opposite to one another.

RANGER, Fr. to place in a certain line or order.

Ranger, Fr. to place under. The French say, Ranger sous sa domination, &c. to place a town or province under one's own government, or to make it subservient to one's own laws.

Ranger en ordre de bataille, Fr. to place in order of battle; to dispose troops for action.

Ranger la côte, Fr. to sail along the coast.

RANGEZ vous, Fr. a term in general use among the French when any number of persons are ordered to clear the way, by drawing up on one side or the other of a street or road.

RANGING, in war, disposing the troops in proper order for an engagement, manoeuvres, or march, &c.

RANK, range of subordination; degree of dignity; the relative situations which officers hold with respect to each other, or to military things in general. Hence regimental rank, local rank, rank in the army, &c.

By an order from the king, the officers belonging to the life guards are entitled to the rank of lieutenant colonel, when they obtain, or purchase a majority, provided they have been seven years. Their commissions in this case run major and lieutenant colonel. But if an officer should not have completed either of those periods, he obtains the rank of major only, until its completion. A lieutenant colonel receives the rank of full colonel if he has been seven years major, or twenty-one years in the British service. Cornets in the Life Guards rank as sub-lieutenants in their own corps, and as first lieutenants in the army. The English fuzileers enjoy the same privilege. Sub-lieutenants in the Welsh fuzileers rank only as second lieutenants in the army. Marines do the same.

With respect to rank in general, the following are the rules (as published by authority) by which the relative rank of the officers of His Majesty's regular forces, militia, fencibles, yeomanry cavalry, and volunteer corps, is to be determined.

Officers of the regular forces command the officers of equal degree, belonging to the other services; with the exception after-mentioned:

Officers of the militia, fencibles, yeomanry cavalry, and volunteer corps, rank together, according to the dates of their respective commissions.

Notwithstanding the regulation contained in the two preceding articles, such officers of fencibles as have commissions dated on or before the 25th of July, 1798, continue to rank with the officers of the regular forces of equal degree, according to the dates of their respective commissions: unless when
acting in conjunction also with officers of the militia; in which case, if the commission of the fencible officer be of a junior date to that of the militia officer, of the same degree, the regular officer of equal rank, although his commission be of a junior date to that of the fencible officer, commands both.


It will further be observed, that all commands in the regular forces fall to the eldest officers in the same circumstances, whether of cavalry or infantry, entire or in parties. In case two commissions of the same date interfere, a retrospect is to be had to former commissions. Should it happen, as it possibly may, that the original commissions interfere, the seniority of the corps, we presume, must determine the precedence of command; and if the officers belong to one corps, it must be decided by lot.

In page 49 of the Articles of War it is laid down, that the eldest officer is to command when any troops of the horse guards, and the regiment of horse guards, shall do duty together; or when any of the life guards, horse or foot guards, shall do duty with any other corps. The regiments of life guards, doing duty unmixed, are to be considered as one corps; and the officers are to take rank according to the dates of their commissions. The same holds good with respect to the foot guards. Regular officers with whom militia officers take rank as youngest, command officers of equal degree in the fencibles, yeomanry cavalry, and volunteer corps, who are to rank together according to the dates of commissions.

To Rank with, to hold the same relative situation with regard to others.—Thus post captains of three years standing in the royal navy rank with colonels in the army; and lieutenants in the guards rank with captains in the line or regulars. Officers in the militia, rank generally with the regular forces as junior of their respective commissions. An ensign in the guards ranks no higher than an ensign in the regulars.

To Rank with, in a figurative sense, to be in equal estimation, to bear the same character for skill and valour, &c.

viz. Lord Nelson ranks with the bravest seaman that England, or any other country, has ever produced; Bonaparte with the greatest general in ancient or modern history, at least with, respect to good fortune.

Brevet Rank, rank without pay, nominal distinction, which sometimes entitles the holder of it to command in mixed service. The brevet rank in the militia is confined to the colonels and adjutants of the several corps in that establishment. The former receive the brevet rank of colonels in the army whilst actually embodied for service, and command all lieutenant colonels in the line when they do duty together. Adjutants in the militia may have the brevet rank of captain, provided they have served five years as lieutenants in the militia, or in other forces on the British establishment. In the line, an adjutant, who has the rank of captain, may command as such when there is no superior officer on the parade, or for duty. This is not the case in the militia. No adjutant, let his brevet rank of captain be ever so ancient, can command the youngest captain of a company. The same difference prevails with respect to the captain-lieutenany; which is literally brevet rank. In the regulars, a captain-lieutenant, the instant he is promoted to a company, takes rank according to the date of his first commission, and as we have observed, may be major by brevet; but no captain-lieutenant can ever stand himself of that seniority to the prejudice of a captain of a company in the militia; nor can an officer in the latter establishment take advantage of his standing, when he quits one regiment to serve in another, even in time of war, although he may have the requisite qualifications in both counties.

Brigade majors rank with captains, provided they have that rank in the army, independent of their staff appointment. But aids-de-camp do not possess any rank in that capacity with regard to the army. The latter constitute a part of the general’s family, and are paid out of his allowance; they are in fact the mere carriers of his orders in the field, and his domestic inmates at home, &c. The former belong to the brigade, and are a necessary part of its
Effective force. It has been judiciously ordained, that both the one and the other should be regular officers.

There is likewise a sort of brevet rank which exists in the several regiments belonging to the British service, and is confined to the rank and file, or corporals and private soldiers. Thus a lance serjeant is a corporal who does the duty of serjeant without the pay or emoluments of the latter; and a lance corporal is a private soldier who does the duty of corporal. So that lance, which comes from lansquenet, and ought therefore to be written lans-serjeant, &c. is the abbreviation of that word, which signifies a private soldier, and is derived from the German; and when put before serjeant or corporal, points out, that a private soldier has the brevet rank of one of those situations. Captains of companies appoint or reduce lance-serjeants or corporals, according to their judgment.

Rank and Precedence in the army and navy, are as follows:

Engineers' Rank. Chief, as colonel; director, as lieutenant-colonel; sub-director, as major; engineer in ordinary, as captain; engineer extraordinary, as captain lieutenant; sub-engineer, as lieutenant; practitioner-engineer, as ensign.

Navy Rank. Admiral, or commander in chief of his Majesty's fleet, has the rank of a field marshal; admirals, with their flags on the main-top-masthead, rank with generals of horse and foot; vice-admirals, with lieutenant-generals; rear-admirals, as major-generals; commodores, with broad pendants, as brigadier-generals; captains of post ships, after three years from the date of their first commission, as colonels; other captains, as commanding post ships, as lieutenant colonels; captains not taking post, as majors; lieutenants, as captains.

Court Rank, the rank of precedence which the British Guards enjoy over the line of the marching army, is so called, by the author of an ingenious pamphlet, entitled, Prevailing Abuses in the British Army.

Rank is a straight line made by the soldiers of a battalion, or squadron, drawn up side by side: this order was established for the marches, and for regulating the different bodies of troops and officers which compose an army.

Doubling of the Ranks, is the placing two ranks in one, which is frequently done in the manoeuvres of a regiment.

Rank and File, men carrying the firelock, and standing in the ranks, are called rank and file. Thus corporals are included in the return which is made under that head.

Ranks and Files, are the horizontal and vertical lines of soldiers when drawn up for service, &c.

Rapé, Fr. a rasp, a file.

Rapides, Fr. Falls in a river are so called; as the falls in the river St. Laurence, &c.

Rapier, (Rapière, Fr.) formerly signified a long, old-fashioned broad-sword, such as those worn by the Scotch regiments; but now is understood only to mean a small sword, in contradistinction to a broad sword.

Rapine, Fr. rapine, plunder.

Rappareiller, Fr. to set sail again.

Rappeler, Fr. to call back or to assemble. This is done by a particular beat of drum, when soldiers are directed to repair to their colours.

Rapport, Fr. report.

Rappor, Fr. in mathematics, a term frequently used among the French. It bears the same import as raison, and signifies the relation which two quantities have one with another. Thus the rapport or relation between twelve and six is the same as between six and three.

Rapporteur, Fr. in geometry, an instrument made in the figure of a half circle, and divided into one hundred and eighty degrees. It is used for the purpose of ascertaining the openings in angles, and to take plans upon paper.

Rarefaction, the extension of the parts of a body, by which it is made to take up more room than it did before. It is essentially connected with gurnery; for in proportion to the rapid combustion and consequent rarefaction of air, produced by the ignition of gunpowder confined in the chamber of a gun, so will be the force of expulsion with which the charge is propelled.

Ras, Fr. Every barge and vessel, &c. which is without any deck or upper ward
ward covering, is called by the French bateaux, or batiment ras.

RASANTE, Fr. See Ligne rasante.

RASANT, in fortification, rasant

RAZANT, flanks, or line, is that part of the curtain or flank whence the shot projected rase or glance along the surface of the opposite bastion.

BASE, Fr. pitch and tar mixed with tow for the purpose of caking a ship.

BASE-campagne, Fr. open field.

RASER une place, Fr. to demolish the fortifications of a town or place. This is often done by mutual compact between contending powers; but more frequently on the principles of retaliation, or by the effect of bombardment. Hence, Raser les fortifications à coups de canon, to batter or demolish the fortifications by cannon shot, or by the discharge of ordnance.

RASLE, Fr. This word is used in some parts of France to signify rafter, and means the same as chevron.

RASPOTUTE, Fr. Father Catrou, the Jesuit, in his history of the Mogul, confounds this word with rase-puge. They probably both mean the same as Rajapoot, which see.

RASSEMBLER, Fr. to collect together.

RASSEMBLER des troupes, Fr. to call troops or forces together.

RASSEMBLER les débris d'une armée, Fr. to collect together the broken parts, or scattered remnants of an army. It is likewise used with the personal pronoun, viz. Tous ses soldats dispersés se rassemblèrent autour du drapeau, all the soldiers or troops that had been dispersed, gathered together round the standard or colours.

RASSEMBLER les forces d'un cheval, to put a horse well upon his haunches.

RASSIÉGER, Fr. to besiege again.

RASSIS, Fr. stale; as pain rassis, stale bread.

RASSURER, Fr. to restore confidence; to encourage; to invigorate.—Quelques soldats commencent à s'ébranler, quand l'exemple de leur capitaine les rassura, some soldiers began to give way, when the example of their captain inspired them with fresh confidence.

RAT, Fr. literally means rat. It is used in a figurative sense, viz. Une arme à feu a pris un rat, a musket has missed fire.

RAT, Fr. a sort of floating platform made of planks which are tied together upon two or three masts. It is used in caking ships, &c.

RATAN, a cane used by serjeants of companies, &c. in drilling the men, and with which, in other countries, the non-commissioned officers, and privates, are corrected for slight offences.

RATELIER, Fr. a rack used in armours, &c. for the purpose of keeping fire arms arranged in proper order.

RATER, Fr. to snap, to flash in the pan, to miss fire. Son pistolet a raté, his pistol has missed fire.

RATER likewise means, figuratively, to be unsuccessful in an application.—Il a raté sa charge, he did not get the commission.

RATES of Subsistence. See PAY.

RATIFICATION, (Ratification, Fr.) the act of ratifying or confirming. Thus all treaties which are made between contracting parties, whether sovereigns or generals possessing full powers to execute, can never be valid until the ratification of each treaty has been reciprocally exchanged.

To RATIFY, (Ratifier, Fr.) to confirm; to render binding.

RATION, a certain allowance which is given in bread, &c. or forage, when troops are on service,—for an officer or soldier.

Complete Ration of the small Species.
Flour, or bread - - 1½ lbs.
Beef - - - 1
Or pork - - - ¼
Peas - - - ½ pint.
Butter, or cheese - - 1 oz.
Rice - - 1 oz.

When the small species are not issued, 1½ lbs. of flour or bread, with 1½ lbs. of beef, or 10 oz. of pork, forms a complete ration: or 3 lbs. of beef; or 2 lbs. of cheese; or half a pound of rice, forms a complete ration.

The deductions to be taken for provisions from the pay of officers, non-commissioned officers, or men, are the same for all ranks, and in all corps, under the like circumstances of service, when serving out of Great Britain, on stations where provisions are supplied by the public: also, when embarked in transports or other vessels (except when serving as marines); also, when prisoners of war are maintained at the expense of
of Great Britain; also, when in general hospitals, whether at home or abroad, a deduction of sixpence per day.

A deduction of three-pence halfpenny from the pay of every non-commissioned officer and private in Jamaica, in New South Wales, or Gibraltar. Non-commissioned officers and soldiers serving as marines, shall not be liable to any deduction from their full pay on account of provisions.

Ration for a horse on home service in 1796:—14 lbs. of hay, 10 lbs. of oats, 4 lbs. of straw; for which a stoppage is made of sixpence.

The French use the same term, viz. Ration de joût, a ration of hay. Double ration, double ration. Demi ration, a half ration.

Ration d'un fantassin, Fr. the ration or allowance which is given to a foot soldier. During the French monarchy it consisted of 24 ounces of ammunition bread, one pint of wine or beer, Paris measure, one pound of beef, veal, or mutton.

Ration pour les troupe de la maison du roi, Fr. the ration for the household troops, during the French monarchy, consisted of two brown loaves of twenty-two ounces each, two pints of wine, or two pints of cider or beer, Paris measure, and two pounds and a half of beef, veal, or mutton.

Ration de cavalerie, Fr. Each man belonging to the old French cavalry, received, daily, one ration, consisting of thirty-six French ounces of ammunition bread, one pint and a half of wine, cider, or beer, Paris measure, and two pounds of beef, veal, or mutton.

Ration de dragons, Fr. the ration allowed to each dragoon in the old French service, consisted of twenty-four French ounces of ammunition bread, one pound and a half of meat, one pint of wine, Paris measure, or one pot of cider or beer, ditto.

Ration de fourrage, Fr. A ration of forage in the old French service, consisted of one pound of hay, and one bushel of oats, Paris measure.

Rations des officiers du régiment des gardes Francoises, Fr. Rations allowed in a regiment of French guards during the monarchy. These rations differed very considerably from those already stated. The particulars may be found in the third volume of the Dictionnaire Militaire, page 255.

RATISSOIRS, Fr. graters used by the men employed in making saltpetre.

To RAVAGE, (Rouger, Fr.) to do all the mischief one can in a country by force of arms, or other ways.

Ravages of War, the spoil, plunder, or waste, made by contending armies in the theatre of war.

RAVELIN, Fr. See Fortification.

RAVELINS, in fortification, are works raised on the counterscarp before the curtain of the place, and serve to cover the gates of a town, and the bridges. They consist of two faces, forming a salient angle, and are defended by the faces of the neighbouring bastions. They are the most in use of all out-works, and are by the soldiers most commonly called half moons, or demi-lunes. They should be lower than the works of the place, that they may be under the fire of the besieged. Their parapets, as those of all out-works, should be cannon proof; that is, about 18 feet thick.

RAVIN, Fr. a hollow road; a broken pass, &c.

RAVINE, in field fortification, a deep hollow, usually formed by a great flood, or long continued running of water; frequently turned to advantage in the field.

RAVITAILLER une place, Fr. to throw stones, ammunition, and provisions into a fortified place.

RAY. See ARRAY.

RAYE, Fr. rifled.

Canon Rayé, Fr. rifle barrel.

RAYON, Fr. in geometry, Radius.

RAW, in a military sense, unseasoned, unripe in skill, wanting knowledge in military tactics, &c.

Raw troops, unexperienced soldiers; men who have been little accustomed to the use of arms. This term is generally used in opposition to veteran troops. A cool and wise general will always know how to make the most of that part of his army which is composed of raw troops; and a rash, intemperate one will equally miss the proper application of the spirit and manhood, which ignorance of danger, and confidence of success, almost always give. Some of the most brilliant actions,
actions, and some of the greatest victories have been achieved and won by means of that daring impetuosity, which hurried raw troops into the thickest of an enemy. A thousand instances might be adduced from ancient and modern history, to prove the correctness of this remark. It may, perhaps, be sufficient for our purpose, to refer the curious reader to the bold and unexampled charge which was made against the French troops in Germany, by Elliot's new raised light horse. The laurels of Emsdorf are still the glory of the 15th regiment of dragoons, and every man who has the honour of belonging to this distinguished corps, looks back, with a spirit of exalted emulation, at the recorded valour of their raw and inexperienced predecessors. 

RAZED, any works or fortifications when demolished, are said to be razed.

READINESS, (promptitude, Fr.) a state of alertness; a promptitude for action. 

To hold one's self in Readiness, to be prepared, in consequence of some previous order, to march at a moment's notice.

READY, a word of command in platoon firing, being a contraction of Make Ready.—See Manual.

Ready, (préparé, Fr.) prepared; prompt, or inclined to.

To make Ready, to prepare. In the platoon exercise, as well as in all other firings by battalion or companies, &c. to take the first posture or position for firing.

REAFAN, (étendard royal des Danois, Fr.) the royal banner or flag of the Danes; so called from a raven embroidered upon it by King Ladebroke's daughter.

RÉALE, (Fr. the largest or Galere Réal, Fr.) principal galley used in Catholic countries, is so called. The first galley belonging to the pope is called Réale, because it takes precedence of all vessels, in the service of the different Roman Catholic powers.

REAR, in a general acceptation, any thing situated or placed behind another. The term is variously used in military matters, viz.

REAR of an army, signifies in general the hindermost part of an army, battalion, regiment, squadron, or company, &c. Generally the third component part of a large body of forces, which consists of an advanced guard, a main body and a rear guard.

REAR guard, a certain proportion of an army or regiment, which acts, in various capacities, according to circumstances, and the extent of military operations. The rear guard of an army is often the reserve, &c. The rear guard of a regiment is usually appointed for the purpose of picking up stragglers, &c. The old grand guards of the camp, always form the rear-guard of the army, and are to see that everything comes safe to the new camp.—See Guard.

REAR-line, of an army encamped, is always 1200 feet at least from the center line; both of which run parallel to the front line, as also to the reserve.

REAR rank. When a regiment, troop, or company is drawn up two or three deep, the last line of men is called the rear rank.

REAR-ranks, all the ranks of a line, regiment, troop, or company, which are ranged in order behind the front rank. When troops are drawn up three deep, the second rank is called center rank.

REAR rank take open order, a word of command which is given in the manual and other parade exercises. It is likewise used in marching by the general at a review, or on guard mounting, &c. See Open Order.

REAR-half-files, are the three hindermost ranks of the battalion, when it is drawn up six deep.

REAR front. When a battalion, troop, or company, is faced about, and stands in that position, it is then said to be rear front. It sometimes happens, that through oversight, forgetfulness, or ignorance and confusion, troops are so clubbed, that, on the deployment of a column, the different troops and companies not only lose their stations in the line of original formation, but the rear-rank men stand where the front-rank men ought to be; in the latter case, they appear rear-front. This error might be easily remedied, by counter-marching the several troops or companies.

REAR rank lengthening out a line. It is observed in Part the IVth of the Rules
Rules and Regulations, that although a single battalion may, by opening its companies and files, from 3 deep form 2 deep, by introducing its rear rank into the other two, yet a considerable line posted, which is to be lengthened out to one or both flanks by its rear rank, must, to greater advantage, perform such operation, by each company wheeling the subdivisions of its rear rank backward, and facing to the hand they are to march to; the last rank of each company closes up to its first; the subdivisions of each battalion move up to open distances from their respective head ones, and from each other; officers from the rear are appointed to command them; those of each, or of every two battalions, being considered as a battalion, they march on in column, and prolong the line. By this mode of lengthening out the line, the two front ranks remain undisturbed, and they protect the movement which is made unseen behind them.

REARWARD, the last troop or company.

REBEWAR, Ind. Sunday.

REBEL, any guilty of rebellion.

REBELLION, a traitorous taking up of arms against the king by his own natural subjects, or those formerly subdued.

REBOUND, the act of flying back in consequence of motion impressed and resisted by a greater power.

Le REBUT, Fr. the refuse, the scum, &c.

Le REBUT du peuple, Fr. the refuse, the dregs of the people.

RECEIPT (Bon, Fr.) a voucher, given or taken for any thing received or given. Soldiers who cannot write subscribe their marks; in which cases the pay-serjeants, or some trusty persons, witness the signature. Captains of troops and companies should be particularly minute on this head, as illiterate minds are naturally full of suspicion, and, in many instances, soldiers have been found unprincipled enough to deny their marks.

To RECEIVE, in a military sense, to wait the approach of a friend or foe.

To RECEIVE an enemy, to make the best disposition possible of your troops, for the purpose of meeting the attack of an enemy that is advancing against you.

To RECEIVE a general or reviewing officer, to be drawn up according to regulations which are laid down, for the purpose of paying the compliments that are due to the rank of a superior, or commanding officer. For the method in which a general is to be received by all cavalry corps and infantry regiments on the British establishment, See Cavalry Regulations, pages 306 and 307, and Rules and Regulations for the British Infantry, pages 253 and 254.

RÉCEPTION d'un officier dans un corps, Fr. a ceremony which was performed in the old French service, when an officer first joined. This was done by beat of drum in front of the company. The officer, being dressed, accoutred, and armed, according to regulation, faced towards his men, and as soon as the drums had ceased, took off his hat to his commanding officer, who did the same to him, addressing the company in the following terms:—

De par le roi. Soldats, vous reconnaîtrez Mon capitaine, ou pour lieutenant, de la compagnie, et vous lui obéirez en tout ce qu'il vous ordonnera pour le service du roi, en cette qualité.

From the king! or pursuant to the king's will.—Soldiers, you will acknowledge M.... to be captain, or lieutenant, of the company, and you will obey whatever orders or commands he may issue, in that capacity, for the good of the king's service.

When a colonel or major was received at the head of a corps, the word soldats, soldiers, was altered into messieurs, gentlemen; the latter term including both officers and men. On this occasion, the corps of captains and subalterns formed a circle; round them stood the serjeants drawn up in the same manner, and beyond the serjeants, the drummers, &c. The different circles being concentrical to each other. The field officer, who was to be admitted or to take command, stood in the center of the whole, surrounded by the principal officers of the regiment.

RECETTE, Fr. a trough, which persons employed in preparing saltpetre, &c. place beneath tubs filled with broken rubbish, ashes, &c. for the purpose of
of receiving the liquid that is filtered through.

RECHANGE, Fr. reserved; kept for occasional need; in store; hence des armes de Rechange, arms kept in store.

RECHANGE, a renewal of the charge or attack.

RECHANGE d'arme à feu, Fr. a second charge or loading of a fire-arm immediately after the first has been fired. In proportion as these charges increase, the quantity of powder is lessened; and when the piece has been fired ten or twelve times successively, it must be cooled or refreshed.

RECHAUD, Fr. a chaffing dish, or pan used for various purposes, particularly during a siege. They are filled with burning materials, and hung in different parts of the walls, so as to throw light into the ditches, and to prevent surprises.

RECHERCHER, Fr. to seek after; to court: hence rechercher l'alliance d'un Prince, ou d'une nation par des voies honnêtes, et non par la corruption; to seek or court the alliance of a prince, or of a nation, in a fair and open manner, without having recourse to the base tricks of corruption.

RECHUTE, Fr. literally means a second fall; but in fortification it signifies a greater elevation of the rampart in those spots where it is likely to be commanded.

RÉCIF, Fr. note or voucher given for a deposit.

RÉCIPERE ferrum, to receive the weapon or sword. This expression signified, among the ancient Romans, the sentence of death which was pronounced, by the people, against a vanquished gladiator. The instant he fell under it, he voluntarily exposed his chest to have the dagger plunged into him.

RÉCIPANGLE, Fr. recipient angle. A geometrical instrument, which is much used among the French, for taking the quantities of angles, especially in drawing plans of fortifications. It consists of two moveable rules, made in the shape of a semi-circle, which is divided into 180 degrees.

RÉCIPENDAIRE, Fr. one who offers himself for any office or appointment.

RECOGNISER, an old term, used by some English military writers, signifying reconnoitring, which see.

RECOIL, (reculer, Fr.) a falling back. The retrograde motion made by any piece of fire arms on being discharged, which is a consequence of the raked air pressing on all sides, in order to expand itself with freedom. This term is generally applicable to fire-arms, especially to pieces of ordnance, which are always subject to a recoil, according to the sizes and the charge they contain, &c. Guns, whose vents are a little forward in the chase, recoil most. To lessen the recoil of a gun, the platforms are generally made sloping towards the embrasures of the battery.

To Recoil, (reculer, Fr.) to fall back, to run back in consequence of resistance or repercussion.

The following particulars are extracted from the Little Bombardier, page 184.

**RECOIL of Field Guns on Travelling Carriages, on Elm Planks.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature</th>
<th>1 Shot, at 1° 30' Elevation</th>
<th>2 Shot, at 1° 30' Elevation</th>
<th>Case Shot, at 3° 45' Elevation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 Pr. Med.</td>
<td>4 — 12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Pr. Heavy</td>
<td>2 — 7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Pr. Light</td>
<td>1 — 13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Prs. Heavy</td>
<td>1 — 3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Recoll of Land Service Iron Mortars, on Iron Beds.

Fr. In.
18-Inch, with a charge of 6 lbs. — 4 2\frac{1}{2}.
10-Inch, ————- 3 lbs. — 2 10.
8-Inch, ————- 1 lb. 9 oz. — 3 10.

RECOLLECTION, a mode of thinking, whereby those ideas sought after by the mind, are brought again to view. A retentive memory, and a cool collected presence of mind, are necessary qualities in every good officer; and military men should often exercise the faculty of thinking, in order to become instantly familiar with what they have formerly studied, and occasionally practised. For memory, like everything else, acquires strength, and is increased by cultivation. Memoria, ut in caeteris rebus, colendo augetur.

Necessary RECOLLECTIONS for the exercise of a battalion, as laid down in the Rules and Regulations, page 85.

It appears, that the front of any division or body is, in ordinary paces of 30 inches, nearly 3-4ths of the number of files of which it is composed.—That the circumference of the quarter circle which it describes, is in wheeling paces of 33 inches, the same as the number of files of which it is composed.—That the number of files being once ascertained in each division, the officer commanding it must, on all occasions, recollect the number of paces that are equal to his front; also the number of wheeling paces which the flank man must take to complete the quarter circle; also the spare time, which he has to regulate the halt, march, of his division after wheeling.

The field officers and adjutants must always recollect the number of paces the front of the battalion and its divisions occupy, in order to take up ground exactly in all formations.

To RECOMMEND. When a young gentleman wishes to enter into the British army, his first object should be to get well recommended for that purpose. It is a regulation, that none under the rank of field officer in the regulars, can recommend a person so circumstanced. He must state, that from his own personal knowledge, he believes the young candidate to be perfectly qualified to hold a commission in his Majesty's service. The person who recommends is responsible to the commander in chief for the character and situation of the candidate.

RECOMMENDATION, in a military sense, a certificate, stating an individual to be properly qualified for a situation in the army. This certificate must be signed by a field officer in the regulars, addressed to the commanding officer of the regiment, by whom it is forwarded to the commander in chief, who lays the name of the person recommended before the king.

Book of Recommendation, a book of entry which is kept in public offices, and by army agents, for the insertion of the names of such officers, or candidates for commissions, as have been recommended to the commander in chief for his Majesty's approbation.

RECOMPENSES militaires, Fr. See Military Rewards.

RECONNOISSANCE, Fr. the act of reconnoitering. See RECONNOITRE.

RECONNOITRE, Fr. to reconnoitre.

RECONNOITRE une place, Fr. to reconnoitre a fortified town or place.

RECONNOITRE, in military affairs, implies to view and examine the state of things, in order to make a report thereof.

Parties ordered to reconnoitre, are to observe the country and the enemy; to remark the routes, conveniences, and inconveniences of the first; the position, march, or forces of the second. In either case, they should have an expert geographer, capable of taking plans readily: he should be the best mounted of the whole, that in case the enemy happen to scatter the escorte, he may save his works and ideas.

All parties that go for reconnoitring only, should be but few in number. I would never choose more than twelve or twenty men. An officer, be his rank what it will, cannot decline going with so few under his command: the honour is amply made up by the importance of the expedition, frequently of the most interesting consequence, and the properest to recommend the prudence, bravery, and address, of any officer that has the fortune to succeed.

It is previously necessary that the officer ordered on this duty should be well acquainted with the country, the roads, and the distance of the enemy. His party
party must consist of men of approved fidelity, part of whom should be disguised. This detachment must march off in the night. The men must have strict orders neither to smoke tobacco, make a noise, nor speak. The officer must be provided with two guides, who are to be strictly interrogated, but are to remain ignorant of the route you intend to take. A detachment of this kind should be furnished with subsistence for two or three days. The horses are to be fed every two or three leagues, for it is absolutely necessary that they should be always fresh and fit for duty. The officer will take care never to halt, but at a distance from any road, and also take every precaution to prevent his being surprised, whilst his horses are feeding &c.

RECONNOITRING, (la reconnaissance, Fr.) orders and instructions to be observed in. We have been favoured by a very ingenious and intelligent correspondent, with the following directions, which were digested by the late Major-general Roy, F. R. S. and A. S. S. and issued as instructions to be followed by officers and engineers in examining, describing, representing and reporting, any country, district, or particular spot of ground.

First, As the encampments, marches, and every possible movement, proper for an army to make in the field, entirely depend on a just and thorough knowledge of the country, the greatest care and exactness should be observed in examining minutely the face of that country, and from time to time, to make proper memorandums of every variety of the ground; whether the face of the ground is flat and level, or interrupted by hollows and deep vales, always mentioning the nature of the soil in either, whether dry or wet, clay or sand, rocky, stoney, or smooth, in tillage or in grass; if enclosed, the nature of the fences, and largeness of the enclosures; where woody, the nature of the wood, whether thick and impassable, copse, or groan timber, and open; the extent of the wood; or if cut by few or many roads.

If there are any bogs or morasses, to be particularly exact in expressing the nature of either, both as to their size and extent, from north to south, and from east to west; if deep and impassable, or capable of being traversed, with very little labour, by foot or horse. Where there are meadows, to observe the above directions in describing them.

In all places, where the country is cut by valleys or hollows, to be as explicit as possible in conveying a perfect idea of the bottom and banks of the said valley.

Second, Carefully to follow the line of the principal roads, in the several bendings and turnings, marking the breadth; and at every half mile's distance, minutely expressing every variation or change that happens in the road; if narrow or hollow, the depth of the hollow; if broken or impassable; leading through or near any road or cover, and how far it may continue through or close to that cover. If the ground on both or one side of the road, will admit of shunning the above inconvenience, by quitting the road, and making openings through the neighbouring fields. To be particularly attentive to mark every lane, cross-road, or communication, that either crosses the great road, or may lead from right or left of it; mentioning the distance where they run off in right or left, with what place or places they communicate, and how far they go. When you come to a farm-house, small village, or country town, to be particular and exact in describing the situation and extent of either, by mentioning the number of houses and barns, and how supplied with water.

Third, All rivers or waters, great or small, to be examined with the greatest attention and exactness; marking every where their breadth and depth, in floods and ordinary water, nature of their bottom, height of their banks, nature of the soil on both sides, and the access to the banks, if easy or difficult.

The above directions to be strictly observed in mentioning and inserting every ford across any river or rivulet; and all bridges to be particularly described, whether stone, brick, or timber, number of arches, with the width of each; thickness of the parapet; if the communications to the bridge are free, and on commanding ground, and the nature of the command.

Fourth,
Fourth, If the surface of the country is mountainous, or only broken by gentle heights; to describe and minutely express the nature of the mountains, as to their ascent and height, in what direction they run, and how far; where broken, or cut by hollows and waters; where covered by woods or waters, or any other obstructions.

If the country is cut with rising grounds, to be very particular in observing the same mode of describing them.

Fifth, In reconnoitring, to never trust any thing to memory, but constantly to sketch and mark memorandums with method, and regularly in travelling the road, and from time to time, at stated distances, to collect, digest, enlarge, and vary these memorandums and sketches before quitting the ground, so that every thing may be as correct, explicit, and expressive as possible. Great and many are the inconveniences that continually arise from not duly attending to this precaution, and trusting too much to one’s own memory, which should therefore be avoided.

Sixth, At first setting out, if possible, to measure a long base, and intersect the most convenient objects, and as frequently as the nature of the ground will permit, to make proper measurements and cheques to the series of triangles in their proper position.

In an enclosed country, the only exact and useful method to lay down such, is to trace the roads with the greatest exactness and accuracy; always remembering, that in military maps, nothing should ever be represented at guess or random; and that the space of one quarter of a mile truly laid down, is far more useful, than an imperfect and loose representation of an entire country.

Seventh, When ordered to survey a ground for an encampment, the survey should at least contain three miles diameter; in which ought to be expressed, with the greatest minuteness, every particular above-mentioned, the advantages and disadvantages of water; if easy to be come at, if plenty and good, in rivers, rivulets, springs, and ponds of water; if clear and soft, or muddy or hard.

Eighth, To be particularly attentive to the produce of each part of a coun-
try, and how inhabited; if abounding in grass or hay, or only for pasture; if chiefly in corn, and what quantities of hay and straw are generally thought to be in the country; of all which particulars you may be easily informed, after some acquaintance with a judicious countryman.

Ninth, Every representation must be laid down to a particular fixed scale: when it is necessary to represent a spot of ground, proper for an encampment or any particular manoeuvre for the troops, the best scale is one of 500 yards to an inch, which is sufficient to shew every part in its just proportion, and to express distinctly the nature of the surface.

General sketches of a country may be laid down to a scale of two inches to a mile; and when the sketch is finished, the miles must be constantly marked along the roads with red figures.

We cannot quit this important article without endeavouring to impress upon the mind and understanding of every officer in the British service, from the commander in chief of an army, to the head of a detached party, the necessity of taking the most minute information, respecting the state and condition of an enemy, before he is marched against or attacked. The act of reconnoitring requires not only great presence of mind, a knowledge of ground, and an accurate combination of circumstances, but also a daring and unshaken soul.—Previous to the assault of a place, it is, above all, indispensably necessary, that the different parts of its fortifications should be scrupulously examined. The depth of its ditches, and the height of its walls, must be ascertained; for although a breach may have been effected, it does not therefore follow that the assault is practicable. Had these particulars been attended to in India, we should not have had to lament the untimely fate of so many brave and gallant countrymen, who fell before Bhurtpore. It is not our province to enter at large into the operations of our generals, but it is certainly our duty to point out, to the best of our ability, the means which can be adopted to forward the business of war, at the least expense of human blood and industry.
RÉCONQUERIR, Fr. to reconquer; to regain; to retake by force of arms.

To RECOVER arms, a position of the firelock when the piece is held with the lock equal to the left shoulder, and the sling to the front. The steadiness of soldiers is frequently proved by bringing them to the recover, after the word present.

To bring to the recover. See Recover Arms.

RECOUSSÉ, Fr. rescue; help. The French make use of this expression when soldiers, contrary to law and the rules of war, have seized upon the cattle, grain, &c. and are carrying their booty away; in which case, an alarm is given, and the civil powers dispatch persons after the plunderers to rescue the property which has been thus taken by violence. The party sent on this business, is said to be gone à la recoussé.—Hence aller à la recoussé, to go out for the express purpose of rescuing stolen goods out of the hands of the marauders.

Droit de Recoussé, Fr. a right which is vested in every individual, to rescue or get back what has been unjustly taken from him.

RECRUITS, (recrues, Fr.) men raised for military purposes on the first formation of corps, or to supply the places of such as are disabled, or have lost their lives in the service. For particulars respecting the enlistment of recruits, see Regulations and Orders, page 115.

RECRUITING, a term prefixed to certain corps and districts, which are specifically established for the recruiting service. Hence Recruiting Districts.

The recruiting corps, professedly so called, and having place in the army list, consist of Ogles, Loft's, Bradshaw's, Nugent's, Sir Vere Hunt's, McDonald's, and Armstrong's. There were several others during the course of the late war, viz. the Hon. George Hanger's, Steele's, &c.

The recruits made for the regular army of this country, are generally enlisted for life. In almost every other service in Europe, men are enlisted for a certain number of years. Experience has convinced the powers upon the Continent, that the system of binding a man during the whole course of his life to military subjection, is contrary to every sound principle of economy, and effective service. We sincerely hope the period is fast approaching, when, in the general reformation of the British army, the wise method of enlisting for seven or ten years will be adopted.

RECRUIT-horses, are the horses brought up for completing the regiments of horse and dragoons, &c.

RECRUTEUR, Fr. to recruit.

RECRUTEUR, Fr. a person duly authorized to enlist men. This word is used in contradistinction to racoleur, a crimp, which see.

RECTANGLE, Fr. rectangle.

RECTANGULAR, {See ANGLE.

RECTILIGNE, Fr. rectilinear, or right-lined.

RECTILINEAR, {after the manner.

RECTILINEOUS, {ner, or consisting of right lines.

RECUIT, Fr. a term used in the French foundries of artillery, signifying the heating or hardening of a cannon-mould.

RECU du canon, Fr. the recoil of a piece of ordnance. See Recoil.

RECU LADE, Fr. the act of recoiling or falling back.

RECULER, Fr. to fall back. This expression is used by the French in a figurative sense, viz.

RECUler pour mieux sauter, Fr. to fall back or retreat, in order to return and advance with more energy.

RECUler les bornes d'un pays, Fr. a figurative phrase among the French, signifying to enlarge or extend the boundaries of a country.

RECUler, Fr. to give way; to yield.

The French say of a brave man, who has often faced the enemy, and stood his ground, il n'a jamais reculé, he has never given way. On ne l'a jamais vu reculer, no one has ever seen him give way.

A RECUlONS, Fr. backward.—Hence travailler à reculons, to work or get on by going backward as rope-makers do.

REDANS, in field fortification, are indented works, lines, or faces, forming sallying and re-entering angles, flanking one another; generally constructed on the sides of a river which runs through a garrison town. They were used before
Field redoubts are highly useful. By them Peter the Great, of Russia, gained the battle of Pultowa, which was fought on the 8th of July, 1709.

Redoubts en crémaillère, differ from all the rest, because the inside line of the parapet is broken in such a manner as to resemble a pot-hook, or teeth of a saw; whereby this advantage is gained, that a greater fire can be brought to bear upon the defile, than if only a simple face was opposed to it, and consequently the passage is rendered more difficult.

Redoubter, Fr. to be alarmed at. Redouter les armes d’un ennemi, to be alarmed at the strength of an enemy.

Redoutes de terre, Fr. redoubts that are hastily thrown up, and are made with earth, for the purpose of securing entrenchments, circumvallations, passage of rivers, &c.

Redoubts de maçonnerie, Fr. redoubts made of mason-work. These are generally constructed in places where an enemy might derive advantage from establishing himself; they are likewise built upon the salient angles of the glacis.

Redoutes casematées, Fr. casemated redoubts. These are arched over and are bomb proof. Those constructed for the defence of Gibraltar, and for the security of Dover Castle are of this description.

Redoutes à machicoulis, Fr. redoubts made of brick or stone work, which are several stories high. The highest story juts out about one foot beyond the wall that surrounds, or fronts the redoubt.

Redresser, Fr. in a military sense, to recover. To make straight again, viz.

Redressez vos armes, Fr. recover arms. Redressez la ligne, Fr. redress the line.

Redresser les torts, Fr. In the days of ancient chivalry, this expression signified to redress the wrongs of the oppressed. The knights, on these occasions, underwent the greatest hardships and faced the most imminent dangers.

To Redrill, to drill again. To put a soldier through the first elements of military training. It is observed, page 2, of General Rules and Regulations,
tions, that every soldier on his return from long absence, must be re-drilled before he is permitted to act in the ranks of his company.

To REDUCE a place, is to oblige the governor to surrender it to the besiegers, by capitulation.

To REDUCE the Circle, to restore or bring back a battalion or company, which has been formed in circle, to its original position in line.

To Reduce the square, to restore or bring back a battalion or battalions, which have been formed in a hollow or oblong square, to their natural situation in line or column. In Part the 4th of Infantry Regulations, S. 189, the following method is laid down, whereby the square is to be reduced. On the word, Form close column, the files that faced outwards, will come to their proper front, and the files that moved into intervals will face about. At the word Quick, March, the grenadiers take one pace forward, and the two rear companies take one and two paces forward, and then face about; the files from the intervals take their proper places; officers, serjeants, &c. will quit the interior, move to their several stations, and the companies that composed the flank faces, will be completed; the companies will close inwards by sub-divisions one pace.

To be REDUCED, in a military sense, to be taken off the establishment, to cease to receive pay as soldiers.—When a regiment is reduced, the officers are generally put upon half-pay.—Sometimes the corps are reduced, and the officers remain upon full pay. This happens at the close of a war, when the standing army of the country is confined to a certain number of battalions.—Hence is derived the expression in and out of the break. In the break, is the liability of being reduced; out of the break, is the certainty of being kept upon the establishment.

To be REDUCED to the Ranks, to be taken from a superior appointment in a regiment, and to be ordered to the duty of a common soldier. This sometimes happens, by way of punishment, when a serjeant or corporal misbehaves himself. A serjeant, however, cannot at present be reduced, except by sentence of a regemental court-martial. Formerly this

necessary class of men was at the mercy of every foppish officer that happened to have the command of a company, without the knowledge or abilities to manage its interior economy. The army is indebted to the present Marquis of Townshend, for his many exertions in favour of non-commissioned officers. According to the Regulations, printed officially, April 9th, 1800, if a serjeant be reduced to the ranks, his clothing is to be given in for the use of his successor; and he himself is to receive private's clothing, equally worn (or as nearly as may be) with the clothing he has given in.

REDUCT. See REDOUBT.

REDUCTION des troupes, Fr. a reduction of the armed force of a country.

RÉDUIRE, Fr. in drawing, to copy, to reduce a plan or picture. This operation differs from that of chalking out. The French use the expression in various senses, viz.

RÉDUIRE en grand, Fr. to copy an original drawing by giving it larger dimensions.

RÉDUIRE en petit, Fr. to copy an original drawing by giving it smaller dimensions, which is literally to reduce it.

RÉDUIRE un plan au petit pied, Fr. to make a copy of a drawing, in which every part is faithfully represented, though on a small scale.

RÉDUIRE un bataillon, Fr. to reduce a battalion, or to diminish its quota of men.

RÉDUIRE en poudre, Fr. to reduce to ashes. When a town is severely bom-barded, and its different edifices, &c. are destroyed, it is said to be reduced to ashes, or to dust.

RÉDUIT, Fr. literally means a nook, or bye-place; in a military sense, it signifies a sort of citadel, which is extremely inconvenient to the inhabitants of the town, because it takes up more ground than those that are regularly built, and is, at the same time, uncomfortable to the troops, because they must be very much crowded. This word is explained by an English lexicographer, in the following manner:—Reduct or Reduit, an advantageous piece of ground, intrenched and separated from the rest of the place, camp, &c. for
for an army, garrison, &c. to retire to
in case of surprize. *Reduits* are some-
times made for the purpose of securing
different posts in a town independent
of its citadel. These have been pro-
posed by the celebrated Vauban.

*Reduit*, in architecture, a recess.

*Reed*, an arrow; also a musical in-
strument which has lately been intro-
duced into this country, and is used in
some military bands.

*Reedifier*, Fr. to rebuild.

*Re-entering angle*, in fortifica-
tion, is that which turns its point to-
wards the centre of the place. See *Fort-
tification*.

*Refaît*, bois refait et remis à l'é-
querque, Fr. an expression used among
French carpenters, and by the artificers
belonging to the train, to signify any
piece of wood which has been planed,
and made perfectly square and level.—
The ingenious compiler of the *Diction-
naire Militaire*, has observed under this
term, that although this, as well as
many other words, which have been in-
serted, cannot strictly be called military,
yet they are not to be deemed entirely
superfluous, when it is considered, that
wood is necessarily used in the artille-
ry, &c. We must offer the same apo-
logy for having given place to many ex-
pressions and words which may not be
thought rigorously technical in military
matters.

*Refend*, Fr. in architecture, a par-
tition wall, viz. Mur de Refend.

*Reférer*, (référer, Fr.) a person re-
ferred to. Every candidate for a va-
cant regimental paymastership in the
British service, must have four referees
from whom the war-office obtains the
necessary information respecting the
responsibility of himself and his sure-
ties.

*Reflex*, Fr. the ebb tide.

*Refondre*, Fr. to put damaged
pieces of ordinance in the foundery, for
the purpose of melting it down; to new
cast.

*Refonte*, Fr. the melting down
again or new casting.

*To Reform*, (réformer, Fr.) gene-
 rally speaking, (in military affairs) is to
reduce a body of men, either by dis-
banding the whole, or only breaking a
part and retaining the rest.

*Reform*, (réforme, Fr.) reforming,
reformation; reduction; a disbanding
some part of an army.

*To Reform*, in a military sense, is
after some manœuvre or evolution, to
bring a line to its natural order, by
aligning it on some given point. This
frequently occurs in the passage of lines,
&c. viz. When a line of several batta-
lions hath passed another that remains
posted, by retreating through by files,
it may be reformed in the following
manner:

*To Reform by a flank battalion, on
a central battalion, in an oblique posi-
tion.*

When by a flank battalion, the line
that has passed is fronted in column,
and the several pivots are dressed cor-
crectly before wheeling up into line. To
this effect, the commander of the head
battalion will instantly place the pivots
of his three first platoons in a true di-
rection, and order the officers of his
other platoons to line on them; himself
remaining with the head platoon at the
point d'appui, will see that this is cor-
rectly done. The first battalion thus
steadied, will become a sufficient direc-
tion for the second, and every other one,
to prolong it by their adjutants; and
this operation, though successive from
platoon to platoon, and from battalion
to battalion, may be performed quickly
and correctly; if the adjutants are time-
ously detached, and if the head of the
column is quickly arranged.

*To Reform a first line on a central
battalion.*

In order to give the alignment from
a central battalion, after halting and
fronting, the platoon pivots of the given
battalion are from its head to be accu-
rately lined by its commander, in the
true direction. This battalion being
placed, from which distances and dress-
ings are taken, the others will instantly
proceed to line their pivot flanks upon
it: those that are behind it, will readily
do this; those that are before it will
find more difficulty, as they must take
their distances from the rear;—to fa-
cilitate this necessary object, their pla-
toon officers will face to the directing
battalion, and will then successively
take their distances and covering from
their then front; as soon as each has
acquired his true position, he will face
about and make his platoon join to and
dress
dress to him. The line will then be ready to form, by wheeling up to the pivot flank.

To Reform a first line—that has passed through a second which remains posted—in an oblique position.

When it is found necessary that the passing battalions, which constitute the first line, should take a new position not parallel to the second, or to their own original formation, the commander with his two leading platoons, will first enter it (i.e. the new position) and direct the others to regulate their flanks by them; and if several battalions are passing the second line, the new alignment is thus made easier for them.

It frequently happens, that a height in the rear is to be crowned by a retiring line. In this case, each officer must not dress exactly to the platoon that precedes him, but in joining it he must halt, and arrange his own in such a manner, that the slope of the rising or ascent can be entirely seen and commanded, which is here the great object, and would not be attained, if the troops were to adhere to a straight line.

To Reform, (reformer, Fr.) is likewise to reduce a corps of men, by either disbanding the whole or only breaking a part, and retaining the rest; or sometimes by incorporating them with other regiments.

Reformado, from the Spanish, an officer who, having lost his men, is continued in whole or half-pay. It also signifies a volunteer in a man of war.

Reformé, Fr. the reduction of an armed establishment, such as is generally made at the proclamation of peace.

Officer Reformé, Fr. an officer put upon half-pay; or seconded according to the regulations of the old French service.

Reformed-Officer, one whose troop or company being broke, is continued on whole or half-pay. He preserves the right of seniority, and continues in the way of preferment.

Refouler, Fr. to ram down.

Refouloir, Fr. a cannon-rammer.

Refugee, (refugié, Fr.) See Emigrant.

To refuse, a military phrase, signifying to throw back, or to keep out of that regular alignment which is formed when troops are upon the point of engaging an enemy. This often occurs in order to occupy a particular position; to prevent the enemy's designs on any particular part of a line, or at least to make him take a greater detour to effect his purpose; or that he may be obliged to align his own on a height which is occupied, and from which he may be flanked. When a first line has passed through a second, and it is found necessary to refuse a wing, the several platoons of that line must pass according to the wing which is to be refused. If the left, for instance, is to be posted, and the right to be refused, the platoons may pass from their left; the column will thereby have its left in front, will be more readily directed on the point d'appui, and the preservation of distances will be facilitated, as they will then be taken from the front. If the right is to be posted, the platoons may pass from their right.

It may happen where the passing line is to post one flank and refuse the other, that the officers will have their distances to take from behind; the original remedy for this inconvenience has been shewn; (page 346, Part IV.) another also may be applied, which is to halt the whole, at any time after passing, and to countermarch each platoon, which will then cause the future formation to be taken from the front of the column.

A retiring line may also refuse a wing, by forming in line very soon after passing, and then taking up an oblique position to the rear, by the echelon march, or some other of the modes already prescribed. See Rules and Regulations, from page 357 to page 360, Part IV. See also pages 287 and 297 of Saldern's Elements of Tactics, translated by J. Landimann.

Frederic, surnamed the Great, king of Prussia, who had attentively studied the tactics of the ancients, first adopted the method of refusing a wing in the forming of an attack. This method has been since successfully followed by the best modern generals. It answers to a partial reserve of a force which is always ready at command; and in point of security, it is the reverse of what the French
French mean in prêter une aile, to expose a wing, or post it in a precarious manner. The French, during the whole of the action which was fought in Egypt, on the 21st of March, 1801, refused their right wing. Notwithstanding this precaution, they were defeated by the British.

As a correct formation of the line by the echelon march, whether it advance or retire in the presence of an enemy, is generally resorted to when it is found necessary to refuse any part of a line, it will not appear superfluous to submit the following mode which is practised by the French:

**Formation of the line by the echelon march of divisions, by the covering sergeants running out to mark the points in the new alignment, for their respective divisions.**

When the battalion changes position to the front on a fixed flank company, by throwing forward the rest of the battalion, the commander having determined the new line, and wheeled the right company into that line the named number of paces, (say 4) the remaining companies wheel two paces on their right forward into echelon. The covering sergeant of the second company instantly moves out, takes about 3-4th distance for his company, faces the point d'appui, and places himself in such a manner, that the outside of his right arm will pass in line with the breasts of the men of the company already in the line. He is corrected, if necessary, on the distant point of formation by a proper person placed on the right for that purpose. On the word march and form line being given by the commander, the covering sergeant of the third company runs briskly out, places himself so as to cover the second sergeant, faces the point d'appui, and takes the ordered 3-4th distance, corrected on the distant point by the person on the right. The officer commanding the second company, marches on till he sees himself clear of the left flank of the right company; he then gives the word left shoulders forward, (his right pivot marking time) and when he observes his company square with the new line, he gives the word forward, runs nimbly out and places himself in front of the third left file of the first formed company, and when the men of his company have their feet in the air ready to finish the last pace to bring them into line, he gives the word halt, dress, and dresses his men close to the outside of the right arm of his covering sergeant; taking care that the outward flank of his company does not shut out the distant point of dressing; he then gives the word eyes front, places himself on the right of his division, covered by his sergeant, who quits his ground and briskly passes through the interval on the right of his division, as soon as he hears the word eyes front from his officer.

In this manner division after division arrives in the new line; and as the covering sergeants of each of the other divisions approach within 15 or 20 paces of the line, they run out to mark the points for their respective companies, face the point d'appui as already directed, and there remain till the word eyes front is given by their officers, when they quit their places and take post in the rear.

In forming line to the rear, by the echelon march, (suppose on a left company) the same operation takes place with regard to the covering sergeants running out, to mark the points of dressing for their respective divisions; but with this difference, that instead of their taking only about 3-4th distance, they are to take about one pace more or less, than the proper distance; face the point of appui, and are corrected on the distant point, as before, by a proper person on the left. The commanders of companies will, as soon as they see a proper front rank of their companies touch that part of the line already formed, give the word halt, front, dress. Each officer dresses the men of his platoon back till he brings them in line with the outside of the left arm of his covering sergeant; he then gives the word eyes front, taking post on the right of his company, covered by his sergeant, who quits his ground as before on the word eyes front.

It is to be observed, in order to preserve the proper interval, on the covering sergeant quitting his division to mark the point in the true line, the officer's place is to be immediately filled by a supernumerary or other man from the rear, where he is to remain till replaced.
replaced by the officer, or covering serjeant.

It is likewise to be observed, that in forming line to the front on a right division, the dressing is close to, and on the outside of the right arm of the covering serjeant; and on forming the line forward on a left company or division, the dressing is close to and on the outside of the left arm. In forming line to the rear on a right division, the dressing is on the right arm; and in forming line to the rear on a left division, the dressing is on the left arm of the covering serjeant.

In forming line to the rear, the officers, or other persons appointed to correct the serjeants on the distant point of formation, move along in the rear, and correct the serjeants, as they successively arrive to mark the points for their respective divisions.

By the foregoing method of sending out the covering serjeants to mark the point in the new line for their respective companies, that inaccuracy of dressing, which so often takes place when forming line to the front; and that very great confusion and incorrectness, which too frequently occur when forming to the rear, (particularly so, when the wheel into echelon is in any degree less than the one eighth of the circle or four paces,) are entirely obviated.

REFUSER, Fr. for its application in a military sense. See To REFUSE.

REFUSER, Fr. This word is used among the French as a sea phrase, viz. le vaisseau a refusé, the ship has missed the wind.

REGAIN, Fr. in carpentry and masonry, means the surplus of a piece of stone or wood when it proves too broad or too long for any particular use, and must of course be taken off. It likewise signifies after-grass or math.

RÉGALER, Fr. to level or make even.

REGATTA, (regate, Fr.) a rowing match; a procession by water. This word is taken from the Italian, signifying a species of water tournament, or exhibition which took place on the grand canal, at Venice. The conqueror, on these occasions, received a prize from the senate.

REGENCY, (régence, Fr.) the government or governors of a state or a kingdom, during the minority or absence of a prince, by one or more subjects. Also a post of dignity with which one or more persons are invested under visitations of disease or incapacity in the lawful sovereign. A French writer says, on this subject, "That it is a dignity sometimes more envied than the crown itself. God knows," adds he, "it is already too much for any honest man to be condemned to wear the latter."

Regency also means certain persons who are at the head of different states in Europe.

REGET, Fr. switch.

RÉGIE, Fr. government, administration.

REGIMENT, (régiment, Fr.) a term applied to any body of troops, which, if cavalry, consists of one or more squadrons, commanded by a colonel; and, if infantry, of one or more battalions, each commanded in the same manner. The squadrons in cavalry regiments are divided, sometimes into six, and sometimes into nine troops. The battalions of British infantry are generally divided into ten companies, two of which are called the flanks; one on the right consisting of grenadiers, and another on the left formed of light troops. There is not, however, any established rule on this head; as both cavalry and infantry regiments differ according to the exigencies of service in time of war, or the principles of economy in time of peace. We are humbly of opinion, that every regiment of foot should consist of 2400 men, making three battalions of 800 each. The German regiments frequently consist of 2000 men; and the regiment of Picardy in the old French service had 6000. The French made a distinction between the commanding officer of a regiment of cavalry, and the commanding officer of a regiment of infantry. The former was styled Mestre de Camp, the latter Colonel, as with us.

According to the establishment of the present French army, the term of regiment is confined to the cavalry and artillery; and the name of half brigade is given to the infantry. So that chef de brigade, chief of brigade, corresponds with our colonel of a regiment of infantry. The denomination of colonel
Reg

The blue in Old Fish-street; and the orange regiment in West Smithfield.

We must, however, make one exception to the general rule observed in the service, with regard to numbers, which is the third regiment; that corps is generally called the old buff, from their facings being of buff colour.

Dromedary Regiment, a corps raised by the French during their stay in Egypt. The men were mounted upon dromedaries. To quote the words of Mr. Moreel, in his account of a campaign with the Ottoman army in 1800, the dromedaries composing this troop are made to go through a number of evolutions, and when attached they are formed into a hollow square: they kneel, and by means of a cord which is thrown round one of the knees, they are prevented from getting up, and thus they afford a breast-work for the soldier.

The same author observes in a note, page 59, that the most convenient and only way of travelling in Egypt is upon dromedaries. The traveller need not encumber himself with food for his animal, as a very scanty allowance of beans suffices for many days' journey. Travellers ride upon convenient saddles; and the animal is so docile, that he is guided only by touching him with a small stick on the side that he is to turn. Some have a ring through each nostril, which serves as a bit to a bridle fastened to them. They walk very fast; and their trot is swift, but very inconvenient.

Cape Regiment. We have already mentioned under the article Hottentots, (which see) that a proposal had been delivered in to government to raise, train, and discipline a certain number of the original inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope. This proposal, after considerable delay, and much deliberation, was finally accepted; and a few days previous to the sudden cessation of arms between Great Britain and the French Republic, Colonel King received his letter of service for that purpose.

The different officers were gazetted; but the prospects of the individual who conceived the plan, and the beneficial effects which must have accrued to both countries from the civilization of a harmless and industrious set of
of people, soon yielded to the impertinent terms of diplomatic arrangement.

Malays Regiment, a corps which has been raised for the specific purpose of doing duty in the island of Ceylon.

REGIMENTAL, any thing belonging to a regiment.

REGIMENTAL-staff. See Staff.

REGIMENTALS, the uniform clothing of the army; as a hat, coat, waistcoat, breeches, stocks, shoes, boots, spats, spatterdashes, &c.


REGIMENTAL band. See Band.

REGIMENTAL book. See Book.

REGIMENTAL parade. See Parade.

REGIMENTAL orders. See Orders.

REGIMENTAL necessaries. By the mutiny act, it is declared, that any person buying, detaining, or exchanging any articles called regimental necessaries, or who shall cause the colour of the clothes to be changed, shall forfeit 5l. Soldiers selling or exchanging them, are liable to military punishment, &c.

REGIMENTAL receipts for forage on service. Vouchers which must be produced by the contractors of an army to authorize them to have their claims discharged by the commissary-general, or his deputies. It is sensibly observed in page 32 of the British Commissary, that in every case there should, if possible, be only one voucher for one issue. The mode of accomplishing this must be simple, and it is adopted by those who certainly have most experience; for every German corps, or German officer, who draws forage, or any other article, from the commissariat, sends a mere receipt. This prevents further writing or trouble, because the receipt may be presented in the open field, and is in itself a complete voucher. All that is required, is for the regiment to order its forage party to bring back the receipt, if the quantity be not obtained; and the quarter-master, or foraging serjeant, to give a receipt for what he gets, if only part can be had.

RÉGIR, Fr. to govern; to manage;

* Régir des soldats, to take charge of soldiers.
tains specific instructions for the formations and movements of the British cavalry; which are, by his Majesty's commands, to be strictly observed and practised by the cavalry corps in general, in the British service, till further orders. The commander in chief has further directed, that every officer of cavalry shall be provided with a copy of these regulations, and the commanding officers of corps are to take care that this order be duly observed. Col. Le Marchant, lieutenant-governor of the Military College, has written some very judicious elucidations on this subject.

Infantry Regulations, a book published by authority, so called. This ingenious system of tactics has been translated and compiled from the best foreign authorities, and has been adapted to the British service by General David Dundas, to whose indefatigable industry and perseverance not only the government of the country, but the army at large, stand considerably indebted. His Majesty has been pleased to direct, that these Rules and Regulations shall be strictly followed and adhered to, without any deviation whatsoever therefrom; and such orders before given, as may be found to interfere with, or counteract their effect and operation, are to be considered as cancelled and annulled. As sincere well-wishers to good order and discipline, we recommend the frequent perusal of this passage to every commanding officer in the service, particularly to the consideration of those gentlemen who may naturally feel a little reluctant to unlearn; and we avail ourselves of this opportunity to apologize for not having entered more fully into the cavalry regulations. It will, however, be remembered, (as General Dundas himself observes, page 281, Cavalry Regulations) that the general principles for the formations and movements of cavalry and infantry being invariably the same, their more particular explanation in several points, is to be found in the Regulations for the Infantry; from which we have made occasional extracts, as a general outline of what we hope hereafter more specifically to detail.

General Regulations and Orders, a collection of certain general rules which were published by authority on the 20th of August, 1799, and which are to be considered as the ground-work of those instructions that generals commanding districts, and officers in the command of brigades and regiments, forts and garrisons, may find it necessary to issue to the troops under their respective commands. To use the words of the adjutant-general, "This publication does by no means comprehend the whole detail which the various duties and services, and the interior economy and management of regiments may require." They are principally extracted from a book, intituled The Rudiments of War, which was published by N. Conant in 1777, and ought to be attentively perused by every British officer; since they are directed to be considered as the standing orders of the army at large. They cannot be altered, or in any sense be deviated from, without the king's or commander in chief's approbation.—It is, however, to be lamented, that a book, manifestly calculated for the interior management of the army, and consequently a necessary companion to the Rules and Regulations, should not have been more specific. Many circumstances, apparently insignificant in themselves, and, of course, unnoticed at head-quarters, grow into objects of serious discussion among the different regiments of the service, both at home and abroad.—It is an old maxim, that he who neglects small faults will soon fall into great offences.

REIMBODY. To re-imbody, is to embody again any regiment or corps that has been disbanded. Thus, the militia is disbanded, and partially re-imbodied for 28 days in every year during peace.

REIN, (rêne, Fr.) that part of a bridle which extends from the head of a horse to the hands of the rider, &c.

REINFORCE, in founding guns, that part of a gun next to the breech, which is made stronger than the rest of the piece, in order to resist the force of the powder. There are generally two in each piece, called the first and second reinforce: the second is something smaller than the first, upon the supposition, that when the powder is inflamed, and occupies a greater space
its force is diminished; which is not the case.—See Cannon.

Reinforcement. There are three in each gun, called the first, second, and third; they are flat mouldings, like flat iron hoops, placed at the breech end of the first and second reinforcement, projecting from the rest of the metal by about \( \frac{1}{4} \) of an inch.

Reinforcement to the army, is an addition of fresh troops to strengthen an army, in order to enable it to go on with an enterprise, &c.

Rejoinder. In military courts-martial the prisoner is entitled to a rejoinder; that is, when the prosecutor makes a reply to the defendant, the latter may answer again.

To Reinststate, Fr. to place an officer or non-commissioned officer in the same rank and situation from which he had been removed.

To Rejoin, to meet again; to return. He left his regiment when it broke up camp, but rejoined it again before the army marched into the enemy’s country.

Réjouissances publiques, Fr. public rejoicings or thanksgivings. Chevalier Folard makes a curious and interesting comment relative to this subject, in one of his notes upon Polybius. He therein asserts, that the Te Deum, or thanksgiving to God, was as much practised among the heathens as it is among the moderns.

Reitre, Fr. a term derived from the German, signifying a cuirassier or mounted soldier; a dragon. It is used among the French to express derision and contempt. They say, for instance, de quoi s’avise ce vieux Reitre de devenir amoureux à soixante et quatre ans? what can induce this old dotard to fall in love at seventy-four?

Reitres, a body of horse, of which the elite of the German cavalry was formerly composed. This corps was of infinite use to France during the regency of Catharine of Médicis. The king of Navarre had upwards of 35,000 of these troops in support of the Calvinists.

Reitres, Fr. a body of armed horsemen, who came out of Germany, and entered into the French service during the reign of Henry III. They were incorporated with the carabineers.

Relayer, Fr. to relieve; to lessen the labour of any particular set of men by occasionally sending fresh workmen.

Relais, Fr. a term used in fortification to signify a space, containing some feet in breadth, which is between the foot of the rampart and the scarpe of the fosse. It serves as a convenient receptacle for the earth that occasionally crumbles off.

Cheval de Relais, Fr. a hackney horse.

Relation ou Recit, Fr. any account or description which is given of a war, or battle, or warlike feat, &c.

Relay-horses, in the artillery, are spare horses that march with the artillery and baggage, ready to relieve others, or to assist in getting up a hill, or through bad roads, &c.

Release. The commanding officer alone has the prerogative of releasing a prisoner from confinement, after he has once been duly given in charge to the guard, with his crime or crimes stated in writing; or of remitting after he has been adjudged to suffer military punishment; except in cases of a general court-martial, when the king alone can remit or mitigate.

Relever, Fr. the afternoon.

Relever, Fr. to relieve. Hence, Relever une sentinelle, Fr. to relieve a sentry, by posting another soldier in his room.

Relever la garde, Fr. to relieve guard.

Relever, Fr. This word is also used by the French to hold, or to have a right to. Thus, le roi ne relève que de Dieu seul; the king holds of God alone.

Relief, Fr. an order, given by the minister at war, to authorize an officer to receive the arrears of pay which had accumulated during his absence from the regiment.

Relief, Fr. in architecture, means the same as the term does when used in English.

Relien, Fr. the broken grains of gunpowder which have not passed through the sieve. To relieve the guard, is to put fresh men upon guard, which is generally done every 24 hours.
To RELIEVE the trenches, is to relieve the guard of the trenches, by appointing those for that duty, who have not been there before, or whose turn is next.

To RELIEVE the sentries, is to put fresh men upon that duty from the guard, which is generally done every two hours, by a corporal who attends the relief, to see the proper orders are delivered to the soldier who relieves.

RELIEVER, an iron ring fixed to a handle by means of a socket, so as to be at right angles to it: it serves to disengage the searcher of a gun, when one of its points is retained in a hole, and cannot be got out otherwise. See Searcher.

RELIGION, (la Religion, Fr.) reverence, which is awful and affectionate towards God; connected with benevolence, which is thoughtful and active towards man. Religion, in observances, has differed in different communities, and in different individuals of the same community. All these are freely tolerated with us; and, by provoking conversation to offend against any of them, is ungentlemanlike conduct, offending also against the articles of war.

Religion, like other accomplishments, must be most improved and best expressed by appropriate labours, and by well-counselled rites. Yet, apart from these, how finely has it been expressed and adorned by acts not ritual, and by collateral aids! Among a multitude of other splendid illustrations, by the glorious successes of Milton and Shakspear, of Sir Isaac Newton and Mr. Boyle! by such deaths as Sir Philip Sidney and Bayard's! Though the expiring worship of the one was no more than a silent rapture over his uplifted sword, and a cup of cold water to a wounded comrade, the conclusive bounty of the other!

The religious sense may aspire and impress, under circumstances that seem untoward, and in actions the most slight; as, in the short convivial song of General Wolf, at supper, before the battle of Quebec; and in the favourite essay of Sir Richard Steele, so well hit off one day, when he was on the Tower-duty, an ensign, in the guards.

In General Wolf's song, what is thus good in the 2d and last stanza, derives (but with the comparative weakness, too common in descendants of all sorts, from great lines) from Lucan and Dante; but Lucan has this fine thought:—

Animaque, capaces

Mortis!

For the intrepidity inspired by religion, there is this admirable expression in the best dramatic poet of the French:—

Je crains Dieu, Abner—Je n'ai point d'autre crainte!

By the bye, the affecting thought of Wolf is the same with Dante's on his own grave:—

Auctoremque suum petiti.

It may not be superfluous to add to this article (which has been transmitted to us by a grave and intelligent divine of the church of England), that it is contrary to the articles of war to upbraid any person on the score or ground of his religion, birth, or country.

A REMAIN, a term used among storekeepers belonging to the board of ordnance, &c. to express the actual quantity of stores which is found at an outport, &c. when a new storekeeper is appointed.

REMAINS of stores are ordered to be taken at all places at home, once in seven years, as also at the expiration of a war. In foreign parts a remain is taken only on the appointment of a new storekeeper. See Office of Ordnance, or Board of Ordnance.

To REMAND, to send back; as when a soldier who has been brought out of prison, or the guard-house, for the purpose of being examined or tried, is sent back without any thing final occurring relative to his case.

To REMARK, to take note of any thing.

Remarks. Army returns, regimental statements, guard reports, &c. have a column allotted for remarks and observations relative to extraordinary occurrences.

REMBARQUER, Fr. to re-embark.

REMBLAI, Fr. earth collected together for the purpose of making a bank, way, &c.

REMBLAYER, Fr. to collect earth together.

REMOITER, Fr. the same as Emboiter, to replace, to put together. The latter term is used by the French in artillery.
artillery and cavalry manoeuvres. It is the
correlative to Déboiter; to break
off.

REMÉTRE, Fr. to restore, to
bring back again. It is frequently used
in a military sense, viz. Remettre un
bataillon, to restore or bring back a
battalion to its original formation.

Remettez-vous. This term agrees
with the British phrase—As you were.
Se Remettre, to take a former position,
to return to the original ground.

REMIT, to lessen; as to remit a
part of a soldier’s punishment.

To REMONSTRATE, to make a re-
presentation of a case or cases wherein
one or more may consider themselves
to be aggrieved. Military men may
remonstrate through their superior of-
cicers; but where the duty of the ser-
vice is concerned, that duty must be
first performed with cheerfulness and
fidelity.

REMONTE, Fr. See REMOUNT.

REMONTER, Fr. to remount.

Remonter une compagnie de cavalerie, Fr. to remount a troop of horse.

Remonter une rivière, Fr. to sail
up a river.

RÉMORA, Fr. This word is some-
times written Rémore, and signifies ob-
stacle, hindrance. It comes from the
Latin Remora, a small fish, which was
supposed by the ancients to impede the
progress of a ship.

REMORAL, Fr. an officer belong-
ing to a galley who has charge of the
oars.

To REMOVE, to change the situa-
tion of a person.

A REMOUNT, means a supply of
good and serviceable horses for the
whole or part of a cavalry regiment.
The following instructions have been
copied from a compilation of general
and regimental orders, viz. the size of
the horses for the heavy cavalry must
run from 15 hands and 1 inch, to 15,
3; and the age be 4 or 5 off, if possi-
ble; the taling horses coming four must
be avoided as much as can be. No
horse must be taken for the king’s ser-
vice, unless he be very close and com-
pact in his make, very broad across the
loins, short and straight backed, close
coupled, sound barreled, and well car-
cased, wide between the rider’s thighs,
deep at the girt and shoulders, and full,
though not heavy chested, with short-
jointed, clean, boney legs, and full fur-
nished, with strong thighs; the shoul-
ders must lay well back; the forehand
rise so as to give the horse freedom;
and the head must be so set on as to
admit of his getting his nose in. To
this must be added, action, and good
sound full feet, with open heels. No
horse must be taken with flat feet, or
any lameness, or visible defect. No
heavy, fleshy-legged, lumbering horse,
must be taken on any account.

To REMOUNT. To remount the
cavalry or dragoons, is to furnish them
with horses in the room of those which
have been either killed, disabled, or
cast.

Se REMPARER, Fr. to seize sud-
denly; also to make a prompt and
glorious defence against any sudden
attack.

Se REMPARER d’une place, Fr. to get
possession of a place which has been in
the hands of the enemy.

REMPART, Fr. This word is used
figuratively by the French. They say
—une ville très forte est le rempart de
toute une Province, a very strong town
is a rampart to a whole province. Une
grande fleuve est le rempart réciproque
de deux souverainetés, a large river
serves as a mutual rampart to two
neighbouring powers. Malta is called
by the French, le rempart de la Chré-
tienté, the rampart of Christianity; al-
luding to its situation with respect to
Turkey. We also say, with the French,
speaking of a beloved general, les garde-

REMPLISSAGE de muraille, Fr. the
inside of a wall which is filled up with
rugged stone, or materials.

REMPORTEUR, Fr. to carry away;
to bear away.

Rempoter le prix de la course, Fr.
to get the prize, or be first at a tour-
nament or race. Hence remporter la
victoire, to carry away the victory.—
The French also say, remporter un avan-
tage sur l’ennemi, to gain an advantage
over the enemy. Le général fut rem-
porté tout percé de coups, tout criblé de
bulles,
balle, the general was carried off the
field pierced through with blows, and
crippled with gun-shot wounds.

RENCONTRE, Fr. This word has
been adopted amongst us, and signifies
either a private quarrel, in which individ-
uals accidentally meet and fight; or
an unexpected and irregular combat be-
tween two bodies of armed men, who
belong to armies that are in hostile op-
opposition to each other. Thus, as in
the former instance, it serves to distin-
guish the casual determination of a feud or
difference from the pre-determined and
settled plan of a duel; so in the latter
it marks the difference between a skir-
mish, &c. and a regular battle.

RENDER. See SURRENDER.

RENDEZVOUS, the place appoint-
ed for troops to assemble at. It like-
wise means any particular spot that is
fixed upon for two duellists to decide
their quarrel.

RENDEZVOUS, in a military sense,
RENDEZVOUS, the place appointed
by the general, where all the troops
that compose the army meet at the
time appointed, in case of an alarm.—
This place should be fixed upon, accord-
ing to the situation of the ground, and
the sort of troops quartered in the vil-
lage. In an open country it is easy to
fix upon a place of rendezvous, because
the general has whatever ground he
thinks necessary. In towns and villages
the largest streets, or market-places, are
very fit; but let the place be where it
will, the troops must assemble with ease,
and be ready for the prompt execution
of orders.

RENDEU, Fr. surrendered, given up.
Soldat RENDU, Fr. This term is
used to express the difference be-
 tween a soldier who deserts to the enemy, and
one who lays down his arms. In the
former instance he is called Déserteur; in
the latter, soldat rendu. It is some-
times used as a substantive, viz. un
rendu, a man who has surrendered.

RENDE, Fr. to surrender a for-
tified place up, terms of capitulation.
RENDE l'épée, les armes, Fr. to de-
 liver up sword and arms, or to submit
to the discretion and humanity of an
opponent.

Se RENDRE sans coup ferir, Fr. to
give up or become prisoner of war
without striking a blow.

Se RENDRE à son poste, Fr. to repair
to one's station; to join.
RENEGADE, a deserter; any one
RENEGADO, who goes over to
the enemy.

To RENEW, (renoueuler, Fr.) to
repeat, to begin afresh. Hence to re-
new hostilities.
RENEWAL, the act of renewing,
as the renewal of hostilities.

RENFORCEMENT, Fr. any hol-
low space. In fortification it more im-
mediately signifies the opening or pas-
sage which has been made in the glasis
of the covert-way, for the purpose of
rendering the communication with the traverses more commodious to the
troops.

RENFORCEMENT, Fr. a hollow
place.

RENFORCER, Fr. to reinforce; to
strengthen; to fortify.
RENFOURT, Fr. reinforcement.

RENFOURT, Fr. a certain part of a can-
non so called. See REINFORCE.

RENOMMÉE, Fr. renown; fame.
Fame, which has been so beautifully
described by Virgil, with her hundred
mouths, not only publishes to the world
at large, all great and good actions, but
also (sooner or later) gives an ample de-
tail of all the bad and mischievous deeds
by which victories are ultimately dis-
graced; and of all the crimes and vices
by which the heroes of the day are dis-
honoured. The testimony she bears in
both instances is so far indisputable,
that she is beyond the reach of flattery
or corruption, and consequently dis-
closes everything she sees or hears. See
RENOW.

RENOU, or Reputation, (renom,
on réputation, Fr.) the acquirement of a
great name by means of great and good
actions. An officer or soldier, (for as
no rank and condition are exempt from
disgrace, so likewise none are excluded
from honour and fair fame,) may secure
to himself a good name or reputation,
by his zeal and punctuality, and a great
or distinguished character by extraor-
dinary feats in war. But it should al-
ways be remembered, that, although
brilliant actions must give a lustre to
the achiever of them, his reputation
cannot be perfectly clear, unless his
character be marked at the same time
by traits of honour, and good conduct.

He
He will only realize what our celebrated didactic poet has so well expressed in verse:

A wit’s a feather, and a chief’s a rod;
An honest man’s the noblest work of God.

RENVOY, Fr. sending back; any thing returned.

Chevaux de Renvoy, Fr. returned or cast horses.

REPAIR of Arms, (Réparations d’armes, Fr.) the keeping in constant good order the different fire-arms belonging to a troop or company; such as musquets, pistols, &c. A half-yearly allowance is made to the captains of troops and companies for this purpose. There is also an additional sum of money (not to exceed 2s. 9d. per annum per man) which is issued by the Board of Ordnance, under the head of emery, oil, and crocus, &c. An opinion has been hazarded by the author of the Comprehensive View, respecting this last allowance: and we are still persuaded, that the public and the different regiments would be benefited by a consolidation of the two issues. See Comprehensive View.

RÉPARATIONS dans un Regiment, Fr. repair of arms, necessaries, camp equipage, &c.

RÉPARATION d’Honneur, Fr. a repairation of honour. Under the word Injure, in the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, by A. T. Gaigne, we have found an elaborate article respecting the notice which ought to be taken when injuries have been received, and insults offered. This article concludes with the following observation, which combats the prevailing practice of duelling. “In my opinion, true grandeur of soul is more shewn (par une réparation publique) by an avowal of one’s wrong, and an open apology to the party aggrieved, than by an appeal to the sword in private combat. This rule of conduct is conformable to all the principles of honour and honesty; whilst a deviation from it is contrary to all human and divine institutions: so much so, that the very persons who lose sight of them, run into dark and retired spots for the purpose of gratifying a spirit of revenge.” This language is certainly correct; but how far it will be followed, even by those who feel thejustness of it, daily experience must determine. For our own ideas on the subject, see HONOUR.

RÉPARER une Injure, Fr. to apologise to another for an injury done or an insult offered.

RÉPARTIR, Fr. to divide; to separate; to detach.

RÉPARTITION des Troupes, Fr.—distribution of troops in different quarters.

To REPEAT, (Répéter, Fr.) to say or do the same thing over again.

To REPEAT Signals, (Répéter les Signaux, Fr.) to do over again any sign or token which is given for the execution or the communication of a thing. Hence the repeating signals in a fleet, &c. See SIGNAL.

To REPEAT Private Conversation.—See PRIVATE.

REPERTORY. See MAGAZINE.

REPLIER, se replier, Fr. to fall back; to retreat. In military movements, to take a rear direction towards any particular part of the line, viz. Se replier sur la droite, to fall back upon the right.

REPLY (réplique, Fr.) answer; return to an answer. After the prisoner’s defence before a court martial, the prosecutor or informant may reply, but without noticing any matter foreign to the crime or crimes expressed in the charge.

REPORT, sound; loud noise, as that made by the discharge of a musquet or cannon.

REPORT, specific statement of persons and things. Although this word may, in some sense, be considered the same as Return, yet it so far differs in military matters, that it is less comprehensive, and relates more immediately to persons and occurrences than to things.

General officers report to the commander in chief only.

The commander in chief’s guard reports to himself by one of his aid-de-camps.

Reports of cavalry are given in to the senior generals of cavalry; and reports of infantry, to the senior general officers of infantry. On a march the field officer of the picket reports to the general of the day who leads the column; and in camp to the next superior officer to himself. A provost marshal gives
in his return of prisoners, and reports to the general of the day.

Deputy judge advocates, acting in districts or garrisons, &c. send in the minutes of courts-martial, and report to the judge advocate general, without going through any general officers. Regimental surgeons report to their commanding officers, and surgeons in districts, &c. to the medical board.

The life guards report, through the Gold Stick, to the King direct, from whom they receive the parole.

The foot guards report, through the field officer of the day, to the King direct.

All other troops belonging to the British service (the marines excepted, who report to the admiralty) report through their several commanding officers, &c. to the adjutant general and secretary at war, and to the commander in chief.

Special Report. A special report is said to be made when the name of an officer is transmitted by his commander to the general of a district, independent of the regular returns; and some specific instance of good or bad conduct is laid before him. It must be generally remembered, that every officer on his arrival from abroad with a regiment or detachment of troops, must report himself to the governor or commanding officer of the sea-port at which he arrives; and every officer who takes his passage for foreign service, must do the same previous to his departure.

The senior officer in each recruiting quarter reports weekly to the field officer of the district, the number and strength of the parties therein. The field officers commanding recruiting parties in districts, report to the inspector general, to whom all returns and reports are to be transmitted by them, and not direct from the recruiting officers. General Regulations and Orders, pages 104 and 105.

Reports are made daily, weekly, or monthly according to circumstances.

The various subordinate reports consist of:

- Report of a rear guard.
- Report of a barrack guard.
- Report of the sick, commonly called sick-report.

Report of a main guard, and its dependencies, &c. &c.

In the column of remarks which must accompany each of these reports, it is necessary, for the person who signs, to specify all casualties and extraordinary occurrences according to the particular nature of each report. The different hours at which the grand rounds, visiting rounds, and patrols went, must likewise be put down.

REPOS, Fr. rest; ease. It is used by the French as a word of command, viz.

REPOS, Fr. a word of command which agrees with Stand at Ease.

Quartiers de Repos, Fr. Those places are so called where troops remain for some days to refresh themselves.

Soldat Repos sur l'arme, Fr. a soldier standing at ease with ordered arms.

In REPOSÉ, (en Repos, Fr.) This term, which is manifestly taken from the French, applies to troops that are allowed to be stationary for any given period during an active campaign, either through sickness, or from some other cause. Thus the 5th regiment being in reposé, it was judged expedient to order the 28th to advance by forced marches.

REPOSER, laisser Reposer, Fr. to permit the garrison of a place, which has been closely and vigorously besieged, to relax from the severity of their former discipline. The same is said of troops, who, after having executed all the plans, orders, and measures laid down for the conquest of any town, &c. are allowed to be in reposé.

REPOSEZ tous sur vos armes, Fr.—order arms.

REPOSITORY, a place or repository, in which any thing is preserved. Thus the Royal Repository, at Woolwich, contains models of every sort of warlike stores, weapons, and fortification; whether invented by officers of the army or civilians, as well of other nations as of Great Britain and Ireland; receipts being given to preserve the title to the inventor. The Royal Repository is indebted to the ingenuity of the late General Congreve, for some of its most useful and important instruments of escalade, fortification and gunnery.
REPOUS, Fr. a sort of mortar, which is made of brick-dust, lime, &c.
REPOUSSER, Fr. to drive back; to repel.
REPOUSSOIRS, Fr. drivers, chisels.

REPOUSoir, Fr. a small stick which artists and fireworks users use in making fire pots and other works.

REPRENDRE, Fr. to retake.

REPRENDRE courage, hâleine pour marcher de nouveau à l'ennemi, Fr. to resume courage, or take breath in order to march afresh against the enemy.

REPRÉSAILLER, Fr. in a military sense, to retaliate, or to subject the prisoners, who may fall into our hands, to the same treatment which is experienced by our own troops. When an enemy violates or breaks through the rights of nations, and the established rules of war, the vengeance which is taken by his opponent, is called by the French représaille, or retaliation. Great Britain is, perhaps, the only country in the world, the minds of whose inhabitants are impressed with those natural principles of humanity, which make them rise superior to the dictates of private revenge. During the campaigns in Flanders, when His Royal Highness the Duke of York commanded the British army, there were several instances in which the clemency of the English character was eminently conspicuous. But on no occasion has it ever appeared in so bright and unquestionable a light, as when Robespierre, from a barbarous and mistaken policy, prevailed upon the members of the French Convention to issue a decree, that no quarter should be given to the British and Hanoverian prisoners. This decree, which was forwarded to the army under General Picqeur, was no sooner known at the British headquarters, than His Royal Highness the Commander in Chief immediately gave out the following general order, which must ever do him honour as a gentleman, a soldier, and a Christian.

"H. Q. Tourmay, 7 June, 1794.

"His Royal Highness the Duke of York thinks it incumbent on him to announce to the British and Hanoverian troops under his command, that the National Convention of France, pursuing that gradation of crimes and horrors which has distinguished the periods of its government, as the most calamitous of any that has yet occurred in the history of the world, has passed a decree, that their soldiers shall give no quarter to the British and Hanoverian troops.

"His Royal Highness anticipates the indignation and horror which will naturally arise in the minds of the brave troops whom he addresses, upon receiving this information.

"His Royal Highness desires, however, to remind them, that mercy to the vanquished is the brightest gem in a soldier's character, and he exhorts them not to suffer their resentment to lead them to any precipitate act of cruelty on their part, which may sully the reputation they have acquired in the world.

"His Royal Highness believes, that it will be difficult for brave men to conceive, that any set of men, who are themselves exempt from sharing the dangers of war, should be so base and cowardly, as to seek to aggravate the calamities of it upon the unfortunate people who are subject to their orders; it was, indeed, reserved to the present time, to produce to the world the proof of the possibility of the existence of such atrocity and infamy; the pretence for issuing this decree, even if founded in truth, could justify it only to minds similar to those of the members of the National Convention, that is, in fact, too absurd to be noticed, and still less to be refuted: the French must themselves see through the flimsy artifice of a pretended assassination, by which Robespierre has succeeded in procuring that military guard which has at once established him the successor of the unfortunate Louis, by whatever name he may choose to dignify his future reign.

"In all the wars, which from the earliest times have existed between the English and French nations, they have been accustomed to consider each other in the light of generous, as well as brave enemies; while the Hanoverians, for a century the allies of the former, have shared in this reciprocal esteem, humanity and kindness, which have at all times taken place the instant that opposition had ceased; and the same cloak has frequently been seen covering the
the wounded enemies, while indiscriminately conveying to the hospitals of the conqueror.

"The British and Hanoverian armies will not believe that the French nation, even under their present infatuation, can so far forget their character as soldiers, as to pay any attention to a decree, as injurious to themselves as disgraceful to the persons who passed it.

"On this confidence his Royal Highness trusts, that the soldiers of both nations will confide their sentiments of resentment and abhorrence to the National Convention alone, persuaded that they will be joined in them by every Frenchman who possesses one spark of honour, or one principle of a soldier: and his Royal Highness is confident, that it will only be on finding, contrary to every expectation, that the French army has relinquished every title to the fair character of soldiers and of men, by submitting to, and obeying, so atrocious an order, that the brave troops under his command will think themselves justified, and indeed under the necessity, of themselves adopting a species of warfare, for which they will stand acquitted to their own consciences, to their country, and to the world. In such an event the French army alone will be answerable for the tenfold vengeance which will fall upon themselves, their wives, their children, and their unfortunate country, already groaning under every calamity which the accumulated crimes of unprincipled ambition and avarice can heap upon their devoted victims.

"His Royal Highness desires, that this order may be read and explained at their successive roll callings."

REPRÉSAILLES, Fr. reprisals.

Droit de REPRÉSAILLES, Fr. letters of mark, such as are given to privateers, &c.

REPRIMAND, (réprimande, Fr.) a lighter kind of punishment sometimes inflicted on officers and non-commissioned officers. It consists in reproving or reprimanding them at the head of their respective regiments, troop, or company, as the cases may be. A reprimand is sometimes inserted in the orderly books.

REPRISE, Fr. renewal; often repeated. Les troupes le sont battues, à plusieurs reprises, avec a charnement,

the troops engaged again at repeated intervals, with rancour or redoubled fury.

REPRISES d'armes, Fr. the taking up arms again for the purpose of going into action.

REPRISES d'hostilités, Fr. renewal of hostilities.

REPUBLIC, (république, Fr.) a government where democracy has the ascendancy.

REPUTATION, (réputation, Fr.) See RENOWN.

REQUISITION, (réquisition, Fr.) a term peculiarly used by the French during the course of their revolution, and applicable to most nations in its general import. It signifies the act of exacting either men or things for the public service. Hence—Denrées, marchandises mises en réquisition; nécessités of life, goods, &c. put in a state of requisition, or subject to be disposed of for the common good at a fixed price.

Jeunes gens de la RÉQUISITION, Fr. Young men required or called upon to serve in the army.

RÉQUISITIONNAIRE, Fr. a person liable to be put in a state of requisition.

RESERVE, (corps de réserve, Fr.) any select body of troops posted by a general out of the first line of action, to answer some specific or critical purpose, in the day of battle. The French likewise call that body a corps de réserve, which is composed of the staff of the army, and moves with the commander in chief, from whom it receives the parole or word; but in every other respect it is governed by its own general.

RÉSIGNATION, (résignation, démission, Fr.) in a military sense the act of giving up any thing, post, or situation, voluntarily. The French say, donner sa démission, to resign, or give in one's resignation. Recevoir sa démission, to be dismissed, or to be forced to resign. Although it is in the power of any officer to send or give in his resignation, (which must always be done through his commanding officer), he is not released from the service, or its incumbent duties, until his Majesty's approbation has been notified to him through the commander in chief. This holds good with the militia. See Index Regimental Companion.

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RÉSINE,
RESINE, Fr. rosin. To RESIST, (résister, Fr.) to withstand; not to yield or give up. Hence, to resist an illegal command, is to refuse to put an order into execution which is contrary to the known and established laws of the land. The articles of war expressly say—You shall obey all lawful commands. It follows, of course, that a person ought to resist all illegal ones.

RESISTANCE, (résistance, Fr.) the act of opposing, resisting, or withstand- ing.

RESOLUTION, in algebra, the solution of a problem.

Resolution, (résolution, Fr.) an indispensable quality of the mind, which every general of an army should possess to its full extent. It is the advice of all wise men, leisurely to digest plans, and to deliberate calmly upon them; but when once it becomes necessary to put them into execution, the person entrusted with command, should be prompt and vigorous.

RESPECT, Fr. respect; regard; awe. The French say of a fortified place, cette place de guerre tient l'en-emi en respect, that town or fortified place keeps the enemy in awe, or checks his operations.

RESOOM, Ind. fees or dues.

A RESPITE, a term used in military accounts, signifying a certain sum of money which is directed to be withheld from the issue of pay, in order to make up the several stoppages in regimental distributions. For a more specific explanation, see Regimental Companion, vol. I. page 467.

To RESPIRE, to suspend, to delay; from the French Respiter.

To be RESPITED on the muster roll, to be suspended from pay, &c. during which period all advantages of promotion, pay, &c. are stopped. It is originally derived from respire, which signifies delay, forbearance, &c. Thus in Clarendon's history of the civil wars we read, that an act passed for the satisfaction of the officers of the king's army, by which they were promised payment in November following; till which time they were to respire it, and be contented, that the common soldiers and inferior officers should be satisfied upon their being disbanded. At present to respire means to deprive an individual of any advantage attached to his situation which sense it signifies much the same as to suspend.

When a officer has exceeded his leave of absence, and has not sent a satisfactory account of himself to his commanding officer, the latter reports him, in an especial manner, to the general of the district, by whom he is returned absent without leave. It sometimes happens, that the colonel or commanding officer gives directions to have him noted on the muster-roll of the regiment; in which case he is said to be respited or deprived of pay. This is the first step towards suspension from rank and pay, which ultimately terminates in a total exclusion from the service, by the offending party being peremptorily superseded. The name of the person is laid before his Majesty, who directs the commander in chief to strike it off the list of the army.

The money which is respited upon the muster-roll is accounted for by the muster-master-general, and placed to the credit of the public by the paymaster-general.

RESPONSIBILITY, (responsabilité, Fr.) the state of being answerable. All public officers, civil or military, are in a state of responsibility with respect to national concerns.

RESPONSIBLE, answerable; accountable; liable to be called upon.—Colonels of regiments are responsible for the clothing, &c. of their men; and captains for the interior economy of their companies.

RESPONSE, Fr. a term used by the French, in military orders, signifying the same as charge or redevance, charge or service. Thus each commandery pays a certain sum called Somme de Responsion, to its order in proportion to its value.

RESSERER, to hem in; to confine. Une garnison fort resserrée, a garrison narrowly watched by a besieging army, and kept within its walls.

RESSORT, Fr. spring; elasticity. This word is used in various senses by the French, viz.

Dernier Ressort, Fr. the last shift. N'agir que par Ressort, Fr. to do nothing of one's own free will; to be influenced, to be acted upon by others.

Manque
Manquer de Ressort, Fr. to want 
onevy, vigour, &c.

Un caractère qui a du Ressort, Fr. a firm determined character.

RESSOURCE, Fr. resource, shift, refuge.

Un homme de Ressources, Fr. a man that has resources within himself.

Un homme plein de Ressources, Fr. a man full of resources, full of expedients.

REST, the third motion of the firelock in presenting arms. The French present in two motions. Perhaps our method is the best, if we consider it as a mere motion of parade.

To REST arms, to bring the firelock to the same position as in present arms.

To REST upon reversed arms. At military funerals the arms are reversed. The soldiers belonging to the firing party rest upon the butt ends of their firelocks, while the funeral service is performed, leaning with their cheeks, so as to look towards the corpse.

REST upon your firelocks reversed! is the word of command now ordered to be used at military funerals.

RESTANT, Fr. the remainder; what is left.

RESTE, Fr. remainder, viz. le reste des troupes, the remainder of the troops.

Être en RESTE, Fr. to be in arrears.

RFTER, Fr. to remain behind.

RETABLIR, Fr. to restore or to bring back. Hence, rétablir la discipline, to restore to good order or discipline. It is wisely observed by a French writer, that the maintenance of good order, among troops, is far more easy than the restoration of it from a state of relaxation and indiscipline.

RETAPE, Fr. to cock up a hat.

RETenIR, Fr. to resound; to re-echo; to repeat.

RECENTISME, Fr. the act of resounding, &c.

RENENUE, Fr. stoppage; anything kept back.

RETIARE, Fr. See RETIARIUS.

RETIARIUS, a kind of gladiator who fought in the amphitheatre during the time of the Romans. He is thus described by Kennett, in his Roman Antiquities, page 474.

The Retiarius was dressed in a short coat, having a fuscina or trident in his left hand, and a net, from which he derives his name, in his right. With this he endeavoured to entangle his adversary, that he might then with his trident easily dispatch him: on his head he wore only a hat tied under his chin with a broad ribbon.

RETIARDE, or coupure, Fr. In fortification, a retrenchment, which is generally made with two faces, forming a reentrant angle, and is thrown up in the body of a work for the purpose of receiving troops, who may dispute the ground inch by inch. When the first means of resistance have been destroyed, others are substituted by cutting a ditch, and lining it with a parapet. The retirade sometimes consists of nothing more than rows of fascines filled with earth, stuffed gabions, barrels, or sandbags, with or without a ditch, and either fenced with palisadoes, or left without them.

Whenever it becomes absolutely necessary to quit the head or side of a work, the whole of it must, on no account, be abandoned. On the contrary, whilst some determined troops keep the enemy in check, others must be actively employed in throwing up retirades, which may flank each other, and in cutting a ditch in front. It is particularly incumbent upon the engineer officer to assist in works of this sort, and every officer and soldier should zealously co-operate with him. A slight knowledge of field fortification will, on these occasions, give a decided advantage. The body of a retirade should be raised as high as possible, and several fougasses should be laid beneath it, for the purpose of blowing up the ground on which the enemy may have established himself.

RETIARDES, as practised by the ancients. These were walls hastily run up behind breaches that were made by the battering rams. The able commentator upon Polybius observes, that in no instance did the skill of the great men of antiquity appear in so conspicuous a light, as in the various chicanes to which they resorted for the preservation of a town. Their ingenuity and resolution increased in proportion as the danger approached. Instead of offering to capitulate, as the moderns generally do, when a practicable breach has been opened
opened by a besieging enemy, the ancients, in that emergency, collected all their vigour, had recourse to various stratagems, and waited behind their retrances or temporary retreats to give the enemy a warm and obstantive reception. Caesar, in his Commentaries, has given a minute description of the manner in which these retrances were constructed; and we find them mentioned by Josephus in his history of the war of the Jews against the Romans.

The intermediate periods, since the days of the Greeks and Romans, and before the modern era, furnished various examples on this head. In 1219, Genghis Khan set all his battering rams to work, for the purpose of effecting a breach in the walls of Ottrar; but, to his great surprize, he no sooner entered the town, than he found a fresh line of entrenchments that had been thrown up in the very heart of the city. He saw every street cut asunder with temporary ditches, and every house presented fresh obstacles: so much so, that he experienced more difficulty in subduing the inhabitants after he had forced the walls, than had occurred in practising the breach.

When the Emperor Charles V. laid siege to Mentz, in 1552, the Duke de Guise, who was governor of the town, instantly adopted the necessary precautions to defend it to the last. He built a new wall behind the one against which the principal attack was directed; and when the breach was made, the besiegers found themselves obstinately opposed afresh, within a short space of the ground they had carried. In consequence of this unexpected check, the enemy's troops grew disheartened; and their want of confidence soon convinced the emperor, that the place could not be taken. The siege was unexpectedly raised, and the preservation of the town was entirely owing to the wise precautions that had been adopted by the Duke de Guise.

In 1743, Marshal Broglie, being closely besieged in the city of Prague, threw up retrances within the walls, and prepared to make a most vigorous resistance. An occasion, however presented itself, of which he took advantage, that rendered any further precautions useless. He made a vigorous sortie, and forced the enemy to raise the siege.

RETIRED List, a list on the marine establishment, upon which supernumerary officers are placed.

Officers who retire in the East India service. The India Company have resolved, that an officer, (in his military capacity) after twenty years actual service in India, coming to Europe on leave, will be allowed to retire on the pay of his rank, provided he signifies his intention of so doing within twenty months after his arrival. Officers on leave who are desirous of retiring, and who declare their intention to that effect, within twelve months from their arrival, will be permitted to retire on the pay of the rank they may be entitled to at that period. An officer having completed 22 years actual residence in India, will be allowed to retire on the full pay of his rank, directly on his leaving India.

RETIRED, Fr. to retire. Hence retirer du service, to retire from the service.

Retirer sous une place, Fr. to take up a position under some fortified place, for the purpose of being entrenched.

RETOURS de la mine, Fr. returns of a mine. See GALLERY.

Retours de la tranchée, Fr. returns of a trench. In fortification, the several windings and oblique deviations of a trench, which are drawn, in some measure, parallel to the sides of the place attacked, in order to avoid being enfiladed, or having the shot of the enemy scour along the length of the line. On account of these different returns, a considerable interval is opened between the head and the tail of the trench, which, (were the lines direct,) would not be at any great distance from each other.

RETRAITE, Fr. See TO RETREAT.

Retraite dans les montagnes, Fr. the act of falling back or retreating among the mountains.

Faire RETRAITE, Fr. to retire; to fall back.

Battre la RETRAITE, Fr. to beat the tap-too.

Se battre en RETRAITE, Fr. to maintain a running fight.

RETRAITE, Fr. certain appointments which were given during the French monarchy
marchy to infantry officers, when they retired from the active duties of their profession, to afford them means of support. The pensions which were settled upon cavalry officers were likewise distinguished by the same term.

**Retrait**, Fr. See Relais.

**Retrancher**, Fr. entrenched.

**Retranchements**, Fr. See Retrenchments.

**Retranchements particuliers qu'on fait sur la tête des brèches d'une place assiégée**, Fr. particular reentrances, which are made in front of breaches that have been effected in the walls of a besieged town.

It is always necessary, that reentrances of this description should have the figures of reentrant angles, in order, that they may not only flank the breaches, but be capable of defending themselves.

A besieging enemy, seldom or ever, attempts a breach at the flanked angle of a bastion, because it must be seen by the two flanks of the neighbouring bastions, and be perpetually exposed to the fire of the casemates of the town. Nevertheless, should the breach be actually effected, reentrances might be thrown up, in the same manner that born-works are constructed, for the purpose of flanking it.

If the breach should be made in the face of the bastion, (which usually happens, because that quarter can be seen by the garrison from one side only) reentrances in the shape of reentrant angles must be constructed.

Breaches are seldom attempted at the angle of the epaulement, because that part of the bastion is the most solid and compact, and the most exposed to the fire from the curtain to that of the opposite flank, and to the reverse discharge, or fire from the rear. Add to this, that the storming party would be galled in flank and rear, not only from the simple bastion, but likewise from the casemates. If, however, a breach should be effected in that quarter, it would become necessary to throw up reentrances of a salient and reentrant nature.

In constructing these different reentrances it must be an invariable rule, to get as near as possible to the parapets of the bastions and to their ruins, in order to batter those in flank and rear, who should attempt to scale, and at the same time to be out of the reach of the besieger's ordnance.

When the head of the breach is so much laid open, that the besieger's cannon can scour all above it, small mines must be prepared beneath, and a reentrance be instantly thrown up in the body of the bastion.

**Retrancheur**, Fr. to entrench.

**Retrancher un camp**, Fr. to throw up works before and round a camp, in order to strengthen it, and to keep the enemy in check.

To RETREAT, to make a retrograde movement. An army or body of men are said to retreat when they turn their backs upon the enemy or are retiring from the ground they occupied: hence, every march in withdrawing from the enemy is called a retreat.

That retreat which is done in sight of an active enemy, who pursues with a superior force, is the one we particularly allude to in this place; being, with reason, looked upon as the glory of the profession. It is a manœuvre the most delicate, and best fitted to display the prudence, genius, courage, and address, of an officer who commands. The records of all ages testify it, and historians have never been so lavish of eulogiums as on the subject of the brilliant retreats of their heroes. If it be important, it is no less difficult to regulate, on account of the variety of circumstances, each of which demands different principles, and almost endless detail. Hence a good retreat is esteemed, by experienced officers, the master-piece of a general. He should therefore be well acquainted with the situation of the country through which he intends to make it, and careful that nothing is omitted to make it safe and honourable. General Moreau's retreat in 1796, has rendered his name immortal. The three most celebrated retreats of modern times have been —the one already mentioned, that of Prague, and that of General Macdonald in Italy.

**Reétat**, is also a beat of the drum, at the firing of the evening-gun; at which the drum-major, with all the drums of the battalion, except such as are upon duty, beats from the camp colours on the right to those on the left, on the parade of encampment: the drums
of all the guards beat also; the trumpets at the same time sounding at the head of their respective troops. This is to warn the soldiers to forbear firing, and the sentinels to challenge till the break of day, when the reveille is beat. The retreat is likewise called setting the watch.

*Chequered Retreat* (retraite en échiquier, Fr.) it is so called from the several component parts of a line or battalion, which alternately retreat and face in the presence of an enemy, exhibiting the figure of the chequered squares upon a chess board.

In part the fourth, page 353, of the General Rules and Regulations, it is judiciously observed, that all manœuvres of a corps retiring, are infinitely more difficult to be performed with order, than those in advancing. They must be more or less accomplished by chequered movements; one body by its numbers or position, facing and protecting the retreat of another; and if the enemy presses hard, the whole must probably front in time and await him: as the ground narrows or favours, different parts of the corps must double; mouths of defiles and advantageous posts must be possessed; by degrees the different bodies must diminish their fronts, and throw themselves into column of march when it can be done with safety.

The *chequered retreat* by the alternate battalions or half battalions of a line going to the rear, while the others remain halted, cover them, and in their turn retire in the same manner, is the quickest mode of refusing a part of a corps to the enemy, and at the same time protecting its movement, as long as it continues to be made nearly parallel to the first position.

*In the chequered retreat*, the following rules must be observed: The battalions of the division nearest to the enemy, will form flanks as soon as there is nothing in their front to cover them; but the other divisions will not have any flanks except to the outward battalion of each. The battalions always pass by their proper intervals, and it is a rule in retiring, that the left of each shall always pass the right of the neighbouring one. Whatever advantages the ground offers, those advantages must be seized without too critical an ob-
servance of intervals, or minute adherence to the determined distance of each retreat. The division next the enemy must pass in front through the intervals of the division immediately behind, and any battalion, that finds it necessary, must incline for that purpose. The retiring division must step out, and take up no more time than what is absolutely required to avoid confusion. The division nearest the enemy *fires* by platoons standing; the flanks of its battalions only fire when the enemy attempts to push through the intervals. When that division retires, it fires on, skirmishes by men detached from its light company, if present, or from platoons formed of rear rank men of one or two of the companies, and placed behind the flanks of the battalions. But should any of its battalions be obliged to halt and to fire, a shorter step must then be taken by the line; and should the enemy threaten to enter at any of its intervals, besides the fire of its flanks, such platoons of the line behind it, as can with safety, must give it support.—See from page 353 to page 357, Rules and Regulations.

**RETRENCHMENT**, in the art of war, is any work raised to cover a post, and fortify it against an enemy; such as fascines loaded with earth, gabions, barrels, &c. filled with earth, sand-bags, and generally all things that can cover the men, and stop the enemy; but it is more applicable to a ditch bordered with a parapet; and a post thus fortified, is called a *retrenched post*, or *strong post*. Retrenchments are either general or particular.

**General Retrenchments**, are a kind of new defence made in a place besieged, to cover the defenders, when the enemy becomes master of a lodge- ment on the fortification, that they may be in a condition of disputing the ground inch by inch, and of putting a stop to the enemy's progress, in expectation of relief. Thus if the besiegers attack a tenaille of the place—which they judge the weakest, either by its being ill flanked, or commanded by some neighbouring ground—then the besieged make a great retrenchment, inclosing all that part which they judge in most danger. These should be for-
ttified with bastions and demi-bastions, surrounded by a good ditch countermined, and higher than the works of the place, that they may command the old works, and put the besiegers to infinite trouble in covering themselves.

**Particular RETRENCHMENTS, or Retrenchments within a bastion, (Retranchements dans un bastion, Fr.)** Retrenchments of this description must reach from one flank to another, or from one casemate to another. It is only in full bastions that retrenchments can be thrown up to advantage. In empty bastions you can only have recourse to retirades, or temporary barricades above the ramparts. The assailants may easily carry them by means of hand grenades, for these retrenchments never flank each other. It is necessary to raise a parapet about five or six feet thick before every retrenchment. It must be five feet high, and the ditches as broad and as deep as they can be made. There must also be small mines run out in various directions, for the purpose of blowing up the assailants, should they attempt to force the retrenchments.

**RETURNS, in a military sense, are of various sorts, but all tending to explain the state of the army, regiment, troop, or company; namely, how many capable of doing duty, on duty, sick in quarters, barracks, infirmary, or hospital; prisoners, absent with or without leave; total effective; wanting to complete to the establishment, &c.**

In Section V. of the Articles of War, page 14, it is expressed, that every officer who shall knowingly make a false return to the king, to the commander in chief of the forces, or to any superior officer authorised to call for such returns, shall, upon being convicted thereof before a general court-martial, be cashiered.

Whoever shall be convicted of having designedly, or through neglect, omitted sending such returns, shall be punished according to the nature of the offence by the judgment of a general-court-martial.

Returns are to be made in the same manner of the forces in Ireland to the chief governor or governors thereof; likewise of the forces in North Britain to the officer there commanding in chief; which returns are from time to time to be transmitted to England as it shall appear best for the service.

**Exact Returns from Gibraltar, &c. and regiments stationed abroad, are by their respective governor or command-**

ners there residing, by all convenient opportunities to be transmitted to the secretary at war, in order that the same may be laid before the king.

The life and foot guards do not make any returns to the commander in chief, or secretary at war, but to the king direct through their several field officers. This privilege is attached to them upon the principle of being household troops. Upon the same principle they have always, when brigaded, a general of their own attached to each brigade; on which account likewise, no other military honours than those done to their own brigade general are to be paid by them, except to a branch of the royal family, or to a commander in chief.

**RETURNS of a mine, are the turnings and windings of the gallery leading to the mine. See GALLERY.**

**RETURNS of a trench, the various turnings and windings which form the lines of the trench, and are, as near as they can be, made parallel to the place attacked, to avoid being enfiladed. These returns, when followed, make a long way from the end of the trench to the head, which going the straight way is very short: but then the men are exposed; yet, upon a sally, the courageous never consider the danger, but getting over the trench with such as will follow them, take the shortest way to repulse the enemy, and cut off their retreat, if possible.**

To RETURN, in a military sense, to insert the names of such officers, &c. as are present or absent on the stated periods for the identification of their being with their regiments, on detachment, or absent with or without leave.

To be RETURNED, to have one's name inserted in the regular monthly, fourteen days, or weekly state of a regiment, according to circumstances; as to be returned absent without leave; to be reported to the commander in chief, or to any superior officer, as being absent from the duty of the corps; either from the

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having exceeded the leave given, or from having left quarters without the necessary permission. To be returned upon the surgeon's list as unfit for duty, &c. from illness, &c.

Every officer commanding a regiment or detachment, will, on his arrival from abroad, transmit to the adjutant-general's office, and to the war-office, a disembarkation return, a duplicate of which he will also deliver to the general, or other officer commanding at the port at which he disembarks.

Commanding officers of regiments in South Britain, are regularly to transmit to the adjutant-general's office the following returns:

A monthly, on the 1st of each month.

A return of officers, on the 14th of each month.

A weekly state, to arrive on Mondays.

To the war office.

A monthly return, on the 1st of each month.

A return of absent officers, on the 14th of each month.

Every officer commanding a regiment, or detachment, on embarking for a foreign station, will transmit an embarkation return to the adjutant-general's office, and to the war office, a duplicate of which he will deliver to the general or officer commanding at the port from which he embarks.

On a regiment embarking, the commanding officer is to transmit to the adjutant-general's office, a return of the recruiting parties he purposes to leave in Great Britain, or Ireland, specifying their strength, their stations, and the officers by whom they are commanded; a duplicate of this return is to be transmitted to the inspector-general of the recruiting service in the Isle of Wight.

All officers belonging to regiments on foreign stations, not actually employed on the recruiting service, are to report their arrival from abroad, and the cause of their absence, at the adjutant-general's office, and are to leave their addresses with their respective agents, and in case of their changing their places of residence, are immediately to notify the same to their agent: any officer whose address is not with his agent, will be considered as absent without leave, and guilty of disobedience of orders.

Officers upon half pay are, in like manner, to leave their addresses at the war-office; particularly so if they should leave the united kingdoms; and officers belonging to the militia are to leave their names, &c. with the several adjutants of regiments.

Commanding officers of regiments are to transmit to the quarter-master-general an half yearly return of quarters, on the 1st of December, and the 1st of May, agreeable to the printed form; likewise a report of any march performed by the corps under their orders.

All returns, reports, and papers, purely of a military and public nature, which are to be sent to the adjutant-general, are to be addressed "To the Adjutant-General of the Forces, Horseguards, London," without adjoining his name.

All official letters from general or other officers in command, which are designed to be laid before his royal highness the commander in chief, are to be signed by the general or commanding officers themselves.

All official letters, intended for the deputy-adjutant-general, or other officers belonging to the department, are to be transmitted, under covers, addressed as above, to the adjutant-general.

To prevent an improper expense of postage, all official letters and returns sent to the quarter-master-general, or officers in his department, are to be sent, under covers, addressed "To the right honourable the Secretary at War, London," and on the outside of the covers is to be written, in legible characters, "Quarter-master General's Department."

Returned next for purchase. When vacancies occur in regiments upon foreign or domestic stations, the names of such officers as intend to purchase must be inserted in the master rolls: they are then said to be returned next for purchase. This serves as a government to the several agents, and prevents the introduction of persons into a corps with which they have not done duty, to the dispassion of those who have always followed the colours. The present commander in chief is particularly scrupulous on this head. Every officer that is returned
returned next for purchase, must take care to apprise his agent that the money will be lodged for that purpose.

RETURN bayonet. This term is sometimes used, but it is not technically correct, as the proper word of command is unfix bayonet.

RETURN pistol. See Pistol.
RETURN ramrodd. See Manual.
RETURN swords. See Sword.
RÉVEIL, or Diane, Fr. See Rêveille.
RÊVEIL-matin, double canon, brise-mur, Fr. an ancient piece of ordnance which is no longer in use; it carried a ninety-six pound shot.

RÉVEILLE, is the beat of a drum, about break of day, to advertise the army that it is day-light, and that the sentinels forbear challenging.

RÉVERIES (réveries, Fr.) loose musings; irregular thoughts; desultory reflexions. The celebrated Marshal Saxe has given this title to a collection of military ideas, which, in many instances, have proved the most correct principles in war.

The three following reflexions, but most especially the first and third, are maxims which have been corroborated by the experience of ages. With regard to his buckler we can only say, that although the Marshal is supported by so great a name as that of Monte-cuculli, his reveries have hitherto been neglected.

“New raised regiments I am altogether adverse to; for unless they are drafted upon old ones, and commanded by good officers, eight or ten campaigns generally destroy them.”

[The Marshal might have said less than half that number would do it.]

M. Saxe, speaking of his legions, says, “the men are likewise to be furnished with bucklers of leather prepared in vinegar, which will be attended with considerable advantage; for they are not only of use to cover the arms, but whenever the troops are to engage standing, they may form a kind of parapet with them in an instant, by passing them from hand to hand along the front; two of them, the one upon the other, being musket-proof. My opinion, in regard to this piece of armour, is supported by that of Monte-cuculli, who says, “that it is absolutely necessary for the infantry.”

“The Romans conquered the world by the force of their discipline, and in proportion as that declined, their power decreased.”

REVERS, Fr. behind, in rear, at the back of any thing.

Etre vu de REVERS, Fr. to be overlooked by a reverse commanding ground. When a work, for instance, is commanded by some adjacent eminence, or has been so badly disposed, that the enemy can see its terre-plaine, or rampart, that work may be said to be overlooked, être vu de revers. The same term is applicable to a trench, when the fire of the besieged can reach the troops that are stationed within it.

REVERS de la tranchée, Fr. literally means the back part of the trench. It is the ground which corresponds with that proportion of the border of the trench that lies directly opposite to the parapet. One or two banquets are generally thrown up in this quarter, in order that the trench guard may make a stand upon the reverse when it happens to be attacked by a sortie of the enemy.

REVERS de l’Orillon, Fr. that part of the orillon in a bastion which looks inwards, or towards the main body of a fortified place. Sally-ports are generally constructed in this quarter.

REVERS, Fr. this word also signifies a back stroke. Hence, abattre la tête d’un revers, to give a blow on the head with a back stroke.

REVERS de fortune, Fr. reverse of fortune; disappointments, &c.

Prendre des Revers, Fr. to take up a position so as to be able to fire obliquely into the rear of an enemy.

REVERSE, a contrary; an opposite; as the reverse or outward wheeling flank; which is opposite to the one wheeled to or upon.—See Pivot.

Reverse likewise signifies on the back, or behind: so we say, a reverse commanding ground, a reverse battery, &c.

REVERSED, upside down; as arms reversed.

Reversed arms. Arms are said to be reversed when the butts of the pieces are slung or held upwards.

REVÊTEMENTS passagers, Fr. temporary revetements. These works seldom last more than three years.
REVETEMENT, (revêtement, Fr.) in fortification, a strong wall, built on the outside of the rampart and parapet, to support the earth, and prevent its rolling into the ditch.

REVETEMENT du rampart, Fr. revetement belonging to the rampart.

Demi-REVETEMENT, Fr. a revetement which is made from the outward slope of the fosse to the cordon or terreplein of the rampart.

REVETEMENT de saucissons, Fr. a revetement which is hastily thrown up during a siege by means of saucissons, especially when breaches have been effected or practised in the outward works. Revetements of this sort are also formed of pointed fascines, &c.

REVETIR, Fr. to line, to cover, to fortify.

REVETIR, Fr. to throw up revetements. The French also apply this term in the same general sense that we use the word invest, as applicable to commission, power, authority. Hence, revêtir d'une commission; d'un pouvoir; d'un ordre important; to invest or entrust any person with a commission, with certain powers, or with any important charge or order.

REVIEW, (revue, Fr.) in the military acception of the term, an inspection of the appearance, and regular disposition of a body of troops, assembled for that purpose.

At all reviews, the officers should be properly armed, and ready in their exercise; they should salute well, in good time, and with a good air. The men should be clean and well dressed; their accoutrements well put on; very well sized in the ranks; the serjeants expert in their duty, drummers perfect in their beatings, and the fifers play correct. The manual exercise must be performed in good time, and with life; and the men must carry their arms well; march, wheel, and form with exactness. All manoeuvres must be performed with the utmost regularity, both in quick and slow time. The intention of a review is, to know the condition of the troops, to see that they are complete, and perform their exercise and evolutions well. —See Movements, likewise Inspection; and for a specific explanation of what is directed to be observed throughout the British army, with regard to the formation of a battalion, see Rules and Regulations.

To REVISE, (réviser, Fr.) to review; to re-examine; to re-consider. This term is frequently used in military matters, most especially in those which relate to the proceedings of a general or regimental court-martial. It sometimes happens, that the members are directed to re-assemble for the purpose of revising part, or the whole mass of the evidence that has been brought before them, and of maturely weighing afresh the substance of the proofs upon which they have formed their opinion and judgment. Great delicacy and discretion are required in those who have authority to order a revision of this sort. A court-martial is perhaps the most independent court on earth. Interest, prejudice, or partiality, has no business within its precincts. An honest regard to truth, a sense of the necessity of good order and discipline, and a stubborn adherence to facts, constitute the code of military laws and statutes. Quirks, quibbles, and evasions, are as foreign to the genuine spirit of martial jurisdiction, as candour, manliness, and resolute perseverance in uttering what he knows to be the fact, are familiar to the real soldier. The king has the power of ordering the members of a general court-martial to revise their sentence; but he cannot oblige them to alter it. The same authority, subject to the same limitations, is vested in the commanding officer of regiments with respect to regimental courts-martial.

REVOCABLE, (révocable, Fr.) that may be recalled. Thus, commissions in the line, granted during the reign of one king, and commissions in the militia, granted during the life of a lord lieutenant of a county, or deputy, are not revocable at the death of the grantor.

REVOLT, (révolt, Fr.) mutiny; insurrection.

REVOLTER, one who rises against lawful authority; a deserter, &c.

Se RÉVOLTER, Fr. to revolt; to rise in open rebellion. The French also say, révolter, to raise a rebellion.

RÉVOLTES, Fr. rebels.

REVOLUTION, (révolution, Fr.) a change in government, as the French Revolution. With us it denotes that particular
particular change which was produced by the admission of William and Mary.

The most memorable revolutions which have occurred within the last three hundred years are:—In England in 1660; Poland 1704, 1709, and 1795, when it was divided by Frederic the Great of Prussia, the Emperor of Germany, and the Emperor of all the Russias. Turkey in 1730; Persia in 1748 and 1755; Russia in 1668, 1740, and 1762; Sweden in 1772; America in 1775; and last, not least in the rotary wheel of fortune, France in 1788, 1789, 1792, 1793, 1795, 1802, and 1804; when Bonaparte absorbed them all in his own person and family.

_Jardin de Révolution_, Fr. revolution garden; a name which was given to the garden belonging to the ci-devant Palais Royale; and which was called Maison Egalité, or equality-house, during the paroxysm of the French Revolution. This garden is situated in Paris, and formerly belonged to the Duke of Orleans.

_Place de Révolution_, Fr. revolution square or place; a name given to the spot of ground on which the Bastille stood.

Révolutionnaire, Fr. a friend to the revolution.

Révolutionnaire, Fr. an adjective of two genders; any thing belonging to the revolution. Hence—

Armée Révolutionnaire, Fr. revolutionary army; such as appeared in France during the bloody reign of Robespierre, when the troops were regularly accompanied by travelling guillotines—_des guillotines ambulantes_.

Révolutionner, Fr. to revolutionize; to propagate principles in a country which are subversive of its existing government.

Réussite, Fr. issue: it also signifies success. Under the first meaning (viz. issue), a French writer has the following remarks:—“A good general ought never to be disheartened, although the issue of his plan should, at first, prove unfavourable. He should always recollect, that great success, in warlike undertakings, is seldom confined to one person, or attached to one measure. Nothing, indeed, can be more capricious than dame Fortune on these occasions; and if I may compare
great events with little ones, her conduct in war is often similar to that which she observes in games of chance, where the most skilful player is sometimes outdone by a feeble and unexperienced adversary.”

REVUE, Fr. See Review.

REWARD, (récompense, Fr.) a recompense given for good performed. Twenty shillings are allowed by the mutiny act, as a reward for apprehending deserters.

Military Rewards, (récompenses militaires, Fr.) The original instances of military rewards are to be found in the Grecian and Roman histories. The ancients did not, however, at first recompence military merit in any other way than by erecting statues to the memory, or presenting them with triumphal crowns. The warriors of that age were more eager to deserve public applause by extraordinary feats of valour, by temperance and moral virtue, than to become rich at the expense of the state. They thirsted after glory; but it was after that species of glory which was not in the least tarnished by the alloy of modern considerations.

The services which individuals rendered were distinguished by the kind of statue that was erected, and its accompanying decorations; or by the materials and particular formation of the crowns that were presented.

In process of time, the state or civil government of a country, felt the propriety and justice of securing to its defenders something more substantial than mere flow and unprofitable trophies.—It was considered, that men who had exposed their lives, and had been wounded, or were grown infirm through age, &c. ought to be above want; and not only to have those comforts which through their exertions millions were enjoying, but to be placed in an independent and honourable situation. The most celebrated of their warriors were consequently provided for at the public expense, and they had regular claims made over to them, which were answered at the treasury.

Triumphal honours were likewise reckoned among the military rewards which the ancients voted to their best generals. Fabius Maximus, Paul Emilius, Cunilius, and the Scipios were satisfied
satisfied with this recompence for their services. With respect to old infirm soldiers, who were invalided, they were provided for by receiving, each a lot of ground, which they cultivated and improved. Lands, thus appropriated, formed part of the republican or national domains, or were divided amongst them in the conquered countries.

The Roman officer was rewarded for his services, or for particular acts of bravery in three ways: 1st. By marks of honour or distinction, which consisted of two sorts, viz. Of that which was merely ornamental to their own persons, or limited to the investiture for life; and of that which may be called rememorativa, such as statues, &c. The latter descended to their posterity, and gave their families a certain rank in the republic. 2dly. By pensions or allowances; and 3dly, by a grant of lands which exceeded the lots given to private soldiers.

The French, who got possession of the country which was formerly occupied by the Gauls, had, at first, no other method of recompensing their generals than by giving them a certain proportion of land. This grant did not exceed their natural lives, and sometimes it was limited to the time they remained in the service.

These usages insensibly changed, and by degrees it became customary for the children of such men as had received grants of national territory, to continue to enjoy them; upon condition, however, that, the actual possessors of such lands should be liable to military service. Hence the origin of fiéfs in France, and the consequent appellation of Milice des fiéffes, or militia, composed of men who held their lands on condition of bearing arms when called upon. The French armies were, for many years, constituted in this manner: and the custom of rendering military service in consideration of land tenure, only ceased under Charles the VIIIth.

In process of time, those lands which had been originally bestowed upon men of military merit, descended to their children, and were gradually lost in the aggregate lots of inheritable property. Other means were consequently to be resorted to by the state, in order to satisfy the just claims of deserving officers and soldiers. The French, therefore, returned to the ancient custom of the Romans, and rewarded those, who distinguished themselves in war, by honorary marks of distinction.

Under the first race of French kings may be found several instances of men of low condition having, by their valour, obtained the rank and title of Count, and even those of Duke. These dignities, of themselves, entitled the bearers to places of high command in the armies. The title of Knight, most especially of Knight Banneret, gave very high rank during the reign of Philip Augustus; and in the reigns of one or two of his predecessors, it was bestowed upon individuals who behaved in a distinguished manner in the field.

This species of reward did not cost the public any thing. It was bestowed upon the individual by the general of the army, and consisted in nothing more than a salute given by the latter on the field of battle, by which he became Knight Banneret, and was perfectly satisfied with the honour it conferred.

This mode of rewarding individuals for great actions or long services, continued until men enlisted themselves for money, and the army was regularly paid, according to the several ranks of those who composed it. At this period, however, it became expedient to have recourse to the second method which was adopted by the Romans to compensate individuals for services rendered to the state. The royal treasury was either subjected to the annual claims of individuals, or to the payment of a specific sum, for having distinguished themselves under arms. Notwithstanding this, honorary rewards continued to be given; and knighthood, conferred in the field by the kiss or salute of a general, which the French stile accolade, was practised until the 16th century.

It was usual, even during that century, to reward a soldier, who did a brave action, by some mark of distinction, that was given on the spot; by a crown made of grass or other verdure, which was placed upon his head by his comrades, or by a gold ring, which his commanding officer put upon his finger in the presence of the whole troop or company to which he belonged. It sometimes happened, as in the reign of Francis
Francis the First, that this mark of distinction was given by the general of the army.

Several brave men have been distinguished with titles of nobility and armorial bearings, which were conferred by princes, in consequence of some singular feat or exploit. There have been instances recorded in the French History of extraordinary actions having been rewarded upon the spot by kings who commanded in person. A soldier of merit was peculiarly honoured by Louis the X1th, for bravery and good conduct in the field. That monarch took the collar of a military order off his own neck, and placed it round the neck of Launay Morville, as a reward for great prowess and intrepidity.

Besides the grandame crown and gold ring, which were thus given as marks of honour and distinction, the private soldiers were frequently rewarded by small sums of money, when they performed any particular feat or act of bravery. They were likewise promoted from the ranks, and made sergeants or corporals.

Honorary rewards and compensations for service were not confined to individual officers and soldiers. Whole corps were frequently distinguished in the same manner. When several corps acted together, and one amongst them gave signal proofs of gallantry and good conduct, that one frequently took precedence of the others in rank, or was selected by the sovereign to be his personal guard. Sometimes, indeed, the king placed himself at the head of such a corps on the day of battle; thereby testifying his approbation of their conduct, and giving a proof of his confidence in their bravery.

It is now usual, in most countries, to confer marks of distinction on those corps, that have formed part of any army that has signalized itself. Thus the kettle-drums, under the appellation of Nacaires, were given to some regiments, as proofs of their having behaved gallantly on trying occasions.

The military order of St. Louis, which was created by Louis the XIVth in 1693, and that of Maria Theresa, as well as many other orders in different countries, were only instituted for the purpose of rewarding military merit. The establishment of hospitals for invalids, such as Chelsea, &c. owes its origin and continuance to the same just sense of what is due to deserving officers and soldiers. Hence, likewise, our invalid companies and retired lists.

No such instances, however, are to be found in ancient history. The Greeks and Romans satisfied themselves with honorary rewards, or occasional compensations. The moderns, particularly the French and English, have placed military claims upon a more solid footing. The gratitude of the public keeps pace with the sacrifices of individuals, and permanent provisions are made for those who are wounded or rendered infirm in the service.

The Athenians supported those who had been wounded in battle, and the Romans recompensed those that had served during a given period. The French kings reserved to themselves the privilege of providing for individuals who had been maimed in action, by giving them certain monastic allowances and lodging, &c. in the different convents of royal institution. Philip Augustus, king of France, first formed the design of building a college for soldiers who had been rendered infirm, or were grown old in the service. Louis, surnamed the Great, not only adopted the idea, but completed the plan in a grand and magnificent style. Charles the second, on his restoration to the crown of Great Britain, established Chelsea, and James the second added considerable improvements to this royal institution. During the present reign, military merit has been rewarded with titles and pensions; but, what is still more creditable to the government, and reflects honour upon His Royal Highness the Duke of York (for his co-operation with those who originally suggested the idea) old and meritorious soldiers are taught to expect a secure retreat in the decline of life; and every rank is provided for according to the claims and services of individuals.

REZ, Fr. a preposition which signifies close to, adjoining, level with. It is never used except with pied or terre, as rez-pied, rez-terre. Démolir les fortifications, rez-pied, rez-terre. To level the fortifications with the ground.

Rez-de-chaussée, Fr. the ground-floor. This
This term properly means the surface of floor of any building which is even with the ground on which it is raised. It would be incorrect to say rez-de-chaussée d'une cave, ou du premier étage d'une maison, the ground floor of a cellar, or of the first story of a house.

RHOAGON, Ind. the twelfth month which, in some respect, corresponds with February. It follows the month Magh, which agrees with January.

RHNÉGRAVE, (rhingrave, Fr.) the Count Palatine of the Rhine. The judges and governors in the several towns situated on the banks of the Rhine were formerly so called.

RHINELAND rod, is a measure of twelve feet, used by all the Dutch engineers.

RHOMBUS, (rhombe, Fr.) in geometry, an oblique angled parallelogram, or a quadrilateral figure whose sides are equal and parallel, but the angles unequal; two of the opposite ones being obtuse and the other two acute.

RIBAND, (rubande, ruban, Fr.) this word is sometimes written ribbon. A narrow web of silk which is worn for ornament.

Riband Cockade. The cockades which are worn by the British officers are made of black riband. The riband cockade, which is given to recruits, is commonly called colours. No deduction is to be made from the bounty or subsistence of the recruit on this head.

RIBAUD, Fr. irregular, noisy, ill-mannered. This term is likewise used as a substantive, viz.

Un Ribaud, Fr. a noisy, ill-mannered fellow. It is an old French word, which at present is seldom spoken in the upper circles of life. In former times, as late indeed as during the reign of Philip Augustus, king of France, it was current without carrying along with it any particular reproach, or mark of infamy. The foot-guards, who did duty at the palace were generally called ribauds, from the looseness of their morals; which by degrees grew so very corrupt, that the term (harmless perhaps at first) was insensibly applied to persons guilty of dishonourable acts. Hence pick-pockets, thieves, cheats, &c. were called ribauds. On which account the provost of the hotel or town-house in Paris, was popularly stiled roi des ribauds, or the king of thieves. This phrase prevailed until the reign of Charles VI.

RIBAUD, Fr. adj. likewise means lewd, debauched, &c.

Un homme Ribaud, &c. a licentious man;
Une femme Ribaud, a licentious woman.

RIBAUDEQUIN, Fr. a warlike machine or instrument, which the French anciently used. It was made in the form of a bow, containing twelve or fifteen feet in its curve, and was fixed upon the wall of a fortified town, for the purpose of casting out a prodigious javelin, which sometimes killed several men at once.

According to Monstrelet, a French writer, ribaudequein or ribauderin, signified a sort of garment which was worn by the soldiers when they took the field.

A fire-arm containing one pound of balls or shot, was also formerly so called. See Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire.

RIBAUDAILLE, Fr. a term of reproach which was formerly attached to the character of a poltroon or cowardly soldier. When Philip of Valois went to war with Edward king of England, he took into pay twelve thousand Genoese archers, and placed them in the front. During their march, these men had neglected to secure their bows against the inclemency of the weather and when they came into action, they found them entirely useless, and were obliged to receive several British flights of arrows, without being able to return a single one against them; in so much, that they were forced to give way. Philip, imagining he was betrayed by these mercenary troops, exclaimed to the French, et tot, tuez cette ribaudaille qui nous empeche la voir! kill, without loss of time, this dustardly gang, that only stop the way!

RIBLER, Fr. to rumble, &c. was formerly the verb, and riberie, the act of rumbling, &c. the substantive. Both terms are now obsolete, except among the lower orders.

RIBLEURS, Fr. vagabonds, debauched fellows that run about the streets, or spend their nights in disorderly houses. Soldiers who give themselves up to pilage, &c. in war time, are likewise called ribleurs, by way of reproach.
RICCHIER, Fr. to ricochet, to batter or fire at a place with ricochet shots. The author of a very valuable work, entitled Essai Général de Fortification, et d’Attaque et Défense des Places, observes, in a note to page 89, vol. I. that in strict analogy, you may say ricochet; but use, which is above all rules, has made ricochet a technical term, whenever we speak of the ricochets of cannon-shot.

*Une face* RICOCHET, Fr. the face of a fortification, which is fired at with ricochet shots.

RICOCHET, literally means a bound, a leap, such as a flat piece of stone or slate makes when it is thrown obliquely along the surface of a pool.

Ricochet, (ricochet, Fr.) in gunnery, is when guns, howitzers, or mortars, are loaded with small charges, and elevated from five to twelve degrees, so that when fired over the parapet, the shot or shell rolls along the opposite rampart. It is called ricochet-firing, and the batteries are likewise called ricochet-batteries. The method of firing out of mortars, was first tried in 1793, at the military school of Strasburgh, and with success. At the battle of Rosbach, in 1757, the king of Prussia had several 6-inch mortars made with trunnions, and mounted on travelling carriages, which fired obliquely on the enemy’s lines, and amongst their horse, loaded with eight ounces of powder, and at an elevation of one degree fifteen minutes, which did great execution; for the shells rolling along the lines, with burning fuzes, made the stoutest of the enemy not wait for their bursting.

Ricochet firing is not confined to any particular charge or elevation; each must vary according to the distance and difference of level of the object to be fired at; and particularly of the spot on which it is intended the shot shall make the first bound. The smaller the angle, under which a shot is made to ricochet, the longer it will preserve its force and have effect, as it will sink so much the less in the ground on which it bounds; and whose tenacity will, of course, present so much less resistance to its progress. In the ricochet of a fortification of any kind, the angle of elevation should seldom be less than 10°, to throw the shot over a parapet, a little higher than the level of the battery. If the works should be of an extraordinary height, the piece must be removed to such situation, and have such charge, that it can attain its object at this elevation, or at least under that of 13° or 14°, otherwise the shot will not ricochet, and the carriages will suffer very much. The first gun in a ricochet battery should be so placed as to sweep the whole length of the rampart of the enemy’s work, at 3 or 4 feet from the parapet, and the rest should form an angle with the parapet as possible. For this purpose the guns should be pointed about 4 fathoms from the face of the work towards the interior. In the ricochet of ordnance in the field, the objects to be fired at being principally infantry and cavalry, the guns should seldom be elevated above 3 degrees; as with greater angles the ball would be apt to bound too high, and defeat the object intended. For ricochet practice, see the different pieces of ordnance, as gun, mortar, and howitzer. See also the Bombardier and Pocket Gunner, p. 185.

*Battery en RICOCHET, Fr.* to put a sufficient quantity of gunpowder in a piece of ordnance to carry the ball, with effect, into the works that are enfiladed. This sort of firing is generally practised along the whole extent of a face or flank. The celebrated Marshal Vauban first invented the mode of firing ricochet-shots. He tried the experiment at the siege of Ath, in 1679.

*Batterie un rempart à RICOCHET, Fr.* to batter a rampart with ricochet shots.

RIDEAU is a rising ground, or eminence, commanding a plain, sometimes almost parallel to the works of a place: it is a great disadvantage to have ridens near a fortification, which terminate on the counterscarp, especially when the enemy fire from afar: they not only command the place, but facilitate the enemy’s approaches.

RIDER, in artillery carriages, a piece of wood, which has more height than breadth; the length being equal to that of the body of the axle-tree, upon which the side-pieces rest in a four-wheel carriage, such as the ammunition-wagon, block-carriage, and sling-wagon.

Rough Rider. See Rough.

RIDING, in Yorkshire, the militia regiment.
regiments, and those of the line, which bear the names of the several counties, are distinguished in Yorkshire by the word riding, which, according to Dr. Johnson, is a corruption of *trithing*; but, according to others, is taken from *radings*, districts or governments. *Radt* in Celtic, signifies ruler, or provincial minister. A counsellor of state was of old called *Radt*; the council was styled the *Raadst*. Thence whoever had the capital influence in council was said to rule the *raadst*; or in the present pronunciation, to *rule the roost*. The latter interpretation differs from Johnson, who says roost perhaps comes from *roist*, a tumult. The provincial corps, which are particularly known by the addition of Riding, consist of the 1st and 2d West Riding, the East Riding, and the North Riding regiments. These regiments are likewise distinguished from each other in the North by an allusion to their facing. Hence *green cuffs*, which are the 1st and 2d West Riding regiment; the *Beverley Ruffs*, which are the East; and the *Black Cuffs*, which are the North Yorkshire Riding.

**RIDING-Master**, in the cavalry, an officer whose duty it is to instruct the officers and soldiers in the management of their horses.

*To RIFLE*, to plunder; to rob.

*A RIFLE*, the thread, ray, or line, made in a rifled barrel.

*A RIFLED gun*, *arquebuse rayée*, Fr.

*A RIFLED piece*, a fire-arm which

*A RIFLED barrel*, has lines or exiguous canals within its barrel that run in a vermicular direction, and are more or less numerous, or more indented, according to the fancy of the artificer.—

With respect to the word itself, it does not appear to bear any other analogy to our common acceptance of the verb, than what may be vulgarly applied to the common practices of riflemen. It is, on the contrary, more immediately connected, in sense and signification, with an old obsolete word *to ray*; to streak: which comes from the French *rayer*.—

The rifled barrel possesses many advantages over the common one; which advantages are attributed to the threads or rays with which it is indented. These threads are sometimes cut in such a manner, that the line which commences on the right side of the breech, terminates on the left at the muzzle; by which means the ball acquires a rotary movement, revolving once and a half round its own axis before it quits the piece, and then boring through the air with a spiral motion. It is well known, that cannon balls, and shot out of common barrels, are impelled in a different manner.

The rifled barrels in America, during the last war, contained from 10 to 16 rays or threads; some had as few as four. Some persons have imagined, that those of 16 rays were the best, from a supposition, that by the air collapsing in the several grooves, the ball obtained more velocity. Mr. Robins, however, seems to differ in opinion, particularly with respect to the depth of the grooves. He observes, page 339 and 340, in his Tracts on Gunnery, that whatever tends to diminish the friction of these pieces, tends at the same time to render them more complete; and consequently it is a deduction from hence, that the less the rifles are indented, the better they are; provided they are just sufficient to keep the bullet from turning round the piece. It likewise follows, that the bullet ought to be no larger than to be just pressed by the rifles, for the easier the bullet moves in the piece, supposing it not to shift its position, the more violent and accurate will its flight be. It is necessary, that the sweep of the rifles should be in each part exactly parallel to each other. See Robins on Gunnery, page 328.

Paradès, a gunsmith, at Aix-le-Chapelle, who was reputed to be very ingenious in the construction of rifled barrels, used to compress his barrels in the center.

**RIFLEMEN**, experienced marksmen, armed with rifles. They formed the most formidable enemies during the last war in America, being posted along the American ranks, and behind hedges, &c. for the purpose of picking off the British officers; many of whom fell by the rifle in our contest with that country. They proved equally fatal in the hands of the French during the late war, and they have been wisely added to our establishment. Considerable improvements are daily made; and we shall hope to see not only additional corps of riflemen, but light infantry.
fantry battalions, like the chasseurs of the French, form a considerable portion of the British army. This has been called a murderous practice, and some persons have questioned how far it ought to be admitted in civilised warfare.

**A Corps of RIFLEMEN**, a regiment in the British service, which was raised at the close of the late war. General Manningham’s battalion, or 95th regiment, is of this description.

** Mounted Riflemen**, a corps of riflemen in the British service, dressed like husars, and mounted on horseback.

**RIGHT**, that which is ordered; that which justly belongs to one.

**To the Right About** (demi tour à droite, Fr.) make a half face to the right, slip the right foot back, so that the ball of the right toe is in contact with the heel of the left foot; slightly holding with the right hand the cartouch-box, and on the word face, come to the right about, that is, let your front be where your rear was.

**Rights**, (dright, Fr.) Certain, unalienable claims and privileges, which every individual civil as well as military, possesses in regulated community. Although there is not any specific mention made of these rights in the Articles of War, which constitute the military code of Great Britain yet they are manifestly known to exist, from the circumstance of a mode being pointed out, whereby an officer or soldier who thinks himself wronged may find redress. See WROONGS. See also British Pay.

**RIGOL.** See Circle.

**RING, circle, an orbicular line.**

**Ring of an Anchor**, that part of an anchor to which the cable is fastened.

**RINGS**, in artillery, are of various uses; such as the lashing-rings in travelling carriages, to lash the sponge, rammer, and ladle, as well as the tarpauling that covers the guns; the rings fastened to the breeching-bolts in ship-carriages; and the shift-rings to fasten the harness of the shaft-horse by means of a pin.

**Rings of a Gun**, circles of metal, of which there are five, viz.

- Base-ring, reinforce-ring, trunnion-ring, cornice-ring, and muzzle-ring. See Muller’s Artillery, page 50, for a full explanation of the several rings.

**RINGLEADER**, the head of any particular body of men acting in a riotous or mutinous manner.

**To Ring**, to make a sharp reverberating noise.

**Ring Ramrod**, a word of command, which is sometimes used at private inspections, to try the bottom of the barrel of a musquet.

**RINGORD, Fr.** a strong iron bar which is used in forges. It likewise means a thick pole with an iron ferrel.

**RINGRAVE, Fr.** pantaloons breeches.

**RIOT and Tumult**, sedition, civil insurrection, disturbance, &c. A breach of the peace committed by an assembled multitude. It frequently happens upon breaking out of riots or other disturbances, at a distance from the abode of any magistrate, that the officers commanding troops, have expressed doubts how far, and under what circumstances, they should be justified in proceeding to suppress such riots and disturbances, without the directions of a magistrate, or such other peace officers as are specified in the Riot Act.

In consequence of these doubts, an opinion has been taken upon the following case, which was laid before the Attorney General, on the 1st of April, 1801, by order of His Royal Highness the Commander in Chief.

**Case.**—Your opinion is requested whether in case of any sudden riot or disturbance, a constable or other peace officer, being under the degree of those described in the Riot Act, can call upon the military to suppress such riot or disturbance; or how far in the absence of any constable, or other peace officer at all, the military would be justified in proceeding to suppress any riot which might break out?

**Opinion.**—I understand the disturbances here meant to be such as to amount to the legal description of riots. The word disturbance has no legal and appropriate meaning, beyond a mere breach of the peace, which is not, however, the sense in which the word is used in this case; the case plainly importing a breach of the peace by an assembled multitude. In case of any such sudden riot and disturbance as above supposed, any of His Majesty’s subjects, without the presence of a peace-officer of any description, may arm themselves, and of course may use ordinary means of force.
to suppress such riot and disturbance.

—This was laid down in my Lord Chief Justice Popham's Reports, 1st, and Keyling 76, as having been resolved by all the judges in the 39th of Queen Elizabeth to be good law, and has certainly been recognized in Hawkins, and other writers on the crown law, and by various judges at different periods since. And what His Majesty's subjects may do, they also ought to do for the suppression of public tumult, when an exigency may require, that such means be resorted to; whatever any other class of His Majesty's subjects may allowably do in this particular, the military may unquestionably do also; by the common law, every description of peace officers may and ought to do, not only all that in him lies towards the suppressing riots, but may, and ought to command all other persons to assist therein.

However, it is by all means advisable to procure a justice of the peace to attend, and for the military to act under his immediate orders, when such attendance and the sanction of such orders can be obtained; as it not only prevents any disposition to unnecessary violence on the part of those who act in repelling the tumult, but it induces also, from the known authority of such magistrate, a more ready submission on the part of the rioters, to the measures used for that purpose; but still in cases of great and sudden emergency, the military, as well as all other individuals, may act without their presence, or without the presence of any other peace officer whatsoever.

(Signed) EDWARD LAW.

(Now Lord Ellenborough, Lord Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench.)

Lincoln's Inn, 1st April, 1801.

RIOT-Act, an act of parliament prohibiting riotous or tumultuous assemblies. This being read by a magistrate or police officer to the mob, if they do not in a given time disperse, or if they commit any act of violence on the property or persons of others, the soldier may fire on them, and reduce them by force of arms to quiet and obedience to the laws.

RIOTERS. Disturbers of the public peace; persons acting in open violation of good order; raising or creating sedition, &c. Soldiers are not to fire on rioters until the riot act has been read by a magistrate, or peace-officer, unless martial law is proclaimed; or in extraordinary cases. See RIOT.

RIPOSTÉ. Fr. A parry and thrust. It likewise signifies in a figurative sense, a keen reply, a close retort.

RIPOSTER, or RISPPOSTER, Fr. In fencing, to parry and thrust.

RISBAN, Fr. In fortification, a flat piece of ground upon which a fort is constructed for the defence and security of a port or harbour. It likewise means the fort itself. The famous Risban, of Dunkirk, was built entirely of brick and stone; having within its walls excellent barracks, a large cistern well supplied with water, magazines for stores, provisions, and ammunition. A ready communication was kept up with the town by means of the jetty, which corresponded with the wooden bridge that joined the entrance into the fort. The rampart was capable of receiving forty-six pieces of ordnance, which were disposed in three different alignments or tiers, owing to the triangular figure of the fort; so that a fire could be kept up on all sides.

To RISE. To break into commotions; to make insurrections.

To Rise. In a military sense, to make hostile attack; as the soldiers rose against their officers.

To rise. To obtain promotion.

To rise from the ranks. To obtain promotion by degrees, after having been in the ranks as a private soldier; a circumstance which has happened to some of the best generals in the world.

RISE. Increase of price; as the rise of commissions in the army upon the prospect of peace.

RISE, debout, Fr. A word of command among the French, when troops pay homage to the consecrated host.—See Sacrament.

RISSALA, or RUSSAULA, Ind. An independent corps of cavalry.

RISSALDAR, Ind. The commander of an independent corps of cavalry.

RIVAL, one who is in quest of the same thing which another pursues. A competitor.

RIVAL Power. Nations are so called when their relative situation and resources in men and money, &c. enable them to oppose each other; as Great Britain and France.

RIVALISER, Fr. To vie with another; to rival him. Rivaliser de courage.
courage, de cérénité, Fr. To vie in courage, in swiftness.
RIVALITÉ, Fr. See Emulation.
RIVER, (Rivière, Fr.) A land current of water bigger than a brook.—Vessels used upon navigable rivers may be impressed in cases of emergency by a warrant from any justice of the peace. See Mutiny Act, Sect. 46.

fordable RIVER. A river which may be passed without the assistance of any floating machines. In order to sound the ford, and to ascertain the state of it, men on horseback are first ordered to cross. By that means you will be able to know whether any obstacles have been thrown in the way by the enemy; for nothing is more easily effected. The passage of a ford may be rendered impracticable by throwing whole trees in, by tables or platforms covered with nails, and by stakes. The two latter impediments are the most dangerous.—But stakes are not easily fixed, and are consequently seldom used. When fords are embarrassed by them, it requires some time and trouble to clear the river, and it is equally difficult to get rid of the inconvenience that arises when wells have been sunk. Whenever there is reason to apprehend such obstacles, it is always best to reach the ford at dusk.

When the prince of Condé in 1567, resolved to cross the river Semois, the royalists, who were on the opposite side, endeavoured to prevent his passage by throwing quantities of madriers or thick planks that were nailed together, iron hoops and water-carts into the ford. The Huguenots or protestants, however, were not diverted from their purpose. Aubigné, a French writer, says, that on that occasion they placed 400 Arquebusiers upon the bank to protect the men that raked the ford.

This was certainly a singular method which was used to clear a ford, nor could it be done without much difficulty, and a considerable degree of danger. The cavalier Foulard has proposed a much safer, and a much easier way, by means of grappling hooks, tied to long ropes, which might be thrown into the ford. Yet even in this case, observes the writer, the object could not be accomplished if the river were broad, unless the persons employed in the undertaking be under the cover of so heavy a discharge of ordinance and musquetry, that the enemy would not be able to interrupt them, even from an intrenched position on the opposite bank.

With respect to caltrops, the removal of them, when properly distributed at the bottom of a ford, must be attended with great difficulty; for they must render the passage absolutely impracticable, unless they were to sink very deep into the mud and sand, and thus become useless. The men that first enter are in this case the only persons incommode, but the rest may follow without much hazard.

It sometimes happens, that the bottom of a stream or rivulet is firm and gravelly; when this occurs, the greatest precautions must be taken to escape the effects of caltrops, which would be extremely hurtful to any persons that might attempt to cross. In order to obviate their mischievous consequences, and to render them in a manner useless, a good stock of hurdles must be provided. The soldiers will hand these to one another, force them into the water, and then cover them with stones.

When one or two fords in a river are so situated, that several battalions cannot cross them upon one front, it is then highly prudent to throw a bridge over, either above or below the ford; for a swell may intervene and render it otherwise impassable: add to which, you have the advantage of getting a greater number of troops over at once.

In order to effect a passage for his army over the river Segre, Caesar gave directions that ditches, thirty feet broad, should be dug in such parts of the banks as might with ease receive the water out of the stream, and render it fordable. Having accomplished this object, he found no difficulty in reaching Petreus, who, being in the daily fear of wanting provisions and forage for his men, was on the eve of quitting his position and marching forwards.

The passage of the Granicus by Alexander the Great, is likewise mentioned in history, as an instance of bold enterprise. But however celebrated that act may be in ancient records, we shall not be thought partial to the moderns when we state, that the passage of the river Holowitz by Charles XII. of Sweden was equally bold and well managed.

The passage of the Tagliamento by Bonaparte,
Bonaparte, during his campaign in Italy, is the most celebrated of the present day.

RIVERAINS, Fr. Persons who inhabit the banks of rivers. By a regulation, which was in force during the French monarchy, all persons, so situated, were obliged to leave a space 18 feet broad at least, between their houses or huts, and the bank, for the convenience of navigation. A set of men, called Baliseurs, were paid to see this regulation strictly complied with.

RIVET, a fastening pin clenched at both ends, so as to hold an intermediate substance with more firmness.

RIVETING-plates, in gun-carriages, small square thin pieces of iron, through which the ends of the bolts pass, and are riveted upon them.

RIZAMÉDAR, Ind. an officer commanding a small body of horse.

RO, Ind. In Indian music means quick.

ROAD, (Chemin, Fr.) For the manner in which roads should be reconnoitred for military purposes, see Reconnoitring, also page 231 of the Little Bombardier.

Military Roads. (Chemins faits pour la marche des troupes, Fr.) Roads which are made of a certain breadth, and through a country, susceptible of defence, for the convenience of troops upon the march.

ROBE-courte, Fr. literally means a short gown. Provost-marshals, under-bailiffs, vice-seneschals, their lieutenants, and various other persons, who are occasionally employed in camps and garrisons, to assist the military in maintaining internal good order and discipline, are called in France Officiers de Robe-courte.

ROC, Fr. A rock.

Roc de lance, Fr. In tournaments the wooden part of a lance is so called.

ROCHER, Fr. A large rock; derived from roc, and generally bearing the same import.

Roche à feu, Fr. A solid composition, which gradually consumes when it has been lighted, but which emits a very broad and lively flame, and is not extinguished by water.

ROCKET as used in India. See Fumetée.

ROCKETS. See Laboratory.

ROD. See Measuring.

RODS, or rammers, instruments either of iron or wood, to drive home the charges of muskets, carabines, and pistols.

Rods. Sticks fastened to sky-rockets, to make them rise in a straight line.

RODOMONT, Fr. A bully. An unmilitary character.

Faire le Rodomont, Fr. To bully, to talk loudly, without possessing the real spirit of a man, or soldier.

RODOMONTADE, Fr. Rodomontade. The act of bullying, vain boasting or arrogating to ourselves qualities which we do not possess. A French writer has very justly observed, that there cannot be a greater defect in the character of an officer than an overweening display of real or fictitious talents. The word is derived from one Rodomont, the hero or principal character in an old romance, who makes himself inconspicuously ridiculous in this way.

ROGUE'S March. See March.

ROHILLAS, Ind. A tribe of Alghans inhabiting the country north of the Ganges, as far as the Suba of Oude to the eastward.

ROI, Fr. King.

ROI d'armes, Fr. See King at Arms.

Le ROI s'avise, Fr. The king will consider. By these words written on a bill presented to the king by the parliament, is understood his absolute denial of that bill in civil terms, and it is thereby wholly made null and void.

Le ROI le veut, Fr. The king is willing. A term in which the royal assent is signified by the clerk of the parliament to the public bills; giving authority to those, which before were of no force or virtue.

De Par le ROI, Fr. A particular form which always preceded official papers or declarations, that were issued during the French monarchy. The expression was not confined to acts which came directly from the king, but was frequently used by persons subordinate to him; as De Par son Altesse. Bonaparte has revived the term, with the addition of Empereur; as, de par l'Empereur et ROI.

ROKER, Ind. Cash.

ROLE, Fr. A muster-roll, state, or return. The word Rôle is used among the French indiscriminately to signify, either the effective force of an army,
army, or the actual quantity of stores and ammunition which the magazines contain.

To roll in duty. An old term which is seldom used at present, although extremely appropriate, and which corresponds with the French term Rouler. It signifies to take one's turn upon duty, and to be subject to a fixed roster according to rank and precedence. When officers of the same rank take their turns upon duty, pursuant to some established roster, as captains with captains, and subalterns with subalterns, and command according to the seniority of their commissions, they are said to roll in duty.

To roll. To continue one uniform beat of the drum, without variations, for a certain length of time. When a line is advancing in full front, or in echelons, for any considerable distance, the music of one regulating battalion may, at intervals, be permitted to play for a few seconds at a time, and the drums of the other battalions may be allowed occasionally to roll; drums likewise roll when troops are advancing to charge.

Long-roll. A beat of drum by which troops are assembled at any particular spot of rendezvous or parade.

Muster-roll, is a return, given by paymasters, on which are written the names of both officers and soldiers of the regiment, troop, or company, with their country, age, and service.

Squad-roll. A list containing the names of each particular squad. Every non-commissioned officer and corporal, who is entrusted with the care and management of a squad, must have a roll of this kind.

Size-roll. A list containing the names of all the men belonging to a troop or company, with the height or stature of each specifically marked. Every serjeant keeps a regular size-roll, and every captain of a troop or company ought to have one likewise.

Roll-call. The calling over the names of the several men who compose any part of a military body. This necessary duty is done by serjeants of companies, morning and evening, in every well regulated corps. Hence: Morning Roll-call, and Evening Roll-call. On critical occasions, and in services that require promptitude and exertion, frequent roll-calls should be made.

Roller. A small wheel placed at the foot of the hammer of a gun, or pistol, lock, in order to lessen the friction of it against the hammer or feather spring.

Roller likewise means a long piece of wood which is rounded and made taper to suit the regulated size of a military tail.

Roller. In surgery, a long and broad ligature, usually made of linen cloth, for binding, surrounding, and containing the parts of the human body, and keeping them in their proper situation, thereby disposing them to a state of health and redintegration.

Rollers, are round pieces of wood of about nine inches diameter, and four feet long, used in moving pieces of artillery from one place to another.

Romaine, Fr. A steelyard or balance for weighing things of various weights by one single weight, as from one single pound to 112 pounds.

Romans. Before the establishment of the mess at the Horse Guards, which was formerly paid out of the king's privy purse, and is now charged in the extraordinaries of the army, the captain of the guard at St. James's, kept a table for the subalterns attached to that duty. In order to enable the captains to support these expences, a certain number of men were allowed to work in the metropolis, on condition that they left their pay in their officers hands. These men were called Romans.

Roman Catholics. A name given to all such christians as acknowledge the Pope's supremacy. The English and Irish Roman Catholics were formerly subjected to very severe restrictions on account of their religious opinions. The penal code has, however, been gradually relaxed in their favour during the present reign; so much so, that persons of that persuasion may not only enter into the navy, and inlist in the army, without swearing, as heretofore, that they are protestants; but they may hold commissions in either establishment, be called to the bar, and participate with their fellow countrymen in all the rights and privileges of English or Irishmen, with the bare exception of representing others in parliament, or being represented themselves.

Rompré, Fr. To break. Rompré
Rompri un bataillon, Fr. In military evolutions to break a battalion into a given number of parts for the purpose of attacks, &c.

Rompri en Colonne, Fr. To break into column.

Rondache, Fr. A sort of shield which the French formerly used, and which is still carried by the Spaniards.

Ronde, in fortification, a round tower, sometimes erected at the foot of a bastion.

Rondes, Fr. See Rounds.

Ronde Major, Fr. Town-major's round. So called from the town-major visiting the different quarters of a garrison during the night. This round, in some degree, corresponds with our grand round.

Rondes roulantes, Fr. Rounds that are made by officers, serjeants, or corporals, over a certain part of the ramparts. These agree with our visiting rounds. The French say, Qui va la? Who goes there? technically with us, Who comes there?

Ronde d'officier, Fr. Officer's round.

Chemin des Rondes, Fr. A path marked out for the convenience of the rounds.

Ronde de gouverneur, Fr. The governor's round.

The French method of ascertaining the nature of the several rounds is by challenging in the same manner that we do, viz. Qui va la? Who goes there? This must be said sufficiently loud for the main guard to hear. He is instantly answered—Ronde de gouverneur, Governor's rounds; Ronde Major, Major's rounds, or grand round, and so on, according to the nature of the rounds. The sentry, who stands posted near the guard-house, after having cried out—Demandez là; stop there: or, as we say, stop round; cries out again, Caporal hors de la garde, Corporal of the guard. The corporal of the guard with his sword drawn, according to the French custom, repeats, Qui va la? Who comes there? He is answered ronde, round. He then says, avance qui a l'ordre; let him advance who has the parole or countersign; or, as we say, advance one, and give the countersign.

Ronde des officiers de picquet, Fr. Piquet rounds.

Ron des chez les Turcs, Fr. See Turkish rounds.

Rondelle, Fr. A small round shield, which was formerly used by light armed infantry. It likewise means a part of the carriage of a gun.

Rondeliers, Fr. Soldiers who were armed with rondelles, or small wooden shields, covered with leather, were anciently so called.

Room. Space; extent of space, great or small. Any part of a building for the accommodation of individuals; as barracks room, orderly room; viz. the orderly room at St. James's, mess room, guard room, officers' rooms, soldiers' rooms, and store-room, for the duty of the regiment.

Rooms, in a military sense, are those parts of a building or barrack which by specific instructions, the different barrack masters must provide and furnish, for the accommodation of the king's troops in Great Britain or elsewhere. The schedule, as published by authority, describes the number of rooms allowed in barracks for the commissioned, warrant, and non-commissioned officers, and private men, to be as follows:

Cavalry rooms. Field officers, each two ditto; captains, each one ditto; subalterns, staff, and quarter-masters, each one ditto: the serjeants of each troop of dragoons, and the corporals of each troop of horse, one ditto; eight rank and file, one ditto; officer's mess, two ditto.

Infantry rooms. Field officers, each two ditto; captains, each one ditto; two subalterns, one ditto; staff, each one ditto; twelve non-commissioned officers, and private men, one ditto; officer's mess, two ditto; serjeant-major, and quarter-master serjeant, one ditto. When there are a sufficient number of rooms in a barrack, one may be allowed to each subaltern of infantry.

Rope. A cord; a string; a halter; a cable; a hauler.

Rope of sand. A phrase in familiar use to signify disunion, want of adhesion and continuity.—Thus the colonel and the captains of a regiment disagreeing may be called a rope of sand.

Ropes, are of various lengths and thickness, according to the uses they are made for; such as drags for the gin, for the sling-cart and wagon, &c.

Drag-Ropes, in the artillery, by which
which the soldiers pull the guns backwards or forwards, both at practice and in an engagement, are of the following dimensions, viz.—For a 24-pounder, 54 feet long, with the loop-holes for the pegs included, and 5½ inches in circumference; for 18 and 12-pounders, 48 feet long, and four inches in circumference; for 6 and 3-pounders, 39 feet long, and 1-7/8 inches in circumference. For 13 and 10-inch howitzers, 45 feet long, and 6½ inches in circumference; for 8-inch howitzers, 48 feet long, and four inches in circumference; for all other howitzers, 35 feet long, and two inches in circumference.

**Picket-Ropes.** See Picket.

**ROSETTE.** An ornamental bunch of black riband, or cut leather, which is worn both by officers and soldiers in the British service, on the upper part of their cues.

**ROSETTES.** Two small bunches of ribands that are attached to the loops by which the gorget of an officer is suspended upon his chest. The colour of the riband must correspond with the facing of the uniform. The French use the same word.

**ROSE-buds.** See Nails.

**ROSEIN.** See Resin.

**ROSTER, in military affairs,** is a plan or table, by which the duty of officers, entire battalions, and squadrons, is regulated.

**ROSTRAL Crown.** (Couronne Rostrale, Fr.) A crown which was bestowed upon the Roman sailor who should first leap on board an enemy’s ship.

**ROSTRUM.** A Latin word which literally means the beak or bill of a bird, and figuratively the prow of a vessel. There was in a public place in ancient Rome, a tribunal ornamented with various prows of ships, which the Romans had taken from the Antiqui. The orators who harangued the people in public, mounted this Rostrum. Hence the Roman phrase. To speak from above the rostra or prows.

**ROUAGE, Fr.** The wheelwork of a carriage, &c.

**Bois de ROUAGE, Fr.** Timber to make wheels with.

**ROUANNE, Fr.** A concave iron instrument, which is used for the purpose of enlarging the hollow of a pump. It likewise signifies a mark.

**ROUANNER, Fr.** To bore; also to mark casks.

**ROUE, Fr.** A licensed libertine; one whose principles of morality are considerably relaxed, but who is not sufficiently vitiated in his manners to be excluded from society. The French make a familiar use of the term, and do not affix any degree of stigma to it. They say, on the contrary, *Cest un aimable Roué;* he is an agreeable, gay fellow.

**ROUE, Fr. Wheel.**

**ROUE de Feu, Fr.** An artificial firework. See Soleil Tournant.

**ROUET, Fr.** A small solid wheel, made of steel, which was formerly fixed to the pans of blunderbusses and pistols, for the purpose of firing them off.

**Arguebuses et Pistolets à ROUET, Fr.** Blunderbusses and pistols to which a small wheel was attached. These firearms are now very little known; some, however, are still to be found in arsenals; being kept there merely for curiosity.

**ROUGES, boulets Rouges. Fr. Red-hot-balls.**

**ROUGH Rider.** A person who is indispensably necessary in every cavalry regiment. He is a sort of non-commissioned officer, and should always associate with the serjeants in preference to the private men.

**Rough Riders** are the assistants of the riding master, and one should always be appointed to each troop. The necessary qualifications, for every Rough Rider (independently of a thorough knowledge of horsemanship) are activity, zeal and good conduct.

No Rough Rider ought to be an officer’s servant, as his situation puts him above the level of common men.

**Rough Riders** are generally paid five guineas a year as a compensation for their trouble; they likewise receive 10s. 6d. from every officer who learns to ride, and from every officer who has a horse broke at the riding school. This money is divided equally amongst them.

Every Rough Rider must provide himself with a proper jacket for the riding school business, according to the pattern fixed upon in the regiment.

When it is found absolutely necessary to employ non-commissioned officers as
Rough Riders, they must do as much troop duty as they can.

To Rough Horses, a word in familiar use among the drogoons to signify the act of breaking in horses, so as to adapt them to military purposes.

To Rough it, a cant word used among military men, signifying to face every sort of hardship.

ROULEAU, Fr. A cylindrical piece of wood with iron ferrets at both ends, and with mortises fitted to the end of the lever.

ROULEAU de Cartouche, Fr. A cylindrical solid piece of wood, which is used in making cartridges.

ROULEAUX, Fr. Round bundles of fascines which are tied together. They serve to cover men, when the works are pushed close to a besieged town, or to mask the head of a work.

ROULEMENTS, Fr. The several rolls or ruffles which are beat upon a drum, as preparations for exercise, &c.

ROULER, Fr. To be subject to a fixed roster according to rank and precedence.

ROULER, Fr. To be in motion; to be stirring. The French say figuratively—L'argent roule, money is stirring, or in plentiful circulation. They also say, speaking of any particular point—tout roule là-dessus, that is the main point.

ROULIER, Fr. A wagoner.

ROUND. From the French ronde. In military matters, a visitation; a personal attendance through a certain circuit of ground, to see that all is well. A round consists, in the ordinary way, of a detachment from the main-guard, of an officer or a non-commissioned officer and 6 men, who go round the rampart of a garrison, to listen if anything be stirring without the place, and to see that the sentinels be diligent upon their duty, and all in order. In strict garrisons the rounds go every half hour. The sentinels are to challenge at a distance, and to port their arms as the round passes. All guards turn out, challenge, exchange the parole, and present arms, &c.

ROUNDS, are ordinary and extraordinary. The ordinary rounds are three: the town-major's round, the grand round, and the visiting round.

Manner of going the Rounds. When the town-major goes his round, he comes to the main-guard, and demands a sergeant and four or six men to escort him to the next guard; and when it is dark, one of the men is to carry a light.

As soon as the sentry at the guard perceives the round coming, he shall give notice to the guard, that they may be ready to turn out when ordered; and when the round is advanced within about 90 or 80 paces of the guard, he is to challenge briskly; and when he is answered by the sergeant who attends the round, Town-major's round, he is to say, Stand, round! and port his arms: after which he is to call out immediately, Sergeant, turn out the guard! town-major's round. Upon the sentry calling the sergeant to turn out the guard, the latter immediately draws up the men in good order with shouldered arms, and the officer places himself at the head of it, with his sword drawn. He then orders the sergeant and four or six men to advance towards the round, and challenge; the sergeant of the round is to answer, Town-major's round; upon which the sergeant of the guard replies, Advance, sergeant, with the parole; at the same time ordering his men to rest their arms. The sergeant of the round advances alone, and gives the sergeant of the guard the parole in his ear, that none else may hear it; during which period, the sergeant of the guard holds the spear of his halbert or pike at the other's breast. The sergeant of the round then returns to his post, whilst the sergeant of the guard, leaving his men to keep the round from advancing, gives the parole to his officer. This being found right, the officer orders his sergeant to return to his men; says, Advance, town-major's round; and orders the guard to port their arms; upon which the sergeant of the guard orders his men to wheel back from the centre, and form a lane, through which the town-major is to pass (the escort remaining where it was) and go up to the officer and give him the parole, laying his mouth to his ear. The officer holds the point, of his sword at the town-major's breast while he gives him the parole.

Grand Rounds. The rounds which are gone by general officers, governors, commandants
commandants, or field officers. When there are no officers of the day on picket, the officer of the main guard in garrison may go to the grand rounds.

**Visiting Rounds.** Rounds gone by captains, subalterns, and the town-major of garrisons.

The grand rounds generally go at midnight; the visiting rounds at intermediate periods, between sunset and the reveille. The grand rounds receive the parole, and all other rounds give it to the guard.

There are also a species of bastard rounds, (if we may be permitted the expression,) which are gone by a corporal and a file of men; and which are in reality nothing more than a patrole. When challenged they answer, *Pat. Rounds,* i.e. *Patrole Rounds.*

N.B. The governor of a garrison can order the rounds to go as often as he may judge expedient. Extraordinary rounds are resorted to when any particular event or occurrence is expected, and in cases of tumult, &c.

The going the rounds, though generally considered among the inferior duties of military discipline, ought to be most scrupulously attended to; and we are sorry to have the opinion of many good officers with us when we assert, that a specific regulation is wanted upon this head. It will be observed, that we call the duty when done by the town-major, &c. *round,* not *rounds,* as is erroneously practised.

**Turkish Rounds.** The Turks are in the habit of going the rounds like other nations, for the purpose of ascertaining, whether sentries are alert and vigilant on their posts. They call the rounds *rol.* They start from the guard-house, and the person who goes with them has no other weapon of defence than a stick in his hand. He is accompanied by a corporal who carries a lantern. He observes whether at his approach the sentry instantly cries out, *Jedger Allah,* which signifies Good God. If any sentry should be found asleep, or be backward in crying out *Jedger Allah,* he is put into prison, and there severely bastinadoed. The Turks never give a parole or countersign, in camp or in garrison.

The design of *rounds* is not only to visit the guards, and keep the sentinels alert, but likewise to discover what passes in the outworks, and beyond them.

**Round-Major, (ronde-major, Fr.)** the round which the town-major goes in a fortified place. The officers of the guard receive him with two musketeers, and give him the word once, when he goes that round.

When the governor of a town goes his *round,* the officers turn out the guard without arms, and send four musketeers to receive him at ten paces distance, and give him the word as often as he chooses to demand it. All other rounds, without exception, are obliged to give the word to the corporal of the guard.

**Round-Parades.** See Parades.

**Round-Robin.** A compact of honour which officers enter into, (when they have cause of complaint against their superior officer) to state their grievances, and to endeavour to obtain redress, without subjecting one more than another to the odium of being a leader or chief mover. The term is a corruption of *Ruban roud,* which signifies a round ribon. It was usual among French officers, when they signed a remonstrance, to write their names in a circular form, so that it was impossible to ascertain who signed first. Hence to sign a *Round Robin* against any person, is for any specific number of men to sign, one and all, a remonstrance against him. Colonels of regiments have been sometimes treated in this manner. Great judgment, operating upon motives grounded in strong facts, should always influence on these nice occasions.

**Rounds** in firing ordnance or musquetry. A general discharge of cannon or fire-arms is so called. The French use the word *salvez* on this occasion; *ronde* being confined to the act of visiting posts, &c.

**ROUPIE, Fr.** rupee. An Indian coin, equal to two shillings and three pence British.

**ROURA, Ind.** A term used to express Lord, Sir, Master, Worship.

**ROUSE.** One of the bugle-horn soundings for duty. It is derived from the German word which signifies To turn out.

**ROUT, (direoute, Fr.)** confusion of 5 H 2 an
an army or body of men defeated or dispersed.

To ROUT, to put to the ROUT. To defeat, to throw into confusion, &c.

ROUTE, (route, Fr.) a term used in military matters to express the destination of one or more bodies of armed men. The destination of the troops originates in the Cabinet; their specific movements are planned by the quarterly-master-general, who makes minutes thereof for the secretary at war, the latter giving the stamp of office, and sending them into circulation: to him falls the task of accounting to parliament for the expenses of military movements in Great Britain. The route, or order for a regiment to march, is expressed in the following manner:

It is his Majesty's pleasure, that—

Wherein the Civil Magistrates, and all others concerned, are to be assisting in providing quarters, impressing carriages, and otherwise as there shall be occasion.

Given at the War Office, this ——— 18

By his Majesty's command,

Secretary at War.

In like manner the war department has the superintendence of the military in the colonies; and here it may be of use to say, that letters in the first instance, (unless the particular address be well known,) for the Windward Islands, (Demerary and the conquered Dutch colonies excepted,) must be sent to Barbadoes; for the Leeward to Jamaica; for the Mediterranean to Gibraltar; America, Halifax; and for the East Indies, to the chief places of the respective presidencies.

Marche Route, Fr. route of march. The French use this term in contradistinction to march manœuvre, march in manœuvring.

Pas de Route, Fr. stepping at ease, or marching with the least possible restraint.

ROUTIER, Fr. a ratter. The French say figuratively, c'est un vieux routier, he is an old stager.

ROUTIERS, FR. Routier signifies, literally, a ratter, or a man constantly plying upon the road. Routiers, according to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, were formerly a gang of adventurers or banditti in Brabant; who, by degrees, formed themselves into armed troops and companies, and were hired by those who paid them best. These Brabançons were called Cotereaux and Routiers, because they were constantly lurking about the skirts and heights, &c., of places, and in the highways.

ROUTINE, Fr. This word has been adopted by us in the same sense that it is familiarly used by the French. It signifies capacity, or the faculty of arranging; a certain method in business, civil or military, which is rather acquired by habit and practice than by regular study and rule. We say familiarly the routine of business.

ROUVERIN, Fr. brittle iron, such as easily breaks when it is committed to the forge.

ROWANNA or Rowinda, Ind. a passport or certificate from the collector of the customs.

ROWEL, (molette, Fr.) the pointed part of a horseman's spur, which is made in a circular form. Rowel, in surgery, (étón, Fr.) a sort of issue which is made in man or horse, by drawing a skein of silk or thread through the nape of the neck.

ROXANA, Ind. an Indian term, expressive of great magnificence, splendour.

ROY, Ind. a Hindoo prince.

ROYAL, (Royal, Fr.) belonging to a king; kingly.

Royal assent, the assent of the king to an act which has passed both houses of Parliament.

The term Royal is likewise applied, by way of distinction, to corps and establishments, viz.

Royal Train of Artillery, Royal Wagon Train.

Royal Army, an army marching with heavy cannon, capable of besieging a strong fortification, &c.


Royal parapet, in fortification, a bank about three toises broad, and six feet high, placed upon the brink of the rampart, towards the enemy: its use is to cover those who defend the rampart.

Royal Academy. See Academy.


Royal Poverty. According to Bari,
ley, a modern nickname for geneva or genevre, vulgarly called gin. The epithet royal is affixed to it, because, when beggars are drunk, they think themselves as great as kings. There is no doubt but they are much happier, when under the influence of that intoxicating liquor.

ROYALS, in artillery, are a kind of small mortars, which carry a shell whose diameter is 5.5 inches. They are mounted on beds the same as other mortars.

THE ROYALS. This term is applied to the First Regiment of Foot, which is likewise sometimes called Royal Scotch and Royals. It is supposed to be the oldest regular corps in Europe. The men originally went out of Scotland and entered into the French service. They afterwards returned to England in 1639, during the reign of Charles the First, and were stiled, The First, or Royal Regiment of Foot. A curious anecdote is related respecting the precedence claimed by this corps over the Regiment de Picardie, in point of standing. Having had frequent arguments on the subject, a wag belonging to the Royal Scotch, (who called themselves Pontius Pilot's Guards on account of their boasted antiquity) observed, that his own corps must be mistaken, for had the Royals done duty at the sepulchre, the holy body never could have left the spot; implying that the British sentinel would not have slept upon their posts; whereas those of the Regiment de Picardie did.

ROYALISE, &c, Fr. brought over to the royal cause; attached to the kingly dignity.

ROYALISER, Fr. an expression which has been made use of since the commencement of the French revolution; it signifies to weaken the mind from revolutionary principles, &c. Thus Bonaparte is said to have royalized Jacobinism, i.e. to have given to the existing government of France that unity of action, which constitutes the superiority of monarchy; and, at the same time, to have preserved all the means of a revolutionary system, by flattering the ambition and the thirst of gain by which foreign Jacobinism is actuated.

ROYALISME, Fr. an attachment to the royal cause. The French used to say, figuratively, ils sentent le royalisme, they are attached to the royal cause.

A ROYALIST, (Royaliste, Fr.) one who is of the king's or queen's party, and who maintains his or her interest. Hence, the French royalists in La Vendée.

ROZEENDAR, Ind. a person holding a yearly pension.

ROZENADAR, Ind. one who receives an allowance daily.

ROZENAMA, Ind. a day-book.

RUBBY, Ind. a division of the year, containing the months of chaite or 3d month, from the 11th of March to the 10th of April. By sac or 4th month, from the 11th of April to the 11th of May. Icet or 5th month; Assam or 6th month, from the 12 of June to the 13th of July. Sohan or 7th month, in some manner, agrees with July and August. Baudoon, or the same as Icet, from the 11th of May to the 12th of June. The other half of the year is called Kireef.

RUDIMENTS, the first principles, the elements of any particular science. Hence—

RUDIMENTS of war, the first principles or elements of war; as the drill, manual, and platoon exercises, manœuvre, &c. &c.

RUE, Fr. street.

RUEIR, Fr. to fling; to jirk.

RUEIR DE GRANDEL COUPS, Fr. to strike hard, or with violence.

RUFFLE, (Roulement, Fr.) a term used among the drummers of a British regiment, to signify a sort of vibrating sound, which is made upon a drum, and is less loud than the roll.

'To beat a Ruffle, to make a low vibrating noise upon the drum. It is generally practised in paying a military compliment to a general officer, and at military funerals.

A lieutenant-general is entitled to three ruffles.

A major-general to two ruffles.

A brigadier-general to one ruffle.

RUG, (couerture velue, Fr.) a coarse nappy coverlet used for mean beds. Each set of bedding which is provided for regimental hospitals has one rug.

RUILLER, Fr. to establish marks for the purpose of rendering surfaces and places correct.

RUINE,
RUINE, Fr. literally signifies ruin. It is used by the French in a warlike sense.

Battre en RIUINE, Fr. to defeat an enemy in such a manner as to destroy all his means of taking the field again.

RUINER un pays, Fr. to lay waste a country.

RUINER la réputation d’un officier, Fr. to defame, or undermine the character of an officer.

RUINES, Fr. ruins.

RULE, in a general sense, government, sway, empire.—In a more confined one, canon, precept, direction.—Hence, Rules and Regulations for the Government of the Army.

To RULE over, to govern; to command.

RULE, an instrument by which RULER, lines are drawn.

RULES and articles. Under this term may be considered the military code of the British army. They comprehend 24 sections, divided into separate articles, and contain the substance of the mutiny act, which passes annually for the government of all the king’s forces.

For rules relating to courts-martial, in cases where the life-guards and horse-guards, likewise where the foot-guards are concerned, see Articles of War, page 53; and for the rest of the army, see page 71, &c. &c.

Rules and Regulations. Two books so entitled, which have been industriously and ably compiled by General David Dundas, from Saidern, &c. and which are published by authority, for the discipline of the British army. One book specifically relates to the formations, field exercises and movements of the infantry; the other to those of the cavalry; and both are ordered to be strictly observed and practised, without any deviation therefrom.

RUM, de vent, Fr. point of the compass.

RUM or run, Fr. the hold of a ship.

RUMOUR, a desultory, loose report of what may, or may not be.

To spread false RUMOURS, to circulate things without the foundation of reality. Reports, &c. are sometimes circulated by means of spies, deserters, &c. for the purpose of covering some particular design, or intended operation. Rumours of this kind should be cautiously listened to by the commanding officer of the army through which they are spread. It sometimes happens that individuals, through wantonness, or from some other motive, create alarms among their own people by anticipating some looked for or dreaded event. This offence is not only punishable by the civil law, but, being contrary to good order and discipline, is rigidly so in every army. A singular circumstance of this kind occurred at Colchester in 1797. During the alarm which universally prevailed at that time, especially along the coast of Essex, a sergeant belonging to a militia regiment, unwittingly, (for we know he did not do it wilfully) said in the hearing of some soldiers, that the French would land at Ipswich on the Sunday following! This expression soon spread among the inhabitants of the place, and a formal complaint was made to the general of the district. The offender having originally belonged to the line, and bearing the best of characters, was so far considered, as not to be tried by a general court-martial; but, for the sake of example, he was ordered to be escorted to the church nearest to the coast, and on a Sunday to appear in the porch, and there ask pardon of the inhabitants for the alarm he had created. The orderly books of the different regiments that were then quartered at Colchester, bear testimony to the accuracy of this article; and we insert it as a caution to others.

To RUN the gantlope, to undergo a punishment which has been allotted for considerable offences in some foreign countries. When a soldier is sentenced to run the gantlope, the regiment is drawn out in two ranks facing each other; each soldier, having a stick in each hand, lashes the criminal as he runs along, naked from the waist upwards. While he runs, the drums beat at each end of the ranks. Sometimes he runs 3, 5, or 7 times, according to the nature of the offence. The major is on horseback, and takes care that each soldier does his duty. This punishment is not known in the British service.

RUNNING-fire.—See Fire.

RUPEE, a silver coin which varies
in its value according to the part of India in which it is current. Rupees struck by the English are generally worth two shillings and three pence.

RUPTURE, a disease which disqualifies a man from being admitted as a soldier; but as some men are capable of producing and reducing a rupture with great ease, they should not be discharged in slight cases, as by the use of a truss they may be enabled to do duty for a long time.

RUPTURE. This word signifies the commencement of hostilities between any two or more powers.

RUSE, Fr. cunning, trick, ingenuity. It is applied to military matters, and signifies stratagem.

RUSER, Fr. to make use of stratagems. Il est permis de ruser à la guerre, it is lawful to make use of stratagems in war.

RUSES de guerre, Fr. stratagems of war. See Stratagem.

RUSOOT, Ind. a tribe of Hindoos, whose particular duty is the care of horses.

RUSSUMDAR, Ind. a person deriving a particular perquisite.

RUSTRE, Fr. according to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, a lance, which the ancients used in prize-fighting, was so called. We have carefully examined our Latin authorities for its derivation, but the only word that seems to approach its meaning is.

RUTRUM, which Adam Littleton thus interprets: an instrument wherein sand or such like is dug out. A mattock, a spade, a shovel, a pick-axe, a hoe; also an instrument wherein sand is mingled and beaten with lime, to make mortar with. Also a strickle.

RUTTIER, a direction of the road or course at sea.

RYAL, a Spanish coin, worth sixpence three farthings English money.

RYET, or Ryot, Ind. a general name given in India to the lower order of people, particularly the cultivators of the ground.

RYET, or Ryot Lands, Ind. lands farmed out and cultivated by the tenant.

SABBATII, the seventh day; set apart from works of labour to be employed in piety. See Divine Service.

SABLE, Fr. sand.

SABLIERE, Fr. This word signifies a pit from which sand is taken. It sometimes means a large joist with holes in it, to admit smaller beams in ceilings, &c.

SABLONIERE, Fr. a sand-pit.

SABORD, Fr. a port-hole.

SABRE, (sabre, Fr.) a kind of sword, or schmetar, with a very broad and heavy blade, thick at the back, and a little falcated, or crooked towards the point. It is generally worn by the heavy cavalry and dragoons. The grenadiers, belonging to the whole of the French infantry, are likewise armed with sabres.

The blade is not so long as that of a small sword, but it is nearly twice as broad. French hussars wear the curved ones somewhat longer than those of the grenadiers. The time will, perhaps, arrive when it may be thought advantageous to the service to arm the British grenadiers with this useful and formidable weapon.

SABRE (coupe de plat de.) During the French monarchy, it was usual to punish dragoons for small offences, by giving them a certain number of blows with the flat side of a sword. A coup de sabre likewise signifies any stroke or blow, which is made with a sword or sabre.

SABRE-TASCHE, from the German sabel, sabre, and tasche, pocket. An appointment
ment or part of accoutrement which has been adopted amongst us for the use and convenience of dragoon officers. It consists of a pocket which is suspended from the sword-belt on the left side, by three slings, to correspond with the belt. It is usually of an oblong shape, scolloped at the bottom, with a device in the center, and a broad lace round the edge. The colour of it always corresponds with that of the uniform. The sabre tasche which is worn in the 10th regiment of light dragoons, commanded by his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, is of a royal blue cloth, with an imperial crown and feathers, the motto *Ich Dien*, I serve; and the badge G. R. reversed. It is edged with white silver lace; the pocket under the flap of red leather, with red slings stitched with silver, waistbelt of the same, with silver buckles.

**SABRER**, Fr. to cut to pieces.

**SAC d’une ville**, Fr. the storming of a town.

*Mettre une ville à Sac*, Fr. to give a town up to the plunder of the soldiers.

**Sac**, Fr. a bag.

**Sac à poudre**, Fr. a bag of gunpowder. These bags are frequently used in war, for the purpose of intimidating an enemy, and of setting fire to places. They are of different sizes and dimensions; some to be thrown by the hand, and others out of a mortar. A French work, intituled *Le Bombardier Français*, gives a full account of both.

**Sac à terre**, Fr. a sand-bag, or a bag filled with earth.

**Sac à amorce**, Fr. a small leather bag which is used for the purpose of carrying gunpowder to the different batteries to prime the pieces.

**Sac à laine**, Fr. a bag made of, or stuffed with wool and other soft materials. It is larger than a sand-bag.—Every army should be provided with a certain quantity of these bags, in order to supply the want of soil on critical occasions.

*Un hâtre Sac*, Fr. a knapsack. See Havresack.

**Cul de Sac**, Fr. a street or passage that has no outlet.

**SACCADE**, Fr. in the manège, a violent check or jirk, which the horseman gives his horse by drawing both the reins very suddenly. This is practised when the horse bears too heavy on the hand; but it ought to be done with great caution, as the frequency of it must eventually spoil the horse's mouth.

**SACHET**, Fr. a pouch. It likewise signifies a bag in the diminutive sense. A satchel.

**SACHETS de mitrailles**, Fr. small bags filled with grape-shot, which are afterwards fired from cannon, or thrown out of mortars.

**SACHETS de balles de plomb**, Fr. bags of bullets.

**SACKS.** See Bags.

**SACKERS**, they who sack a town.

**SACRAMENTUM**, the oath which was taken by the Roman soldiers, when they were enrolled. This oath was pronounced at the head of the legion, in an audible voice, by a soldier who was chosen by the tribune for that purpose. He thereby pledged himself before the gods, to expose his life for the good and safety of the republic, to obey his superior officers, and never to absent himself without leave. The aggregate of the legion assented to the oath, without going through the formal declaration of it. Another oath was then tendered, which related to the tribune only, and which was taken indiscriminately by every person that had access to the camp. Every individual bound himself by oath, not to take away anything, and to carry to the tribune every article that might fall into his hands during the campaign.

**SACRE ou Sacret**, Fr. a name formerly given to pieces of ordnance that carried balls of 4 to 5 lb. weight. Each piece weighed from two thousand five hundred to two thousand eight hundred pounds. The same as Saker.

**Saint SACREMENT**, Fr. holy sacrament, or consecrated host. According to Bailey, a sign of an holy thing, containing a divine mystery, with some promise annexed to it; an outward visible sign of an inward spiritual grace. In the acceptation of the French term, and in conformity to the tenets of the Roman Catholic religion, the holy sacrament, or consecrated host, is the symbol containing the real body and blood of Christ, and taken in remembrance of his crucifixion.

As a sense of religion, (to use the words
words of the translator of the Tactics and Discipline of the French army) is the very best foundation of discipline in any country, we shall, in this place, transcribe the article which describes the military honours that are paid to the holy sacrament, or consecrated host, in France; leaving to casuists the solution of those points which have occasioned the difference between the Protestant Lord's Supper, and the Roman Catholic's belief in the doctrine of transubstantiation.

In page 414, Vol. II. we find the following particulars:

"If a body of men is halted in line, at any time when the consecrated host approaches towards them, the commanding officer will order arms to be presented. He will then order kneel, (genou à terre,) on which the drums will beat aux champs, to the field.

"If the corps is marching, the commanding officer will halt and wheel it into line, so as to make front to the consecrated host. He will then order arms to be presented, and the corps to kneel; on receiving the word kneel, (genou à terre) the three ranks are to assume the position directed to be taken by the front rank when firing."

"Should the body of men consist of a regiment or battalion, all the officers, not only captains of companies, but the officers also in the supernumerary rank, must salute with their swords; the bearers of the colours must salute with the colours, at the same time that the troops present arms; and they are to kneel also along with the general body.

"All non-commissioned officers, whether covering serjeants, or belonging to the supernumerary ranks, and likewise those attached to the guard of the colours, are to present arms, and kneel at the same time that the general body kneels.

"The colonel will take post at the distance of six paces in front of the centre of his regiment, and each lieutenant-colonel at the distance of six paces in front of the centre of his battalion; they will face towards the consecrated host, after giving the word kneel, (genou à terre,) they must salute with their swords, and kneel afterwards, if they are on foot.

"The adjutant-major and adjutants stationed in the rear of the wings they respectively belong to, are to salute and kneel, at the same time that the battalion kneels to which they are attached.

"When the consecrated host is passing, the officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, are to bow their heads.

"The consecrated host having passed, the commander of the troops will direct the drums to cease beating, and he will order attention, (garde à vous,) the officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, will raise their heads.—The commandant of the troops will immediately order rise, (debout,) upon this word of command, the officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers, are to rise up. The non commissioned officers and soldiers are to resume the position of presented arms. The officers and bearers of the colours will keep, the former, the points of their swords, and the latter, the point of the spear of the colours, lowered, or in the saluting position, until the commandant gives the word shoulder arms, (porte vos armes.) When the corps has risen from the kneeling attitude, the commandant will order arms, to be shouldered."

SACRILEGE, ou profanation, Fr. sacrilege or profanation. In the old French service this crime was reckoned capital. By an order which was issued on the 1st of July, 1717, it was decreed, that every soldier who should be found guilty of having robbed a church in time of peace; or who, in war time, should be proved to have taken away church property, such as chalices, &c. from any consecrated place within the kingdom, or belonging to the enemy's country, was to be hung or strangled to death; and if the theft was accompanied by an act of profanation, such as drinking out of the chalices, and using irreverend expressions, &c. the culprit or culprits were condemned to be burned alive.

SADDLE, the seat which is put upon a horse for the accommodation of the rider. The saddles in the British service are reckoned better, both in quality and for service, than those of any other nation. The Austrian saddle has been lately adopted in some dragoon regiments.
SADDLE recommended by Marshal Saxe for the use of cavalry regiments. The bow is to be made of iron, strong and well tempered, and fixed upon a pair of cloth or leathern pannels, stuffed with either wool or hair; to the end of which must be fastened the crupper; over these must be placed a black sheep-skin, or one of any other animal, which will serve at once for housing, and as a covering for the pannels: this skin is to be brought across the horse's chest, and will have a graceful effect; underneath it also must go a surcingale, which, in that position, can never gall either the horse or his rider, who, at the same time, will have a very close and easy seat. The stirrups are to be the same as those used in the riding school, fastened at the bow of the saddle, and capable of being shortened or lengthened at pleasure.

SADDLE-cloth, (house, Fr.) See Furniture.

SADDLE horses let to hire, may be impressed by warrant of a justice in cases of emergency. See Mutiny Act, section 46.

SADDLERY. See Regimental Companion, page 134, Vol. II.

SAFE Conduct, a security which is given by the king, under the broad seal, or by some other person in authority, to any individual, for his quiet coming into, or passing out of, the realm. It is also given by governors of fortified places, commanding officers, &c.

SAFE-guard. A protection granted by a prince or general, for some of the enemy's lands, houses, persons, &c. to preserve them from being insulted or plundered. See Guard.

SAFYNAMA, Ind. a certificate or writing, specifying any matter of dispute, which it is found necessary to have settled or cleared up.

SAGITTAL, belonging to an arrow. SAGITTARIUS, or SAGITTARY. See Archer, Bowman.

SAGO, Ind. a tree of the palm species. A flour is made from this tree, which, formed into bread and fresh baked, eats like hot rolls; when it grows stale it becomes hard, and requires to be soaked in water before it can be used. Three of the trees are found sufficient to give sustenance for one man during a whole year; and an acre properly planted, will supply food for one hundred for that period.

SAGUM, a woollen garment, which was formerly worn by the Roman soldiers when they took the field. It is said that the Gauls adopted the use of it.

SAH, Ind. a banker.

SAIHEB, Ind. master, Sir.

SAHOOKER, Ind. a merchant.

SAICK, (Saique, Fr.) A sort of merchant-ship, used chiefly in the Mediterranean; as also among the Turks.

SAIGNEE du fossé, Fr. the act of drawing off the water which is in the ditch or fosse of a town or fortified place. When this has been executed, clays or hurdles covered with earth, or bridges made with reeds, must be thrown upon the mud, to establish a firm footing.

SAIGNEE du saucisson, Fr. the act of cutting off a part of a linen saucisson, which is filled with gunpowder, for the purpose of introducing the moine or cylindrical tube, in order to set fire to a mine.

SAIGNER une pièce, Fr. an expression used in artillerie, when a piece of ordnance, that is mounted on a carriage, has its breech carried away by the violence of the explosion. This sometimes happens when the discharge is made directly downwards, or from top to bottom.

SAIGNER une rivière, Fr. to turn the current of a river, by partially drawing off some of its water. We also use the word Saigner as an English word in military matters; hence Saigner a mœle, to empty or take water out of it by conveyances under ground, that it may be passed over, after having laid hurdles, &c. over the mud.

SAIGNER du nez, Fr. literally, to bleed at the nose. This is said by the French of a piece of ordnance which is fixed in such a manner, as to carry away its breech. This happens when the cylinder becomes crooked or bent, from the piece having been fired repeatedly, without being cooled or refreshed.

SAILLANT, Fr. salient. See Saient Angle. This word, as well as Suiller, signifies generally any part of a building that does not run up perpendicularly from its base, but projects or slopes out.

ST. GEORGE'S.
St. GEORGE’s Guard, a guard of the broad sword or sabre, used in warding off blows directed against the head. See BROADSWORD.

SAISIE des appointemens des officiers, Fr. the sequestration of officers’ pay and emoluments. If, in consequence of any part of their pay being retained by the captain of a troop or company, the soldiers belonging to the old French service, indemnified themselves by raising contributions, and the fact was made known to the war-office, the pay, &c. of such captain or captuns was directed to be stopped in the hands of the treasurer-general belonging to that department; and the commissaries of war were ordered to make good the several exactations, and to report the names of all such officers to the king, that they might be instantly cashiered. This regulation was issued on the 7th of February, 1661.

SAISIR, Fr. to take sudden possession of any thing. To seize.

SAKER, an old word for cannon.—It carried a shot of five pounds and a quarter weight: the diameter of the bore was three inches and 9-16ths; the length eight or nine feet. See CANNON.

SALADE, Fr. this word literally means salad. It likewise signifies a head piece. The French use it frequently in a figurative sense, viz.

Donner un SALADE à quelqu’un, Fr. to give any one a good dressing.

Règlement de SALADE, Fr. a term of ridicule which the French frequently applied to small new-raised corps; such as our independent companies which were levied for rank only.

The men belonging to these corps were also vulgarly called mangeurs de salade, salade-eaters.

SALAMANDRE et serpens, Fr. In the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, published at Paris, in 1801, by A.T. Gaigne, this article is thus described: Brittle vessels, made of earthen composition, are filled with these venomous animals, care having been previously taken to let in the air by small apertures. When a storming party is on the point of ascending the breach, these vessels are suddenly thrown down, and being broken, the enraged and hungry inmates are scattered among the soldiers, to their no small surprize and discom-

figure. In order to render them inno-

cuous, the assaulting party should have salt in their havresacks, by the application of which upon the serpent’s back, he is immediately benumbed, and is ultimately destroyed.

SALE, state of being renal; price.

SALE of Commissions. The sale and purchase of commissions, though not unknown in other services, is of general usage in the British; the navy, the marines, and the royal artillery excepted. Commissions in the British army are sold for various purposes; sometimes to indemnify individuals for their original purchase; sometimes as rewards for gallant and meritorious actions; sometimes as provisions for the widows or children of deceased officers; and sometimes for the relief of an indigent gentleman or lady. Such multiplied channels for the disposing of an article, which is always called for in a country abounding in young men of fortune and expectations, must naturally produce all the speculative commerce of bargain and sale; and as London is the grand emporium of every species of traffic, official or otherwise, it is not wonderful that a most lucrative system of brokerage should branch out of, or rather be spuriously connected with, the regular agency of regiments: Nor can it be prevented, so long as the partial agency of corps is suffered to continue. In Vol. I. 6th edit. of the Regimental Companion, a necessary caution is thrown out for the benefit of young purchasers. We wish it were within the limits of this undertaking to enter at large into the subject.

We have already had opportunities of expressing our full sense of the impropriety of sale and purchase, and our decided opinion, that not only the whole system ought to be abolished, but, that a general agency board should be established, communicating with the different paymasters of corps, and being accountable to the pay-office for the regular distribution of public monies.—Even in the event of the sale and purchase of commissions being continued, (which God forbid they should) we do not scruple to say, that not only the service, but the several individuals who embrace a military life, would be considerably benefited. We humbly presume...
sume, that whenever such a board shall be established, it will have directions to receive vouchers from the commanding officers of the corps to which the candidates for vacant companies, &c. belong, stating, through the commander in chief, or secretary at war, for his Majesty's satisfaction, their abilities to do justice to the service. And to this end, we shall hope to see a school of theory established in each British regiment, to communicate with the Royal Military College.

SALIAN Priests, twelve persons, among the Romans, whose particular duty was to take care of the anciulum, or sacred shield, which was believed to have been sent by the gods to Numa Pomptilius. These priests were attended by a certain number of maids, who were called the Salian virgins. It is further said, in tradition, that when the shield fell from Heaven, a voice was heard to say, “Rome shall be mistress of the world, as long as she remains possession of this shield.” At the commencement of the month of March, in every succeeding year, three festival days were instituted, during which period, no business could be transacted of any sort, nor any functions of a civil nature be performed. The author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, (from which we have chiefly extracted this article) observes, that many writers have mentioned anciulum as a javelin. “But I have satisfied myself,” continues the same author, “by a reference to many established authorities, that the anciulum was a shield which was worn by a particular sort of militia called Ancilistes, that threw javelins.

SALIENT Angle, in fortification, that whose points turn from the center of the place. See Fortification.

SALLE d'Armes, Fr. A fencing school.

SALLE d'armes dans un magasin ou arsenal, Fr. An armory. A particular place (as in the Tower or at Woolwich), where arms of all descriptions, for offensive or defensive purposes, are kept in store.

SALLEESEE, Ind. arbitration.

SALLIS, Ind. an arbitrator.

SALLY. See Siege.

SALTY-arts, or postern-gates, as they are sometimes called, are those under-ground passages, which lead from the inner to the outward works; such as from the higher flank to the lower, to the tenuiles, or the communication from the middle of the curtain to the ravelin. When they are constructed for the passage of men only, they are made with steps at the entrance, and outlet. They are about six feet wide, and eight feet and a half high. There is also a gutter or shore made under the sally-ports, that are in the middle of the curtains, in order that the water, which runs down the streets, may pass into the ditch; but this can only be done when they are wet ditches.—When sally ports serve to carry guns through them for the outworks, instead of making them with steps, they must have a gradual slope, and be eight feet wide.

SALMANAZER, Ind. the salutation of victory.

SALOOTER, Ind. a farrier.

SALOOTEREV, Ind. the business of a farrier.

SALPETRE, a salt, out of which, by means of a chemical preparation, a fixed alkali and volatile acid may be extracted. These constitute the principal ingredients or properties that distinguish saltpetre from other salts.—This salt is collected from the surfaces of the earth, in cellars, vaults, stables and other places, above and under ground, which are covered in, and are impregnated with animal and vegetable particles, and to which the air has access. Saltpetre is used in the composition of gunpowder after its third concocion or boiling.

SALTING Boxes, in artillery, are boxes of about four inches high, and two inches and a half in diameter, for holding mealed powder, to sprinkle the fuses of shells, that they may take fire from the blast of the powder in the chamber; but it has been found, that the rize takes fire without this operation, so that these boxes are now laid aside.

SALPETRE, Fr. See SALPETRE.

SALPETRIÈRE, Fr. a particular spot in an arsenal where there are pits, &c. for the purpose of making saltpetre.

SALPETRIERS, Fr. men employed in making saltpetre.

SALVE,
SALVE, Fr. a volley. It generally means a discharge of heavy ordnance and other fire-arms in concert.

SALUER de la mousquetrie, Fr. to fire a volley, or a discharge of musketery only.

SALUER du canon, Fr. to salute by a discharge of ordnance.

SALUER de la voix, Fr. to huzza; to cry out, as Vive le Roi! God save the King! Vive la République, Long live the Republic! This manner of saluting generally appertains to the mob of a country, which lavishes its applause upon every man that happens to succeed. It has, however, been customary, both in England, France, and other countries, for whole battalions of soldiers to salute à vive voix, or by exclamation, in which case they generally take off their hats, and give three huzzas.

SALUER du pavillon, Fr. to salute with the colours.

SALUER à boulet, Fr. to salute with ball.

SALUT, Fr. the salute.

SALUER du spinton, Fr. the spontoon salute.

SALUT de l'épée, Fr. the sword salute.

SALUT de mer, Fr. the deference and respect which are shown at sea by ships of inferior force to those of superior rate. This is done by lowering the flag. The British flag stands paramount to all others, and is always saluted by foreign ships at sea.

SALUTATORES, courtiers, saluters or persons who pay homage or obsequie to others. The following article is from a publication (viz. Dictionnaire Militaire) which made its appearance in 1801, and has been extant in France during all the stages of her unprecedented revolution.

"It has been customary (says its author), from time immemorial, to cast a ridicule upon every species of attendance on persons in superior stations, without any reflexion being made, that such an intercourse must eventually be productive of considerable advantages to all parties. The custom itself has existed from the earliest times; and I am confident, that the very persons who, but a little while back, condemned the practice, are at this very moment sedulous in their attentions to some man in power; and they are so, not through accidental circumstances, but from their own reflexions, and from mental acquiescence. The Roman soldiers did not scruple to follow the example of courtiers. When they were encamped, they went every morning in a body to pay their respects to their centurion. The centurion waited upon the tribune: and after that, the tribune, together with other courtiers, went to the general's tent. The only objection (observes our author) which I can make to this ceremony, is in the visit of the soldiers to their centurions. Yet these haughty citizens of Rome, (who looked upon kings as their inferiors) carried the system of paying homage to a much greater extent. They spent a certain portion of the forenoon, in waiting upon those of their fellow citizens, whose votes or good will could contribute to their attainment of any place, or situation, in the Republic.—Some, out of respect and deference, remained in humble attendance in the anti-chamber; others stood in the vestibule; and when their patrons came forth (in order to go through the same ceremony themselves elsewhere), these saluters or courtiers very submissively crowded round their litters, and accompanied them to the spot, where they alighted, paying fresh reverence as the concluding homage of the morning.—This attendance became, at last, a heavy tax upon the several classes of dependent citizens; for they felt severely the consequences of the slightest neglect to their superiors. The mere empty parade of a court must be contemptible in the eyes of all thinking men; but there is certainly a middle tract which may always be adopted. Whereas the Romans (with all their pride and apparent independence) went into two opposite extremes. They affected to despise kings, and yet almost every one amongst them condescended to play the part of a menial, and dependent servant.

SALUTE, a discharge of artillery, or small arms, or of both, in honour of some person; also the ceremony of presenting arms. The colours salute royal persons, and generals commanding in chief; which is done by lowering the point within one inch of the ground. In the field, when a regiment is to be reviewed,
ed by the king, or his general, the drums beat a march as he passes along the line, and the officers salute together, pointing their swords downwards. The ensigns do so likewise, by lowering their colours, when his Majesty, or any of the royal family, are present. When the word of command, shoulder arms, is given, the officers recover their swords, and the ensigns raise the colours together.

Royal Salute. This consists in the discharge of twenty-one pieces of ordnance, and is given on the approach of his Majesty at review days; and on solemn occasions, wherein their Majesties appear.

The other salutes are—19 pieces to the commander in chief; 17 to a general; 15 to a lieutenant-general; 13 to a major-general; 11 to a brigadier-general.

These salutes are answered by one gun less from the body saluted; where troops, &c. approach one another.

SAMATA. See Cuirass.

SAMBUCUS (Sambuque, Fr.), an ancient musical instrument of the wind kind, resembling a flute. It probably derives its name from Sambucus, the Elder tree; being made of that wood.

SAMBUCUS was also the name of an ancient engine of war used by Marcellus in besieging Syracuse. Plutarch relates that two ships were required to carry it. A minute description of this engine may be seen in Polybius.

SAMPIT, an instrument or weapon which is used by the inhabitants of the island of Borneo. They sometimes convert it into a sort of cross-bow, from which they shoot poisoned arrows; at others, into a javelin; and frequently into a bayonet, which they fix at the end of a firelock.

SAMPODAR, Ind. a treasurer or cashkeeper.

SAND, fine gravel. The best sand for good mortar, is that whose grain is not too small, and which is clear of the earthy particles. Sand found in rivers is esteemed the best, as having a coarse grain, and being free from earth and mud. See Mortar.

SAND Bags. See Bags.

SANG, Fr. blood. This word is used among the French in many senses. They say, figuratively, Se battre au pré-mier sang, to fight (as duellists do) until blood is drawn on one side or the other: Mettre un pays à feu et à sang, to commit every species of enormity in a country by destroying the human race, and burning their habitations: Se faire la guerre à feu et à sang, to carry on the war with fire and sword; or without the least regard to humanity.

SANS froid, Fr. a certain state of the mind, in which it is not ruffled or agitated. It also signifies cold blood. Hence, Il l’a tué de sang froid, he killed him in cold blood, or without emotion.

SANGIAC, a Turkish dignity, which entitles the person, who is invested with it, to have a horse’s tail carried before him. The Sangiac is governor of a province, and next in authority to the Beglebergs, who are viceroys in that country, and give the name of Beglerbey or Beglerbeg to a militia which they support at their own expense. Sangiac also means a standard which is used by the Turks.

SANGLANT, Fr. bloody. Combat sanglant, a bloody contest. The French also say, Injure, offense sanglante, an outrageous injury or offence.

SANGLE, Fr. a girth.

SANGER, Fr. to gird.

Sanguinary, (Sanguinaire, Fr.) one who loves blood, and delights in deeds of sanguinary devastation and spoil. A sanguinary chief may have his name mentioned in history, and be marked for extraordinary feats in war, but the tradition will only serve to hand him down to posterity as an object of horror and detestation.

SANS Culotte, Fr. a revolutionary term which was first given by the French to the most indigent class of the people, and which Robespierre, and other furious demagogues, endeavoured to convert into an honourable title. It means, literally, a man without breeches.

SANS-culottier, Fr. the class consisting of what are called Sans Culottes.

Sans-culottides, Fr. a name given, for some time, to the five complementary days which were added to the twelve months that form the revolutionary year of the French Republic.

SAP, (sape, Fr.) in sieges, is a trench, or an approach made under cover, ten or twelve feet broad, when the besiegers
ers come near the place, and the fire from the garrison grows so dangerous, that they are not able to approach uncovered.

There are several sorts of saps: the single, which has only a single parapet: the double, having one on each side; and the flying, made with gabions, &c. In all saps, traverses are left to cover the men.

Double Sap, (Sape double, Fr.) Is that which has two sides, and where the men work between two parapets. The double sap is undertaken in cases of imminent danger. By way of precaution, a picket or stake, which rises from 18 to 20 inches above the top, must be fixed in each gabion, for the purpose of keeping it firm and upright, when the gabion is filled. A berms or small path, about seven inches wide, must also be left at the foot of the gabion. When the gabions have been filled up with earth, a fascine must be laid on the borders or edges of it, and another above through which the picket or stake is forced, so as to stand some inches higher than the gabion. After this the whole is to be covered with earth in order to form a parapet, which is sloped towards the point of attack.

A trench, properly called, is always from 3 French, or 4 feet English deep, and 10 to 12 French, or 11 to 15 feet English broad. Every species of work, which leads by way of communication upon these dimensions, to a fortified place, is called a trench; that which fronts the place, is called the parallel or place of arms belonging to the trench, and is used for the lodgment or distribution of troops. The articles which are indispensably necessary to form or work a sap, consist of gabions, sand-bags, iron pitch-forks, poles with iron hooks, stakes, pickaxes, spades, mallets, mantelets. The chief of a brigade in a sapping party or detachment, or the leading sapper, should be particularly careful to prevent every appearance of intoxication among the workmen. For the manner in which saps are conducted, see SAP, 2nd ed. BOMBARDIER.

Sap-flying, (Sape volante, Fr.) When a flying sap is undertaken, it is not necessary to fill up the gabions; these are merely conducted upon the plan or scale which the sap embraces. Flying saps are resorted to according to circumstances, during the night, and when the danger of being attacked is not immediate.

Half Sap, (Demi-Sape,) Fr. A trench which is sunk by degrees near some fortified place, and during the execution of which, the workmen are covered by gabions, sand bags, and mantlets. The difference between working at a demi or half sap, and at a trench, consists in the one being done in open day and to a considerable extent, whereas the other is accomplished under circumstances of peculiar caution, and on a very confined scale. There are six sorts of saps, viz.

Single Sap, (Sape simple, Fr.) That which has a single parapet, on account of the work being on one side only.

Covered Sap, (Sape couverte, Fr.) The covered sap consists of a gallery that is sunk into the earth, by means of which soldiers may secretly approach the work they have orders to surprize.

Sape, Fr. The French say: être commandé pour la sape, to be in orders for the sap; être de jour, aller à la sape, to be officer of the day, to be on duty for the sap; pousser, continuer la sape, to forward, to get on with, or continue, the sap; commander la sape, to give orders for the opening or commencement of a sap.

Saper, Fr. To sap or undermine.

Sapeur, Fr. A sapper. See SAP, in the 2nd edit. of the BOMBARDIER, or POCKET GUNNER.

Sappers, (Sapeurs, Fr.) are soldiers belonging to the artificers or engineers, whose business it is to work at the saps, and for which they have an extraordinary pay.—A brigade of sappers generally consists of eight men, divided equally into two parties. Whilst one of these parties is advancing the sap, the other is furnishing the gabions, fascines, and other necessary implements; they relieve each other alternately.

SARAT. The breaking up or ending of the rains, is so called in India.

SARDER, Ind. A chief, a leader.

SARISSA. A weapon of offence, which was first used by the Macedonians, and afterwards by the Greeks. It was longer than the modern pike, measuring...
measuring from twelve to fourteen feet in length. The soldiers that carried this weapon were in complete armour, and when they went into action, they wore a shield on their left arms, and fought with the sarissa; to the end of which was attached a sharp, cutting blade made of iron. The president Fauchet states, that the inhabitants of Flanders used this offensive weapon, which they called godenboc. He further adds, that by means of this long pike, the Counts of Artois and Saint Pol, were completely routed and overturned in a deep ditch or ravin, close to Courtray, in 1311.

SARK. A small island on the coast of Normandy in France, subject to Great Britain. The mutiny act extends to that island in various instances. See Mutiny Act, sect. 78.

SARRAUS, Fr. A frock made of coarse linen or Russian duck, such as is generally worn by peasants, waggoners and carmen, &c. It more particularly signifies a loose coat, with a cuff and cape of a different colour. Of this description are the coats and frocks of our artillery drivers, and other camp followers.

SARRASINE, Fr. See Herse.

SASCE, Ind. The moon.

SASH. A mark of distinction, which in the British service, is generally made of crimson silk for the officers, and of crimson mixed with white cotton for the sergeants. It is worn round the waist in most regiments; in some few, particularly in the Highland corps, it is thrown across the shoulder. Sashes were originally invented for the convenience and ease of wounded officers, &c. By means of which, (in case any of them were so badly wounded, as to render them incapable of remaining at their posts,) they might be carried off with the assistance of two men. They are now reduced to a very small size, and of course unfit for the original purpose.—Both the sash and gorget, indeed, must be considered as mere marks of distinction, to point out officers on duty. In some instances they are worn together; in others, the gorget is laid aside, and the sash only worn. The British cavalry tie the sash on the right, the infantry on the left, side. The sashes for the Imperial army, are made of crimson and gold; for the Prussian army, black silk and silver; the Hanoverians, yellow silk; the Portuguese, crimson silk, with blue tassels. The modern French have their sashes made of three colours, viz. white, pink, and light blue, to correspond with the national flag. For order respecting sashes, see Sash, in Index to the Regimental Companion.

SEATLE (Satellite, Fr.) A person who attends on another, either for his safety, or to be ready to execute his pleasure.

SEATLETS, Fr. Certain armed men, of whom mention is made in the history of Philip Augustus, king of France. The word satellite itself, which we frequently find in ancient historians, signifies a guard or attendant about the person of a prince. It is derived from the Latin word satelles, which comes from the Syrinx term for a companion. The satelites of Philip Augustus were men selected from the militia of the country, who fought on foot and horseback. The servants or batmen who attended the military knights, when they went into action, were likewise called satelites, and fought in their defence, mounted or on foot.

SATISFACTIO. When an officer or other person goes out to fight with one whom he has offended, or by whom he has been offended, he is said to give or take satisfaction.—Hence to demand satisfaction is tantamount to challenge, to call to account, &c.

SARTRAPE, (Satraxe, Fr.) The chief governor of a province in Persia, and in other parts of India. These men are commonly very rich, extremely haughty, much addicted to pleasure, and generally inhuman. The French frequently apply the term satrape, by way of irony, to the understrappers of a government.

SATRAPY. The jurisdiction or government of a Satraps.

SAUCISSE, a kind of sausage, is a long, pipe or bag, made of cloth well pitched, or sometimes of leather, of about 1½ inch diameter, filled with powder, going from the chamber of the mine to the entrance of the gallery. It is generally placed in a wooden pipe, called an auger, to prevent its growing damp.
SAU

damp. It serves to give fire to mines, caissons, bomb chests, &c.

SAUCISSON, is likewise a kind of fascine, longer than the common ones: it serves to raise batteries, and to repair breaches. Saucissons are also used in making epaulements, in stopping passages, and in making traverses over a wet ditch, &c.

SAUCISSON de brulot, Fr. A machine made use of to set fire to the different compartments in a fire-ship.

SAUCISSON d'artifice, Fr. Saucissons used in artificial fire-works.

SAUCISSONS volans, Fr. Flying saucissons: a species of sky-rocket.

SAUVE-conduite, Fr. A pass. This word among the French signifies not only safe-conduct, but also a letter of licence; such as creditors frequently give to individuals who have failed in business, &c.

SAUT, Ind. An hour.

SAUT, Fr. This word is used in hydraulics to signify a considerable fall of water, such as the fall of Niagara, &c.

Saut, Fr. This word is often used among the French, to signify that a soldier has suddenly risen from the ranks to the situation of lieutenant or captain. We also say, in the same sense, to leap over; hence to leap over the heads of older officers.

SAUTER, Fr. To leap.

Sauter à l'arbourage, Fr. To leap upon the deck, or on any part of an enemy's ship, for the purpose of boarding her.

Sauter, Fr. The French also say, Faire sauter un bastion, to blow up a bastion, or cause it to blow up; faire sauter la cervelle à quelqu'un, to blow a person's brains out, or to fire a pistol at his head.

Sauter à la Gorge, Fr. A figurative expression among the French, which signifies to rush upon an enemy with rage and fury.

Sauter un fossé, Fr. To leap a ditch or fossé.

Sauter en selle, Fr. To get on horseback. To jump upon your saddle.

SAUVE-garde, Fr. Safe-guard. Protection.

Accorder des SAUVE-gardes, Fr. To grant protections.

Envoyer une garde en SAUVE-garde,

Fc. To send out a party for the purpose of escorting persons, or of protecting any particular quarter.

SAUVE qui peut! Fr. Let those escape that can! This expression is familiar to the French in moments of defeat, and great disorder.

SAUVER, Fr. To save. Hence sauver la vie à quelqu'un, to save a person's life; sauver une ville, &c. d'entre les mains des ennemis, to rescue a town out of the enemy's hands.

SAW, a dentated steel instrument with which wood or metal is cut by attrition. Each pioneer is provided with one.

SAYON, Fr. A kind of course habit in which soldiers were formerly clothed among the French.

SAWN, Ind. The name of an Indian month, which corresponds with July.

SCABBARD, (Fourreau, Fr.) A case commonly made of black leather, with a ferrel at the end, in which a sword, sabre, &c. may be sheathed.

Bayonet SCABBARD. A leather sheath made in a triangular form to correspond with the shape of the bayonet.

To SCABBARD. To punish with the scabbard of a bayonet. Infantry soldiers are sometimes scabberd under the sanction of the captains of companies, for slight offences committed among themselves. A court-martial is held in the serjeant's room or tent, to ascertain the culprit's guilt; it having been previously left to him to abide by the judgment of his comrades, in this manner, or to be tried by a regimental court-martial.

SCABBARD-button. A brass button or hook by which the scabbard is attached to the frog of the belt.

The word scabbard has been sometimes used, in a figurative sense, to distinguish those persons who have obtained rank and promotion in the army, without seeing much hard service, from those who have fought their way through all the obstacles of superior interest, &c. Hence the favourite expression of a deceased English general—Some rise by the scabbard, and some by the sword! Which means more than we are at liberty to illustrate, but which may be easily applied to cases in point.
SCALADE, from the French Escalade, a furious attack upon a wall or rampart, contrary to form, and with no regularity. This is frequently done by means of ladders, to insult the wall by open force.

SCALE, a right line divided into equal parts, representing miles, fathom, paces, feet, inches, &c. used in making plans upon paper; giving each line its true length, &c. See also Balance, Escalade, &c.

SCALENE, Fr. A term used in geometry to express a triangle whose three sides and three angles are unequal to one another.

SCALING-ladders. See LADDERS.

SCALLOP, any segment of a circle.

To SCALP. To deprive the skull of its integuments. A barbarous custom, in practice amongst the Indian warriors, of taking off the tops of the scalps of the enemies skulls with their hair on. They preserve them as trophies of their victories, and are rewarded by their chiefs, according to the number they bring in. In America it is vulgarly called sculpting.

To SCAMPER, (Escamper, Fr.) To run away precipitately.

SCARF. See SASH.

SCARLET, the prevailing national colour for the dress of the British. The artillery, and cavalry, are clothed chiefly in blue; rifle corps in green; and the cavalry for foreign service in light blue.

SCARPE. See Escarpe.

SCENOGRAPHY, (Scenographie, Fr.) The representation of a building, town, &c. as it appears in prospective or from without, with all its dimensions and shadows.

SCHEDULE. An inventory, a list; also something referred to by numbers or letters; as the oaths of the recruit and magistrate, marked A and B at the end of the mutiny act.

SCHOOL, (ecole, Fr.) A house of discipline and instruction; a place of literary education; an university. It is a more general and comprehensive term than college or academy. The French have made a great distinction on this head with respect to their military institutions. Thus the great receptacle for military genius was called L'école Militaire de Paris; the military school of Paris; whereas the subordinate places of instruction and the preparatory houses, were termed colleges, viz. Collèges de Soreze, Brienne, Tiroe, Rebai, Beaumont, Pont-le-Roy, Ver-dôme, Effiat, Pont-a-Mousson, Tour- non.

ROYAL MILITARY SCHOOL. See COLLEGE.

The Royal Military School of Paris, (Ecole Royale Militaire de Paris Fr.) This celebrated establishment, which so many years supplied France with superior talents and abilities, and to which Bonaparte is indebted for the solid ground work of that military knowledge that has astonished and confounded Europe, owes its origin to Henry IV, who first erected a public building in Anjou, for the free education of the children of poor noblemen; it was called the college of La Fliche, wherein one hundred young boys of the above description were supported, &c. at the king's expense. They were there taught Latin and the liberal arts by the Jesuits; whose learning, and aptitude at teaching others to learn, have been so deservedly admired in every quarter of the globe. This order, however, having been banished out of France in 1770, by Louis XV, under the spurious pretext, that the members interfered with the government of the country, (whilst all their crimes consisted in being too virtuous to countenance the de-baucheries of that weak monarch; and in being too independent in worldly circumstances and religious principles, to submit to acts of degradation;) the direction of the college was entrusted to the secular priests, and the number of students was increased to 350. On this occasion it was distinguished by a particular mark of royal favour, and was called The Royal College.

In addition to this provincial establishment, Louis XV. instituted the Royal Military School in the neighbourhood of Paris, where 250 young lads received a regular education under the most able masters; particularly in those branches which contributed to military knowledge. During their vacations, and at periods of intermission from classical pursuits, they were attended and instructed by experienced officers. They generally remained until the age
of 18, and were, after that, distributed among the different regiments with appropriate commissions. They were then distinguished by being permitted to wear a cross, which was tied to a crimson piece of ribbon, and hung from a button-hole in their coat. The cross, on one side, represented the figure of the Virgin Mary; and on the other, there was a trophy adorned with three fleurs de lis. They had likewise an annual pension of 200 livres, (about 8l. sterling) which was paid them without deduction, until they obtained the rank of captain; provided they had a certificate of good behaviour from the staff or état major of their corps. They received moreover, when they quitted the school, a small kit of linen, a hat, sword, and an uniform coat. They were replaced in the military school by an equal number of youths who came from the college of La Flèche, for that purpose, at the age of 13 or 14.

Both these establishments underwent a considerable alteration during the administration of the Count de St. German, in April 1776. This minister persuaded Louis XVI. that great public benefit might be derived from increasing the number of these colleges, and admitting youths from every class of his subjects. When these alterations took place in the Royal Military School, all the young men that were 18 years old were incorporated with the regiments of gentlemen cadets. These enjoyed all the advantages which their predecessors had possessed; with this exception, that they did not wear the uniform of their corps, nor the cross. Those lads that had not reached the period in question, were placed in different corps, and several remained in the military school who were afterwards provided for on another footing. The number of young men was gradually increased, not only by fresh arrivals from La Flèche, but by the admission of several others, for whom a yearly pension was paid by their parents. The latter were not, however, entitled to any advantage or indulgence beyond what was generally allowed.

On the 28th of March, 1776, the king gave directions, that ten colleges should be established, over the gates of each of which was written—College Royal Militaire; Royal Military College. These Colleges were under the immediate care and instruction of the Benedictine Monks, and other religious persons.

The secretary of state held the same jurisdiction, over these colleges, that he possessed over La Flèche, and the military school of Paris.

There were always 50 at least, and never more than 60 young men placed for education in each of these colleges, at the expense of the king; amounting annually per head to 700 livres, about 30l. sterling. For this sum each student was supplied with a blue coat with red cuffs, and white buttons, a blue surtout or great coat, two white waistcoats, two pairs of black breeches, twelve shirts, twelve handkerchiefs, six cravats, six night caps, two dressing gowns, two hats, two pairs of shoes, combs, and powder-bag. These articles were, in the first instance, to be provided by the young man's parents or friends, and when he quitted, he was furnished with the same articles at the expense of the college. Travelling expenses, postage of letters, &c. were defrayed by the parents or friends of the different students. The secretary of state's letter, conveying the king's approbation, was the voucher for admission; but no child could be received unless he had previously learned to write and read. Candidates for admission underwent a close examination on the very day they arrived, and if they were found deficient in any of the necessary qualifications, they were sent back to their friends, with directions not to return until the year following, provided they got properly instructed during that period. No person could be admitted who was lame, or otherwise deformed; and certain proofs of nobility were to be established and given in, as well as proofs of property, vouched for by two gentlemen who lived in the neighbourhood of the applicant, and confirmed by the intendant of the province, or by the governor. And in order to afford the parents ample time to collect the necessary vouchers, the preliminary consent of the king was forwarded to them six months before July, announcing that their children might be presented.
sented to the college on the 7th of Sept-
ember next following.

The king's students, or those young
lads for whom 700 livres were annually
paid out of his privy purse, were taught
in the subordinate colleges, as in the mi-
itary school at Paris, every thing that
could be useful to a military character,
besides music and other accomplish-
ments. They were, moreover, regu-
larly supplied with foils for fencing,
and with mathematical and musical in-
struments. In order to excite emula-
tion, prizes and rewards were distrib-
uted according to merit; and an al-
lowance for pocket money was made in
the following manner:—20 sols, or 10d.
English per month, to each boy under
twelve; and 40 sols, or 20d. to all
above that age. The royal pensions
and allowances were paid every quar-
ter, commencing on the 1st of April,
1776. These payments were regulated
by specific returns, which were regularly
forwarded on the 5th of each month
preceding the expiration of the quarter,
to the secretary at war, and were signed
by the heads or superiors of each college,
accompanied by an exact muster-roll of
all the students. By direction of the
secretary at war, every species of ne-
cessary furniture and utensil that was
found for La Flèche, and the military
school of Paris, was distributed, in
equal proportions, among the subordi-
inate colleges; a preference, however,
was uniformly given to the calls and ne-
cessities of those two establishments.
The colleges that were appointed to
pass the final examination of students
received a double quantity of each ar-
ticle.

Every student who was admitted into
any of the subordinate colleges at eight
or nine years old, was obliged to remain
there six years before he could appear
at the final examinations; that period
being thought necessary to complete his
education. With respect to those who
were entering into their tenth or eleventh
year, and even those who were orphans,
they were not forced to fill the term of
six years instruction, provided they had
already acquired sufficient knowledge to
entitle them to a favourable report from
their superiors.

The king directed that the pensions
for 50 students upon the establishment,
should be paid three months in advance
to the several colleges; for the purpose
of enabling them to complete the ne-
cessary buildings, &c. Each of those
students was allowed a small separate
apartment, with a key to the door.
They were distributed in a particular
quarter of the building, that they might
be more easily attended to; having no
other communication with the hono-
rary pensioners, or those who had an
allowance from their parents, than what
was absolutely necessary to carry on
the public instruction and discipline of
the place.

The college of Brienne, a small town
in Champagne, was fixed upon for the
admission of the young lads whose pen-
sions were paid by their parents. The
latter likewise defrayed the expenses of
the journey; but they were entitled to
the same indemnification that was after-
wards granted to the king's students—
The same rules and method of instruc-
tion were pursued by the different col-
leges, in order that all the candidates
might be brought together at the same
time for examination. This examina-
tion was made in the presence of the
principal, and under inspector of the
schools, and of other literary men, who
were appointed by the secretary of the
state for that purpose, and received
1200 livres, or 50l. sterling, as a grati-
fication for their attendance, besides
board and lodging at the king's expense.
The concours, or meeting for examina-
tion, took place every year, and lasted
from the 1st to the 15th of September;
the original one commencing in Sep-
tember, 1778. The young men that
passed the examination to the full sat-
sfaction of these gentlemen, were
placed in different regiments, and re-
ceived commissions accordingly.

The four best informed and most able
of the young candidates, received pen-
sions or temporary allowances in the fol-
lowing manner:—The two first got 150
livres, between 6l. and 7l. sterling; and
the two next 100 livres, equal to 4l. odd
per annum, until they were promoted to
companies. They were further entitled
to wear the ancient cross of the military
school. If any of them quitted the ser-
vice before they had obtained the above
rank of captain, the pension ceased.—
They likewise received, (in common
with
with all the other students that left the establishment) 200 livres, between 8l. and 9l. on their becoming lieutenants in the army.

The young men that were not found sufficiently instructed to join a regular corps, as gentlemen cadets, remained at the Collège de Concours, or college of examination, until the following year, when they were again questioned as to every particular which regarded a military education. But, (let their success on this occasion be what it might,) they ceased to be entitled to those marks of distinction and temporary allowances which were given to the first successful candidates. Those boys, who were brought by their parents, and for whom a pension was to be paid, lost all pretensions to the notice of government if they failed to give satisfaction at this final bearing. Proper representations of their incapacity were made by the inspector of military schools to the secretary of state, which representations were formally attested and corroborated by the opinion and judgment of the superior of the college of Brienne, in order that an accurate account might be given to his Majesty, and that the parents might be officially directed to send or come for their children.

The superior, or head of each subordinate college was directed, from the 1st of July 1778, to send, under cover to the secretary at war, an effective return of those students that had finished their course of education, and were prepared for examination. An order was then issued from the war-office for their attendance at the college of Brienne.

The heads of colleges were enjoined to transmit, annually, to the secretary of the war department, an analysis of the various elementary tracts which they had perused, accompanied by comments and observations thereon, together with original suggestions of their own. 6000 livres, or £250. sterling, were allowed out of the annual revenue of the military school of Paris, for the specific purpose of rewarding those writers who should publish the best treatises relative to the military education of youth; and when this intent was fulfilled, the surplus or the sum entire was appropriated to the pur-

chase of books, that were equally distributed among the different colleges; each of which had a separate library for the convenience and improvement of the students.

The king left it to the discretion of the different religious orders, to select such persons, as were best calculated to undertake the direction of the colleges, and to chuse the different masters and professors. He reserved, however, to himself, the power of displacing any of them, if, upon mature and correct representation they were found inadequate to the trust.

The four professors, belonging to the colleges in which the four successful candidates at the general examination had been educated, received four golden medals, each worth 150 livres, about 6l. as a testimony of his Majesty's approbation. The king's likeness was on one side of the medal, and on the other was engraved, Prix de bon Instructeur; the able teacher's prize. With the laudable view of collecting the best and most able masters, various rewards were imagined, and occasionally distributed among the different persons employed in the instruction of young beginners.

The different vacancies, which occurred in consequence of the public examination that took place once a year, were regularly filled up at that period.

The secretary of state transmitted to the heads of colleges a list, containing the names of the young men that were to succeed.

Louis XVI. exclusively of the 600 students who were placed in the different colleges pursuant to the new regulations, restored the ancient foundation of La Flèche, which had originally been established by Henry IV. for the benefit of 100 poor boys, who were of noble blood, and whose parents had rendered some service to the state in the civil, military, or ecclesiastical line. They were educated according to the bent of their talents and disposition, and fitted to any of those professions; provisions and regulations having been made in the college of La Flèche for these purposes, that differed from the general system pursued in the other military colleges.

Those boys, who at 13 or 14 years old,
old, discovered a partiality to civil or ecclesiastical functions, left the subordinate colleges, and repaired to La Flèche. Their number was limited to five, who might annually be admitted in consequence of an order for that purpose from the secretary at war; which order was obtained by their parents, on a representation being made to him of their talents and disposition, confirmed and vouched for by the inspector-general, and by the heads and superiors of each college.

An extraordinary allowance was made by the king to enable these students to acquire a knowledge of law, and to become acquainted with every species of theological learning.

These students were never permitted to leave college under a pretext of seeing their friends or parents; however near the residence of the latter might be.

The heads or superiors of each college transmitted every quarter to the secretary of state for the war department, and to the inspector-general of schools, a minute account of the actual state of the college, and of the progress which each student had made in the several branches of education. If any extraordinary occurrence happened, these communications were to be made forthwith, and at broken periods, without waiting for the regular expiration of three months. They were likewise instructed to communicate with the parents of such children, as were paid for by them, giving an account of their progress in education, and stating what they had written on that subject to the secretary of state.

The inspector and under inspector-general went every year to the different colleges, to examine personally into every thing that concerned the management of each institution, and to report accordingly to his Majesty.

The secretary of state for the war department was directed by the king to be present at the annual distribution of prizes, which were given in each college, in order to give every aid and consequence to these public marks of royal attention. In case of the secretary's death or sickness, the inspector-general of the schools attended for the same well judged purpose.

On the 21st of January 1779, the following regulation appeared for the better management and advantage of the students belonging to the royal military school:

It was ordained, that the privilege of being received as members of the military orders of Notre Dame, of Mont-Carmel, and St. Lazarus of Jerusalem, which had been hitherto given, without distinction, to all the students of the different colleges, should, in future, be considered as the reward of peculiar merit, and be rendered the means of exciting emulation among the gentlemen cadets of the royal military school only.

To this end the secretary of the war department was instructed to give in a list of six students who should have passed an examination before the inspector-general, with a minute account of their progress in the different arts and sciences, as well as of their general good conduct, natural disposition, &c. From this number, three were selected by the grand master, and were made knights of the order, with permission to wear the cross according to prescribed rules and regulations. All the students that were so distinguished received from the revenue, or funds of the order, an annual allowance of 100 livres, equal to about 4l. 3s. 2d. English; which sum was paid them, exclusively of the 200 livres, or 8l. 6s. 4d which they got from the royal military school. They continued to receive the annual pension as long as they remained in the service; and if they were under the necessity of retiring through sickness, or wounds, it was continued to them during their natural lives.

Whenever a student, who had been placed in a regiment, and was entitled to wear the cross of the royal military school, distinguished himself on service by some brilliant action, or gave an extraordinary proof of military knowledge, he was recommended to the grand master, and on the attestation of the general commanding the army, countersigned by the secretary at war, he was instantly invested with the order of St. Lazarus.

Thus the reunion of these two crosses, (which could only happen in cases of singular merit, and under the circumstances already stated) would always bear
bear undeniable testimony of the service rendered by the individual. The pension, in fact, would neither incur the suspicion of partiality, by having been a mere sinecure, nor the honorary mark, the imputation of undue influence, and ill-applied patronage.

In consequence of the king's approbation, the following specific regulation, relative to the orders of Mont-Carmel, and St. Lazarus of Jerusalem, was issued on the 21st of January 1779, by Louis Stanislaus Xavier de Franks, brother to his Majesty, and grand master of those orders.

It was therein stated, that, in future, the order of Notre Dame du Mont-Carmel should be reserved for such students belonging to the royal military school, as had been approved of in every respect, conformably to the prescribed instructions on that head, for the purpose of being admitted knights of the order. The mark by which they were distinguished consisted of a small cross similar to the one already described, which was formerly worn by the students. The candidates were obliged to prove four degrees of nobility on the father's side, and to produce the certificates required by the different colleges. Three out of the six received the cross, and became entitled, from the day of their admission, to an annual allowance of 100 livres, or 4l. 5s. 2d. English; which they continued to enjoy as long as they remained in the service, and after they quitted it, provided they retired from the causes already stated.

If a knight of the order of Notre Dame du Mont St. Carmel did any singular act of bravery, or discovered talents of superior military knowledge, on a proper attestation being produced of the same, signed by the general under whom he served, and countersigned by the minister of war, he became knight of St. Lazarus, and by thus uniting the two orders, preserved an incontestible proof of the service he had rendered.

This regulation, however, did not interfere with the ancient forms and rules of the royal military school, as far as they concerned those students who had already been received into two orders. It only went to restrict the number of such as might lay claim to the particu-

tar marks of distinction, &c. which were thereby granted to the newly admitted.

The French had likewise a marine school, (école de marine), which was kept at the expense of government, and was regularly attended to, in one of the departments. There was also a ship, distinguished by the name of school, (école) which was regularly manned and equipped for the instruction of young marines.

There were several schools of artillery, écoles d'artillerie, distributed in different parts of the kingdom, and supported at the public expense. The five principal ones were at La Fère, Metz, Grenoble, Strasbourg, and Perpignan.

They were under the direction of an inspector-general, who had the rank of a lieutenant-general in the army. Each school was superintended by three commandants, and was composed of ordinary and extraordinary commissaries belonging to the artillery, of officers who had the immediate direction of the levelling and pointing pieces of ordnance, and of volunteer cadets.

These schools were open throughout the year; advantage being taken of occasional fine weather during the winter months to practise and exercise the cadets. They were divided into schools of theory, écoles de théorie, and into schools of practice, écoles de pratique.

The theoretical establishments were for the immediate instruction of all officers belonging to the engineer and the artillery departments.

The practical schools were open indiscriminately to all officers and soldiers. There was also a particular school for the information of those persons who directed their attention to mining and sapping; this school was called L'école des Sapeurs. The 'miners' school. There was likewise a school established at La Fère, to which none but artillery officers could be admitted. The students consisted of one company, whose number never exceeded 50. They had the rank of sub-lieutenants, and received a monthly subsistence, amounting to forty French livres, a little more than 1l. 14s. English.

The school at Mézières, which was established before the additional one at
La Fère, for the exclusive use and advantage of the artillery, was calculated to receive 30 officers; and those who went from La Fère had the rank of second lieutenants, with 60 livres, something more than 2l. sterling, as monthly subsistence.

On the 26th of July 1783, an order appeared, by which the king directed, that the young gentlemen who, by a former regulation could only be admitted into the royal colleges between the ages of eight and eleven, should be received from the age of seven to that of ten. Orphans alone could be admitted as late as the full completion of twelve years. The parents of such children as had been approved of by his Majesty, were, without delay, to send in proofs and certificates of their nobility; in failure whereof, one year after their nomination, they were deprived of the situation which had been destined for them.

No family could solicit a letter of admission for more than one child at a time; and when it was granted, no application could be made in favour of another child until the first had completed his education, and was provided for in a regiment, or elsewhere.

The wisdom of this regulation is manifest. It was calculated to prevent every species of partiality and undue influence, and it kept the door open for many a meritorious youth, that might otherwise be deprived of the advantages of this useful institution. Like every other system, however, of that ill-fated monarchy, the principles were gradually perverted; and what was intended as a general good, became subservient to the intrigues of Versailles, the secret views of inspectors and commissaries, and the venal pliancy of individuals that acted under them. This evil was not confined to France. It has existed, and does still exist, in other nations: let us hope that the judicious arrangements of the military school in England, may save that infant establishment from an early visitation of its baneful and insidious spirit. So strict, indeed, was the regulation in France, to prevent any monopoly of interest or patronage, that particular instructions were issued to commissaries to repair into the different provinces in which the several colleges stood, and to see that no students were sent to the general examination at Brienne, who had any brother or brothers under the same establishment.

It will naturally strike every observer, from these several establishments, which were all supported by government, and warmly patronized by the different reigning monarchs in France, that military science constituted one of the chief objects of French policy; and it is only bare justice to say, that their encouragement was not fruitlessly bestowed. The only public military establishments in this country, (which may be said to have sound theory and practice for their groundworks,) are the Royal Academy at Woolwich, and the infant institution of High Wycombe. The Turks have a military school, called the School for the Agemolias, or young men attached to the corps of Janizaries. This institution was created by Amurat, for the purpose of ensnaring a certain number of persons to every possible hardship of military service.

Fencing School, (école d'armes, Fr.)

Every French regiment, when in barracks or otherwise conveniently quartered, has a room allotted for the exercise of the small sword, the sabre, &c. Some active clever serjeant or soldier is authorised to teach his comrades, and to derive what benefit he can from giving lessons abroad. We need scarcely add, that some internal regulation of the kind would be highly advantageous to British officers.

SCIAGE, (Bois de Sciage, Fr.) sawing. Wood that is proper to be sawed in planks, or to be made fit for any use in carpentry.

SCIAGHRY, (Sciagrave, Fr.) the profile or section of a building to shew the inside thereof.

SCIE, Fr. a saw.

SCIENCE, any art or species of knowledge; as military science, &c.

SCIENCE of war, (Science de la Guerre, Fr.) According to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, the science of war, or the knowledge of military tactics upon an extensive scale, is, perhaps, the most compendious operation of the human mind, and demands the full exercise of all its powers. To be equal to the multifarious branches of this unbounded art, the strictest
strictest attention must be given to military discipline. The best authors, both ancient and modern, must be resorted to for information; and when the mind has been well stocked with the sound principles of theory, practice and experience must follow, in order to confirm what has been carefully selected from the first authorities, and maturely digested. Courage, zeal, prudence, and discretion, must likewise be the constant companions of those persons who would distinguish themselves in war; and it ought never to be forgotten, that a scrupulous adherence to morality, a rigid observance of every social duty, and a manly subjugation of the many passions by which different men are differently agitated, must constitute the character of a real warrior. These are the qualifications by which the science of war is distinguished from every other pursuit in life; and without these qualifications, a conqueror can neither be called a hero nor an able general, but only a lucky soldier. We have, indeed, our military colleges and institutions, and so had the Grecians and the Persians, not only for the instruction of the privates, but also for the education and formation of those individuals who were destined to be officers. These colleges and institutions were under the superintendence of persons who had established their reputation by a knowledge, not only of the theoretical, but also of the practical branches of their profession. Nobody could be admitted in the capacity of master or professor, unless he had previously undergone several examinations respecting the science of war, both as to offensive and defensive operations. These professors were called tacticians.

SCIMITAR, (Cimierre, Fr.) A short sword, with a convex edge, more or less incurvated.

SCIRITES et aquirites, a body of cavalry which formerly made part of the Macedonian army. The men, who chiefly composed it, came from a small town in the neighbourhood of Lacedaemon, which was called Sciro.

SCITIE, or SETIE, Fr. a small decked barge with Levant sails.

SCOPETIN, Fr. a person armed with a scopette, which see.

SCOPETTE, Fr. a fire-arm, resembling, in shape and make, a small blunderbuss, which was formerly used by the gens d'armes under Henry the IVth and Lewis the XIIIth of France. It carried from four to five hundred paces.

SCORPION, (Scorpion, Fr.) a sort of long thick javelin or arrow, which was used among the ancients. For a specific description, see Vegetius and Justus Lipsius. The Cretans are supposed to have invented the scorpion.

SCOTLAND, once a kingdom of Europe, comprehending the north part of the island of Great Britain, and hence called North Britain. It was united to England in the reign of Queen Anne, so that both countries, with the principality of Wales, form one nation. Ireland has been added to them, during the present reign.

Scotland has the sea on all sides, except the south, on which it is separated from England. It is about 380 miles long, and 190 broad. Exclusive of the main land, there are about 300 islands in its vicinity.

There are some laws respecting military matters which are peculiar to Scotland. Officers and soldiers, for instance, can only be quartered there, as they might have been quartered by the laws in force in Scotland at the time of the union. No officer or soldier, however, is obliged to pay for his lodging, when he is regularly billeted, except in the suburbs of Edinburgh.

Carriages are to be furnished there in like manner as by the laws in force at the union.

When any troops, or parties upon command, have occasion in their march to pass regular ferries in Scotland, it is lawful for the commanding officer either to pass over with his party as passengers, or to hire the ferry boat entirely for himself and his party, debarring others for that time, in his option. When he takes passage for himself and party as passengers, he is only to pay for himself, and for each person, officer, or soldier, under his command, half of the ordinary rate payable by single persons at any such ferry; and when he hires the ferry-boat for himself and party, he is to pay half of the ordinary rate for such boat or boats; and in such places where there are no regular ferries, but that all passengers hire boats at 5 L
at the rates they can agree for, officers, with or without parties, must agree for boats at the rate as other persons do in like cases.

To SCOUR, (Batter à toute voile, Fr.) This term is frequently used to express the act of firing a quick and heavy discharge of ordnance or musquetry, for the purpose of dislodging an enemy. Hence, to scour the rampart, or the covert way. It likewise signifies to clear, to drive away, viz. to scour the seas, écumer les mers, Fr. to scour the streets, écumer les rues; also to run about in a loose desultory manner, as to scour the country.

To SCOUR a line, is to flank it so as to see directly along it, that a musquet-bull, entering at one end, may fly to the other, leaving no place of security.

SCOURER, the ramrod was so called in old times. It formerly made a part in the exercise of the firelock, as, Draw forth your scourer; Return your scourer.

SCOUTS, are generally horsemen sent out before, and on the wings of an army, at the distance of a mile or two, to discover the enemy, and give the general an account of what they see.

SCRAMASAXES. According to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, the Scramasaxes was an offensive weapon, made in the shape of a sword, but not so long. Grégoire de Tours observes, in the 21st chapter of the fourth book of his history, that Frédégonde caused Sigisbert, king of Austrasia, to be assassinated by two drunken valets, who were armed with this weapon.

SCREW, (Escrou, Fr.) one of the mechanical powers, which is defined a right cylinder cut into a furrowed spiral. Wilkins calls it a kind of wedge, that is multiplied or continued by a helical revolution about a cylinder, receiving its motion, not from any stroke, but from a vextis at one end of it.

Screws, in gunnery, are fastened to the cascable of light guns and howitzers, by means of an iron bolt, which goes through a socket fixed upon the center transom, to elevate or depress the piece with, instead of wedges.

Screw of direction, (Vis de Pointage, Fr.) The screw of direction, used in the artillery, is formed of a brass horizontal roller, placed between the cheek of the carriage. The transom of the roller move upon two vertical iron pivots, which are fixed against the interior sides of the cheeks. By means of this screw, the direction of pieces is either raised, or lowered, with a regular movement, and in the smallest space.

The screw of direction, or Vis de Pointage, is equally used for howitzers as well as for heavy pieces of ordnance. It has been invented by the French, and serves in lieu of the Coins à Crêmerie, or indented coins.

Lock Screws, small screws which are attached to the lock of a musquet.

SCULL, (petit bateau, Fr.) A small boat.

SCULLCAP.—See HELMET.

SCULLER, (Bateau à un remueur, Fr.) A small boat with one man or a boy to row it.

SCURVY, (Scarbut, Fr.) a disease to which soldiers and seamen are peculiarly exposed, from eating salted meat and drinking bad water, &c. &c.

SCUTE or CANOE, Fr. any small boat which is used in navigation for the accommodation of a ship.

SCUTUM, the Latin word for a buckler or a shield, with which the Roman soldiers were formerly armed. It also signified a target. The scutum differed from the clypeus, in as much that the former was oval and the latter round. That which was used among the Grecians, was sometimes round, at others' square, and not unfrequently oval. The scutum, or buckler, which the Lacedemonians used, was so large, that the dead and wounded were carried on it.

SEA-BOAT, commonly called Lifeship, a floating vessel of a particular construction, made for the preservation of persons.

The new-invented life-boat was built by Mr. Towill of Teignmouth, Devonshire. It is considered by those who have tried experiments with it, to be well calculated to answer the purpose it is intended for. She is boarded up by eight cases, four on each side, water tight, and independent of each other. When men are saved from a wreck and landed, the boat may return, and some tons of goods may be put in the
SECOURABLE, Fr. that may be relieved, or have succours thrown in. The French say of a fortified place, which is invested at all points; or so blockaded, that there is neither egress nor ingress, qu'elle n'est pas secourable, that it cannot be relieved, or have succours thrown in.

SECOURIR une place, Fr. to throw succours into a besieged town or place. It sometimes signifies to force an investing or attacking army to raise the siege.

SECOURS, Fr. See Succour.

SECRET, a quality of the mind, by which men are enabled to keep to themselves anything reposéd in trust, or designs intended for execution. In the second volume of Polybius, page 134, the following sensible observations occur on this head:

"Among the many precautions to which a commander should attend, the first is that of observing secrecy. That neither the joy which springs from an unexpected prospect of success, nor yet the dread of a miscarriage, that neither friendship nor affection may prevail upon him, to communicate his design to any persons, except to those alone without whose assistance it cannot be carried into execution; and not even to these, till the time in which their services are severally required, obliges him to disclose it. Nor is it necessary only, that the tongue be silent, but much more, that the mind also make not any discovery. For it has often happened, that men who have carefully restrained themselves from speaking, have sometimes, by their countenance alone, and sometimes by their actions, very clearly manifested their designs."

In military economy, this quality is peculiarly requisite. It signifies fidelity to a secret; taciturnity inviolate; close silence. Officers, in particular, should be well aware of the importance of it, as the divulging of what has been confidentially entrusted to them, especially on expeditions, might render the whole project abortive. The slightest deviation from it is very justly considered as a breach of honour, as scandalous conduct, unbecoming an officer and a gentleman. In official matters, the person, so offending, is liable to the severest punishment and penalty.

The following authentic anecdote cannot be uninteresting to a military reader:

A lieutenant in the Prussian service having ingratiated himself into the confidence of the late king of Prussia, (when he was crowned prince of Prussia,) Frederick the Great sent for him, and accosted him in the following manner:

"Sir, I am very happy that my nephew has made so discreet a choice, as that of selecting you for his friend; but there is a matter in which you may oblige me essentially; and that is, to make me acquainted with the particulars of his conduct. This will gratify me much, and I will take care of your promotion."

The lieutenant bowed very respectfully, and nobly replied, "I am sensible to your majesty's mark of approbation; but it would be dishonourable, and, of course, it is impossible, for me to betray the prince's secrets." He was then retiring, when old Frederick, in an altered tone of voice, exclaimed,

"Mr. Lieutenant! as you do not know how to oblige me, I will now teach you to obey me. To Spandau!"

The young officer was immediately secured, and confined in a prison of that name, which is in the neighbourhood of Berlin.

We lament, that so great a man should have tarnished the splendour of his character, by descending into the low temper of a praying courtier.

SECRET, (Secret, Fr.) Under this word may be considered the caution and circumspection which every good general should observe during a campaign; the feats he may think proper to make for the purpose of covering a projected attack; and the various stratagems to which he may resort to keep his own intentions concealed, and to get at those of others.

SECRET, kept bidden, not revealed.—Hence secret expedition, secret enterprise, &c. Secret articles of a treaty, being the correlative words to patent articles.

SECRET, Fr. The French use this word in the same sense that we do, which signifies, figuratively, a certain skill or aptitude in one general, to discover and penetrate into the latent designs of another, who may be opposed to him. This also holds good in politics.
tics. Hence, le plus grand secret de l'art militaire et de la politique, est de savoir bien étudier, et bien pénétrer, les actions et les dessins de son adversaire; the greatest secret in war, as well as in politics, consists in being able to study, with correctness, and to penetrate, with certainty, not only the actions, but also the designs, of an adversary.

SECRET, Fr. the spot chosen by the captain of a fire-ship to apply the saucisson of communication.

SECRET Expedition. Those are often called such, which in fact are known to the enemy before they are put into execution; they should never be communicated to any other than the commander of the troops, and the first naval officer, until they are in absolute readiness to act, and but a few hours before the enterprise is put in execution: no officer being allowed to open his instructions until he is either at his destination, or at sea. See Expedition.

SECRETAIRES, Fr. the clerk belonging to the Swiss regiments in the old French service was so called. He acted likewise as quarter-master sergeant and was styled musterschreiber.

SECRETAIRES général d'artillerie, Fr. a place of trust, which, during the French monarchy, was in the nomination of the grand master.

SECRETARY at War, (secrétair de guerre, Fr.) the first civil officer next to the minister of the war department. All military matters that are of a pecuniary nature, rest with the secretary at war.

Secretaries at War.
March 24th, 1761, Right Hon. Lord Barrington, Right Hon. Charles Townshend.
February 27th, 1763, Right Hon. Welbore Ellis, (late Lord Mendip).
July 20th, 1763, Lord Barrington.
June, 1778, Charles Jenkinson, now Earl of Liverpool.
May 30th, 1782, Right Hon. T. Townshend, late Lord Sydney.
July 10th, 1782, Sir G. Yonge, Bart. K. B.
April 9th, 1783, Right Hon. R. Fitzpatrick.
Jan. 6th, 1784, Right Hon. Sir G. Yonge, Bart. K. B.
July 11th, 1794, Right Hon. William Windham.

Feb. 20th, 1801, Right Hon. Charles Yorke.
June, 1802, Mr. Bragge.
In 1803, Right Hon. William Dundas.

Military Secretary, at the horse guards, a confidential person, who is attached to the commander in chief of the British forces, and who does the official business of the army, as far as respects the rank and precedence of officers, &c. It is his duty to receive communications, memorials, and other documents appertaining to the executive branches of the service, and to lay them before the commander in chief, without favour or affection. He has also fixed days and hours for the reception of military men; whose cases he listens to with candour, and to whom he behaves with the becoming firmness of a soldier, without deviating from the conciliating manners of a gentleman.—A military secretary should be well versed in every sort of military reading, thoroughly conversant with every species of military duty, and capable of the most ready combination of theory and practice. All memorials, &c. to be addressed for the commander in chief, are to be sent under cover to his public or official secretary, at the commander in chief's office, Horse Guards.

Secretary and aide-de-camp, the confidential aide-de-camp of a commander in chief, or general officer, is usually so called.

Secretary of State, (secrétair d'état, Fr.) This officer, independent of his civil capacity, has so far an intimate connexion with the administration of the army, that many of its essential branches must necessarily pass through him. It is his duty, in particular, to lay before the king the names of all persons recommended to hold commissions in the militia. He must likewise cause copies of the several qualifications, which have been transmitted to him by the clerks of the peace, or their deputies, to be annually laid before both houses of parliament. This clause, we believe, has lately been dispensed with, as well as a foregoing one, which enacts, that the clerk of the peace of every county, riding, and place, shall enter the qualifications transmitted to him upon a roll, and shall cause to be inserted
brining the elbow close down upon
the lock; the right hand kept fast in
this motion, and the piece still upright.
3d. Quit the right hand, and bring
it down your right side, throwing the
firelock nimly down to the secure; the
left hand in a line with the waist-belt.
In order to shoulder from the secure,
you must 1st, bring the firelock up to a
perpendicular line, seizing it with the
right hand under the cock.
3d. Quit the left hand, and place it
strong upon the butt.
3d. Quit the right hand, and bring
it smartly down the right side.
**Secure arms**, now forms a part of
the new manual.

**Secutores**, or *Sequatores*, a cer-
tain class of gladiators, among the an-
cient Romans, who, being armed with
a helmet, a shield, and a sword, or a
leaden mace, encountered the retiarii.
The latter stood always upon the de-
sensive, and only watched an opportuni-
ty to throw a net over their antagonist,
in order to destroy him with a pitch-fork;
which was the only weapon the Retiarii
used.

**Sédentaire**, Fr. Stationary.

**Troupes Sédentaires**, Fr. Stationary
troops. Thus the national guards in
France, who do duty in the several
garrison towns, are called *gardes na-
tionales sédentaires*, in contradiction to
colonnés mobiles, or moveable columns.
The latter are sometimes called, *troupes en
activité*, troops on service.

**Séditation**, (Sédition, revolte, cemeute,
Fr.) Mutiny, strife, popular tumult, up-
roar.

Solon, the celebrated lawyer among
the ancients, made a rule which ren-
dered all persons infamous who stood
neuter in a sedition. This good and
wise man thought, indeed, that no in-
dividual ought to be insensible with re-
gard to his country, nor value himself
on providing for his own security, by
refusing to share the distresses of the
public; but in the defence of a just
cause, he judged that a good citizen
should bravely run all hazards, rather
than remain an inactive spectator.

**Seer**, Ind. A weight nearly equal
to a pound.

**Seesar**, Ind. The dewy season.

**Seearish**, Ind. A recommenda-
dation.

**Seepeeya**, Ind. A triangle to
which culprits are tied to be flogged.

**Seffy**, Ind. A dynasty of Persia.

**Segbans.** Horsemen among the
Turks, who have care of the baggage
belonging to cavalry regiments.

**Segment**, a figure contained be-
tween a chord and an arch of the circle,
or so much of the circle as is cut off by
that chord.

**Seja**, Ind. A fenced terrace.

**Seillure**, (Sillage, eau, houage ou
ouich, Fr.) Terms used among the
French to express the way a ship makes;
it corresponds with our naval word
*Wake*, which is also called *Eaux*.

**Séjour**, Fr. A halting day; such
as is usually marked out by the secre-
tary at war; when troops are on their
march in the interior of a country; or
by the general of an army, when they
are in the field. In a naval sense, it
signifies the time that a ship remains in
port.

**Sein**, Fr. In the midst. The
French say figuratively, *porter la guerre
dans le sein d'un royaume*; to carry a
war into the heart of a kingdom. *Au
sein de ses soldats*; in the midst of his
soldiers.

**Seing Manuel**, Fr. Sign manual.

**Sel**, Fr. Salt. Before the revolu-
tion of 1789, the French troops were
allowed a specific quantity of salt, which
was regularly accounted for at the back
of the muster-rolls.

**Sel**, Fr. The salt used in the ar-
tillery is lixivial, and of a fixed quality.
It is extracted from saltpetre, and must
be thoroughly washed, as no saltpetre
can be good which has the least saline or
greny particle about it.

**Selé**, (Soi-même, Fr.) One's own
person.

**Self-confident.** See *Vanity*.

**Self-sufficient.** See *Vanity*.

**Selfishness.** A narrow, mean,
and unmanly regard for one's own in-
terest only; a quality incompatible
with the fine feelings and the high no-
tions of an officer.

**Selectar.** A Turkish sabre.

**Selion**, (Sillon, Fr.) A ridge of
land which lies between two furrows.

**To-Sell.** To dispose of for a price.

**To sell out**, a term generally used
when an officer is permitted to retire
from the service; selling or disposing
of his commission or commissions. It is the word correlative to buy in. Officers who have purchased or bought, are usually allowed to sell. But much depends upon the interest or good luck of the individual, with respect to the advantages which are derived from this traffic. It sometimes happens, that an officer, who has only perhaps bought one commission, and has risen to the top of the regiment, is permitted to get the aggregate value of all the steps; and he is fortunate indeed, if the step he purchased was the first, and consequently the cheapest. During the administration of his Royal Highness the Duke of York, a great check has been put to the enormous abuses which were practised at the beginning of the late war. But it will require more than Herculean labour to keep this military Augean stable clean, so long as the system of bargain and sale prevails.

To sell at the Regulation. To receive the regulated price of a commission.—A commission is sometimes allowed to be sold at the Regulation for the benefit of an individual, whose children have fallen in the service; and it sometimes happens, that individuals are obliged to quit the army without being able to take advantage of the market. Thus some officers at the commencement of the present war, were ordered by his Majesty to retire from the service, taking the regulated prices of their several commissions, on account of their political opinions.

SELLA imperatoria vel castrensis. A chair of state, made of carved ivory, which the Roman generals used in the field, and which was afterwards converted into the Imperial throne.

SELE, Fr. A saddle.—See Boutelle.

SELE rate, Fr. A saddle without a bow.

Selle d'arçon, Fr. A bow-saddle.

SEMABLES, Fr. In geometry, similar, alike, equal. This term is applied to any two figures, the sides of one of which correspond with the sides of the other, and are always in the same ratio. So that semblable or alike, only means in this sense equal. Two circles, though unequal in their sizes, may still be alike, that is, their several parts may agree according to a certain ratio.

Les SEMELLES, Fr. The axle-trees belonging to the carriage of a gun.

SEMESTRE, Fr. This word literally signifies a term of six months; but it is generally understood to express any term of leave of absence which is granted to officers or soldiers. With respect to the latter, it means furlough.

SEMESTRIER, Fr. This term comes from the word Semestre, and signifies the person who has leave of absence, or who goes on furlough.

SEMICIRCLE, part of a circle divided by the diameter.

SEMI DIAMETER, half of the line which divides a circle into two equal parts.

SEMIORDINATE. A line drawn at right angles to be bisected by the axis, and extending from one side of the section to the other.

SENAU, Fr. A small skiff, or tender, calculated for quick sailing.

SÉNECHAL, Fr. This is the most ancient of all the titles or dignities which were attached to those individuals that undertook the command of armies, when the Kings of France, belonging to the second race, ceased to go in person. The Sénéchal was selected by the sovereign from among those vassals and subjects, who were highest in nobility, and were most distinguished for their rank, wealth and talents. The title of grand Sénéchal of France was first created by Lotharius, in 928, and conferred upon Geoffrey, count of Anjou, surnamed Grisgonnelle. This rank or situation, continued to be attached to the title of Count of Anjou, until the reign of Philip Augustus, in whom it was extinguished when he ascended the throne of France, in 1131. The grand sénéchal likewise exercised the functions of Lord Steward of the King's household; having under him several subordinate seneschals, who also held places of considerable trust. These were called Sénéchaux de France, or Seneschals of France.

SÉNECHALE, Fr. The seneschal's wife or lady.

SENS-dessus-dessous, Fr. Topsy-turvy.
SENSE-SEPT

Sens-devant-derrière, Fr. Wrong way.

SENRIORITY, in military matters, is the difference of time between the raising of two regiments, whereby the one is said to be so much senior to the other. All regiments take place according to seniority. The difference of time between the dates of two commissions, makes the one senior to the other; and all officers of the same rank, roll by the seniority of their commissions.

The seniority of a regiment or battalion supersedes the standing of an individual in the army, being wholly distinct from each other with respect to rank. A regiment, for instance, may have three battalions, and be thus commanded:—1st battalion by a major-general, 2d battalion by a lieutenant-general, and the third again by a full general; or to make the case as it really existed during the late war, the first and second battalions shall be commanded by a major-general and a lieutenant-general, the latter having the youngest battalion. Should the second battalion be reduced, the senior officer with respect to rank in the army, goes to the right about, and the junior remains full colonel of the standing battalion. It must likewise be observed, that in the line of battle, officers are posted according to seniority of their regiments. So that, in the case described, the lieutenant-general would be commanded by the major-general.

SENTENCE. Decision; determination, final judgment. There is an appeal allowed from the sentence of a regimental court-martial to the opinion of a general one.

To sentence a thousand lashes. To pass judgment upon a man, by which he is liable to receive that specific number of lashes. When the sentence proceeds from a general court-martial, the king only can remit the punishment; in regimental cases the total remission, or mitigation, rests with the commanding officer.

SENTINEL, } From the Latin sens-
SENTRY, } tio, or, more properly
from the Italian sentinelia, is a private soldier, placed in some post, to watch the approach of the enemy, to prevent surprises, to stop such as would pass without order, or being discovered who they are: Sentrys are placed before the arms of all guards, at the tents and doors of general officers, colonels of regiments, &c.

All sentries are to be vigilant on their posts; they are not, on any account to sing, smoke tobacco, nor suffer any noise to be made near them. They are to have a watchful eye over the things committed to their charge. They are not to suffer any light to remain, or any fire to be made near their posts in the night-time; neither is any sentry to be relieved, or removed from his post, but by the corporal of the guard. They are not to suffer any one to touch or handle their arms, or in the night time to come within ten yards of their post.

No person is to strike or abuse a sentry on his post; but when he has committed a crime, he is to be relieved, and then punished according to the rules and articles of war.

A sentinel, on his post in the night, is not to know any body, but by the countersign; when he challenges, and is answered, relief, he calls out stand, relief! advance, corporal! upon which the corporal halts his men, and advances alone within a yard of the sentry's fire-lock (first ordering his party to port arms, on which the sentry does the same) and gives him the same countersign, taking care that no one hears it.

See ROUNDS.

SENTINELLE, Fr. Sentinel; sentry. This word is likewise used to express the duty done by a sentinel.

Faire sentinelle. To stand sentry.

SENTINELLE perdue, Fr. A sentry posted in a very advanced situation, so as to be in continual danger of surprize from the enemy.

SEPTANGULAR. Having seven angles.

SEPTENTRION, Fr. The north.

SEPADAR, Ind. An officer of the rank of brigadier-general.

SEPAHE, Ind. A feudatory chief, or military tenant.

SEPHARRY, Ind. Afternoon.

SEPOYS, Ind. Derived from Sepoy. Natives who have enlisted themselves into the service of the East India Company, and are attached to the infantry. These troops have both native
and European officers; but the Europeans at all times command. The Sepoys make excellent soldiers, are remarkably clean, and feel a natural predilection for arms.

SEPTEMBRISADE, Fr. A term used to express the general massacre which took place in Paris on the 2d and 5d of September, 1792.

SEPTEMBRISER, Fr. To September. To Massacre.

SEPTEMBRISER, Fr. A name given to those who were concerned in the massacres of September, and to those who were suspected of having aided and abetted the perpetrators of those horrid acts. The latter were also called Semembrises.

SEPTIDI, Fr. The seventh day in the French Republican decade.

SEPTILATERAL. Having seven sides.

SEPTUPLE. Seven-fold.

SERAKHUR, Ind. \\ Native officer.

SERANG, \[ cers who are employed in the artillery, and on board ships of war.

SERASKIER, (Seraskier, Fr.) Among the Turks, the next in rank to the Vizier, in whose absence he commands, but to whose orders he is constantly subservient.

SERASKUR, Ind. This word is sometimes written Seraskier, and signifies the commander in chief of a Turkish army.

SERDANS, Colonels in the Turkish service are so called.

SERF, SERVE, Fr. A bondman, bondwoman. Formerly, those only were called bondmen and bondwomen whose persons and property belonged, unconditionally, to some lord of a manor, to whom the property devolved in default of lineal inheritance. A bondman or serf was, in fact, a slave. All the peasants in Poland are of this class, as well as those in Russia.

SERGENS D'ARMES, Fr. A distinguished class of military men, that constituted the body guard of Philippe Auguste of France. Under Philippe-le Bel, they only did duty every quarter, at the palace. Their weapons consisted of the masse d'armes, or mace, and the arc or bow. The company of sergens d'armes was, at first, composed of two hundred men; afterwards it was reduced to one hundred and fifty, and then again to one hundred. During the absence of his father John, who was a prisoner in England, Charles the Fifth, regent of France, reduced them to six individuals. And since the reign of Charles the Seventh, the sergens d'armes have not been spoken of.

SERGENT, Fr. See SERJEANT.

SERGENT noble, Fr. A post of honour which existed during the first periods of the French monarchy. The French compiler, from whose work we have occasionally translated much matter relative to the military history, &c. of France, has the following passage concerning the term itself. We shall give his words literally:— "This term does not come from serviens, as I have imagined in common with many other Etymologists. Monsieur Beneton, in his Histoire de la Guerre, says, that the sergeant who seemed to think he could trace the origin of his title in the Latine word serviens, was a gentleman by birth, who during the prevalence of military siefs, was liable to do military service, in consequence of the feudal tenure, called Fief de Sergenterie, by which he held his land. His superior officer was called Sussraim in the functions of whose situation corresponded with those of a modern adjudant. It was the business of the Sergent Noble, or gentleman sergeant, to assemble all the vassals of the Sussraim, for the purpose of incorporating them under one standard, and of rendering them fit for war.

SERGENT de bande, Fr. Sergeant in the common acceptation of the term. The etymology of this word is different from that of Sergent Noble. It evidently comes from the French seruge, or men that close or lock up, the same as serre-files; shewing that this non-commissioned officer was placed to take charge of the rear files, whilst the commissioned one was in the front. It was his business to see that the rear conformed itself to the orders which were given in the front; to make the files lock up and dress, &c.

SERGENT de bataille, Fr. Field sergeant. This was an appointment of considerable trust in the old French armies. The Sergens de bataille held commands,
commands, and did the duty of inspectors. They ranked next to a field marshal, or maréchal de bataille. The sergents de bataille, or field serjeants, existed under Francis the First. But these field serjeants were only at that time sergents de bandes, or train serjeants. There were likewise, under the same king, sergents généraux de bataille, general field serjeants. These were officers of rank, and did the duty of a modern major-general.

There were also officers of the same description in the reign of Henry IV. This appointment appears to have been dropped after the peace of the Pyrénées. The author of the Histoire de la Milice Françoise, observes, that the appointment and duty of the different officers, called marshals, or field serjeants, varied according to the will and pleasure of the French kings, and their war ministers. He agrees with us, that the situation of field serjeant was originally of great consequence, but that it gradually declined, and was eventually made subservient to a superior officer, who was called Maréchal de bataille, whose duties corresponded with those of adjutant-general in the present times.

There have been officers of the same denomination both in Spain and Germany, who did the duty of Marechaux de Camp; another term, we presume, for major-general. But the general field serjeants in those countries were divided into two classes; one class was confined, in its functions, to the infantry, and the other to the cavalry; and both acted independently of one another; whereas in France they acted together.

According to the present establishment of the French army, there is a serjeant-major belonging to each company. The sergents majors d'un régiment, ou d'une place, of the old French service, were what are now simply called majors, majors of regiments, or town-majors.

SERGENTER, Fr. A word frequently used by the French, in a figurative sense, signifying to prese, to importance. On n'aime point à être sergent; one does not like to be pressed; or as we familiarly say, to be dragged into a thing.

SERHUD, Ind. A boundary, or frontier.

SERJEANT, In war, is a non-commissioned officer in a company or troop, armed with a pike, and appointed to see discipline observed; to teach the private men their exercise; and to order, straiten, and form ranks, files, &c. He receives the orders from the serjeant-major, which he communicates to his officers.- Each company has generally three serjeants, in the British service.

SERJEANT-Major. The serjeant-major is the first non-commissioned officer in the regiment after the quartermaster. He is, in fact, an assistant to the adjutant.

It is his peculiar duty to be perfect master of every thing which relates to drills; and it is always expected, that he should set an example to the rest of the non-commissioned officers, by his manly, soldier-like, and zealous activity.

He must be thoroughly acquainted with all the details which regard the interior management, and the discipline of a regiment. For this purpose he must be a good penman, and must keep regular lists of the serjeants and corporals, with the dates of their appointments, as well as the roster for their duties, and rosters of privates orderly duty and commands, as far as relates to the number which each troop or company is to furnish. He is in every respect responsible for the accuracy of these details. He must look well to the appearance of the men, and order each to drill as he sees awkward, slovenly, or in any way irregular. If it be meant as a punishment, he specifies the time for which they are sent to drill; if only for awkwardness, they remain there until their faults are removed.

When he has occasion to put a non-commissioned officer in arrest, he must report him to the adjutant.

In most regiments the serjeant-major, under the direction of the adjutant, is directed to drill every young officer who comes into the regiment in the manual and platoon exercises; he is likewise to instruct them in the slow and quick marches, in wheeling, &c. He is paid for his trouble by each officer whom he instructs. In some regiments, especially
especially the cavalry, one guinea and
a half, and in others one guinea is
given.
He reports regularly to the adjutant
the exact state of the awkward drill,
&c.
It is scarcely necessary to observe in
this place, that the good or bad ap-
ppearance of a regiment, with or without
arms, depends greatly upon the skill and
activity of a serjeant-major; and that he
has every inducement to look forward
to promotion.

Covering-Serjeant. A non-com-
mmissioned officer, who during the ex-
cercise of a battalion, regularly stands
or moves behind each officer, command-
ing or acting with a platoon or com-
pany. When the ranks take open or-
der, and the officers move in front, the
covering serjeants replace their leaders;
and when the ranks are closed, they fall
back in their rear.

Drill-Serjeant. An expert and ac-
tive non-commissioned officer, who,
under the immediate direction of the
serjeant-major, instructs the raw re-
cruits of a regiment in the first prin-
ciples of military exercise. When
awkward, or ill-behaved, men are sent
to drill, they are usually placed under
the care of the drill-serjeant. This
non-commissioned officer will do well
to bear constantly in mind the follow-
ning observations from page 185, vol. I.
of the Règlements pour l’Infanterie
Prussienne.

In teaching young recruits their first
duties, the greatest caution must be ob-
served not to give them a disgust to the
service, by harsh treatment, angry and
impatient words, and much less by
blows. The utmost mildness must, on
the contrary, be shewn, in order to
en-
dear the service to them; and the se-
veral parts of exercise must be taught
them by degrees; so that they become
insensibly acquainted with the whole
of the discipline, without having been
disgusted in the acquirement. Rustics
and strangers must be used with ex-
treme lenity.

Pay-Serjeant. An honest, steady,
non-commissioned officer, (who is a
good accountant, and writes well) that
is selected by the captain of a company
in the infantry, to pay the men twice a
week, and to account weekly to him,
or to his subalterns, (as the case may
be) for all disbursements. He likewise
keeps a regular state of the necessaries
of the men, and assists in making up
the monthly abstract for pay, allow-
ances, &c.

Quarter-master Serjeant. A non-
commissioned officer who acts under
the quarter-master of a regiment; he
ought to be a steady man, a good ac-
countant, and to be well acquainted
with the resources of a country town or
village.

Lance-Serjeant. A corporal who
acts as serjeant in a company, but only
receives the pay of a corporal.

White-Serjeant. A term of just
ridicule, in the British service, which is
applied to those ladies, who, taking ad-
Vantage of the uxoriousness of their
husbands, neglect their household con-
cerns, to interfere in military matters.

Serjeant-at-Arms. An officer ap-
pointed to attend the person of a king,
arrest traitors, and persons of quality
offending, and to attend the lord stew-
ard when he sits in judgment on any
traitor.

SERMENT, Fr. Oath.
Prêté Serment, Fr. To take an
oath.

Serment de Soldat, Fr. The sol-
dier’s oath, or oath of fidelity and pas-
sive obedience, as far as lawful com-
mands extend. For the oath which
was taken among the Romans, see Sa-
cramentum.

SERPE, Fr. A bill hook.
SERPE d’armes, Fr. An offensive
weapon; so called from its resemblance
to a hedging bill.

SERPENS, Fr. See Salamandre.

Serpenteau, Fr. A round iron
circle, with small spikes, and squibs at-
tached to them. It is frequently used
in the attack and defence of a breach.
It likewise means a fusée, which is
filled with gunpowder, and is bent in
such a manner, that when it takes fire,
it obtains a circular rapid motion, and
throws out sparks of light in various
directions.

Serpenteaux et serpenterus broches-
tés, Fr. A species of fusée, which is
garnished or loaded upon a stick or
spit, that is a third of the length of the
cartridge.

SERPENTIN, Fr. The cock of a
musquet or firelock.

Serpentin,
Serpentin, Fr. An old piece of ordnance, which resembled a cannon, but is no longer in use.

Serre-File, Fr. The last rank of a battalion, by which its depth is ascertained, and which always forms its rear. When ranks are doubled, the battalion resumes its natural formation by means of the serre-files. Serre-file literally signifies a closer up. Perhaps the term serre-file would be more appropriate than supernumerary, as both officer and serjeant are posted in the rear to keep the rear-ranks up.

Serre demi File, Fr. That rank in a battalion which determines the half of its depth, and which marches before the demi-file. Thus a battalion standing six deep, has its serre demi file in the third rank, which determines its depth.

Capitaine de Serre-Files, Fr. The officer who commands a rear-guard when a regiment is on its march.

SERRER, Fr. To close up. Serré vos râns. Take close order.

SERRER la bride, Fr. To pull in the bridle.

SERRER la botte, Fr. A term used in cavalry movements, when dragoons are ordered to close in, knee to knee.

SERRER l'éperon, Fr. To push the spur home, when the horse is required to go full gallop.

Serez la mace, Fr. A word of command in the French service, signifying—Form close column.

Serez vos râns, Fr. Take close order.

SERRURE, Fr. A lock.

SERRUERIER, Fr. A locksmith.

SERVANS d'armes, or Chevaliers Servans, Fr. Persons belonging to the third class of the Order of Malta are so called. They are not noblemen, although they wear the sword and the cross.

SERVANTS. In a military sense are soldiers taken from the ranks, for the purpose of waiting upon officers, and of accompanying them when they are with their respective corps. Among the Standing Orders for Prince William's regiment, of Gloucester, namely, the 115th, which were printed during the last war, we find the following particulars respecting this class of men.

The officers' servants to be taken from the rear and center ranks.

No soldier to be permitted to act as an officer's servant, that is not perfect in his exercise, and whose conduct is not good.

Recruits, on no account whatever, to be suffered to attend officers as servants.

No soldier to be taken as a servant, without the consent of the commanding officer of his company; and if he is of a different company than that to which the officer belongs, he is to have the consent of both captains or commanding officers. When a soldier is to be employed as a servant, by an officer who does not belong to the same company, his commanding officer will chuse out of the company to which such servant is transferred, another man in exchange, from the same rank, as that in which the servant has been accustomed to serve.

It is recommended, that every soldier who shall attend an officer in the capacity of a servant, may be allowed no more wages than one shilling British per week.

Servants to constitute, invariably, part of the detail with their masters on duty.

They are to be punctual in their attendance, at the time the non-commissioned officers and men are ordered for inspection.

No officer is, on any pretence whatever, to neglect reporting to the commanding officer instantly, when he discovers any act of dishonesty, either in his own servant, or in the servant of any other officer of the regiment. Any soldier, employed by an officer in the character of a servant, who either himself robs, or knowingly suffers others to do so, from his master, or from any body else, let the articles be ever so trifling, shall be brought to a court-martial, and if found guilty, be punished for a breach of the Standing Orders of the regiment. We humbly presume to suggest, that under so serious a charge as that of theft, the delinquent should be tried for a breach of the specific article of war, before a general court-martial.

Whenever an officer dismisses a soldier from acting as his servant, such soldier is to return to his company complete in regimentals, necessaries and
and appointments, without any expense to his captain; and if he is discharged on account of dishonesty, or irregularities of any kind, such servant is not afterwards to be employed by any other officer of the regiment.

In addition to these orders, we take the liberty to observe, (since the article of war, which says expressly, that no soldier shall wear a livery, is through neglect and by custom, become a dead letter,) that if officers' servants were to be plainly dressed, with a cuff and cape to correspond with the furbings of the several regiments, much ridiculous parade and shew would be avoided.

To SERVE, (Servir, Fr.) In a military sense, to do duty as an officer or soldier.

To SERVE a piece, (servir une pièce, Fr.) in the artillery, to load and fire with promptitude and correctness. The French use the term in the same sense, viz. L'artillerie fut bien servie à ce siège; the artillery was well served at this siege.

SERVICE, (Service, Fr.) In a general sense of the word, as far as it relates to war, every species of military duty which is done by an inferior under the influence and command of a superior. It likewise means exploit, achievement. It also points out the particular profession to which a man belongs, as land service, sea service, and the degree of knowledge which he may have acquired by practice, viz. He has seen a great deal of service.

SERVICE likewise means the period during which a man has done duty, or followed the military profession in an active manner.

To see SERVICE. To be in actual contact with an enemy.

To be on SERVICE. To be doing actual duty with a corps, or detachment.

To enter into the SERVICE. To purchase, or receive without purchase, a commission in the army. In either case the individual must be recommended to the commander in chief, or to the secretary at war, (as the case may be) stating him to be fully qualified to hold that situation. This is done for his Majesty's approbation.—See RECOMMEND.

To retire from the SERVICE. To quit the army, or resign with or without the advantage of being benefited by the sale of one, or more commissions.

No officer can resign his commission, or retire from the service, without having previously obtained his Majesty's permission through the commander in chief, or the secretary at war, as the case may be.

To retire from the SERVICE, keeping one's rank. It has sometimes happened, that an officer has obtained permission to quit the army, keeping his rank: by which means he has been enabled to return into the service, and to take advantage of his original standing. A very meritorious officer, of high rank at present, was permitted to retire in this manner. There have been instances of officers retiring, not only with their rank, but with a certain allowance from the regiment. None, however, of any description have occurred since the management of the army fell to the present commander in chief, who is decidedly averse to every thing of the kind.

Infantry SERVICE. Service done by foot soldiers.

Cavalry SERVICE. Service done by soldiers on horseback. In the different exchanges and promotions which take place, the strictest regard should be paid to the particular branch of service, in which the individual has been trained. For it would be ridiculous to bring an officer from Gibraltar, after ten years' residence, to take the command of a troop of life-guards, or light-dragons in Hyde-Park; and it would be equally absurd to see an old cavalry officer suddenly undertake the management of an infantry regiment. But the absurdity is more glaring in the first instance, than in the latter; and we are happy to learn, that among other salutary regulations which have taken place, in consequence of his Royal Highness the commander in chief's attention to the real interests of the British army, there is a specific instruction given to all colonels of cavalry regiments, to be scrupulously minute on this head.

General SERVICE. This term is applied to troops that are liable to be sent to any quarter of the habitable globe. Hence men raised for general service.
service. Regiments composed of volunteers from the militia are not of this description; nor have the officers who came from that establishment, progressive rank in the army. Stars are affixed to their names in the army list.

A letter of Service, see Letter.

Home Service. In a military sense, and with us, the duty which is done within the limits of the three united kingdoms, and the adjacent islands. This term is frequently used to distinguish such troops as are not liable to serve beyond specified limits, from those that have been raised for general service.

Foreign Service, military duty, or service done abroad.

Secret Service, any service performed by an individual, in a clandestine secret manner. It likewise means intelligence, or information given by spies when countries are engaged in war, for which they receive pecuniary compensation.

Secret Service money, the reward or compensation which is given for secret intelligence.

Hard Service. This term is used, among the British, to signify the exercise of military duties in the presence of an enemy: we say, he has seen much hard service; which the French express thus: Il a beaucoup servi.

Services, pecuniary disbursements, or payments which are made for military purposes.

Être de Service, Fr. to be on duty.

Être de Service chez le roi, Fr. to do duty at the palace.

Service likewise means tour of duty, or routine of service.

Service de l'infanterie en marche, Fr. the regular duties or routine of service which an infantry regiment goes through when it receives orders to march. These are the general, la générale ou le premier; the assembly, l'assemblée ou le second; the troop, le drapeau, ou le dernier.

Service des places, Fr. the regular duty, or routine of service, which is performed in fortified towns or places. Of this description are garrison duties. See l'Essai sur la science de la guerre, par Mons. le Baron D'Espagnac, tom. ii. p. 355, and les Éléments Militaires, tom. ii. p. 116, where specific regulations on this head may be seen. We likewise recommend to the perusal of every engineer and artillery officer, a late valuable publication, entitled Essai Générale de Fortification et d'Attaque et Défense des places.

Service de Campagne, Fr. field duties. This subject has been ably treated by several French writers, and among others by the author of Les Éléments Militaires, tom. ii. p. 1, &c. and in tom. iv. p. 68, &c. We likewise recommend to British officers in general, a small treatise which has lately been published at the Military Library, relative to the duties of an officer in the field, and principally of light troops, whether cavalry or infantry; as containing much useful information, and preparatory knowledge.

Avoir du Service, Fr. a vulgar term used among the French to signify, that a man has been in various situations without much credit to himself, or benefit to others. It is particularly applied to a soldier who has been in different services, or who has deserted and got into two or three different regiments.

Service de Grand n'est pas héritage, Fr. an expression used among the French, which signifies, that attendance on the great seldom produces any permanent advantage. Every individual, who has talents, should, of course, depend upon his own exertions.

Faire son Service, Fr. to go through the functions or duties of a place or situation.

SERVICEABLE, capable of performing all necessary military duty.

SERVIR le canon, Fr. to serve the cannon, or bring it into action.

SERVIR l'artillerie, Fr. to serve the artillery, or bring it into action.

SERVITEUR, Fr. The French use this word in the same way that we do servant; Hence, bon serviteur du Prince, de l'état, de la Patrie, a good servant of his prince or sovereign; a good servant of the state, of the country. By which is meant a man of conduct marked by zeal and assiduity, together with unshaken fidelity; all of which are essential ingredients in the military character.
To SET a sentry, (poser une sentinelle, Fr.) to place a soldier at any particular spot for its security.

To SET on, (attaquer, Fr.) to attack.

To SET at defiance, (défier, Fr.) to defy; to dare to combat, &c.

To SET up, (dresser, Fr.) to make a man fit for military movements and parade. It is observed in the Rules and Regulations, that too many methods cannot be used to supple the recruit, and banish the air of a rustic; but that excess of setting up, which stiffens the person, and tends to throw the body backward instead of forward, is contrary to every true principle of movement, and must therefore be most carefully avoided.

SETENDY, Ind. the militia.

SETTER, in gunnery, a round stick to drive fuzes, or any other compositions, into cases made of paper.

SHAFT-rings. See Rings.

SEUIL, Fr. a threshold.

SEUIL d’écrou, Fr. a thick piece of wood which is laid crossways between two stakes at the bottom of the water, for the purpose of supporting the floodgate.

SEUIL de pont levis, Fr. a thick piece of wood with a groove, which is fixed on the edge of the counterscarp of a fossé or ditch, in order to bear the weight or pressure of the draw-bridge, when it is lowered. It is likewise called sommeur, a summer, or principal beam.

SEVIR, one of the chief knights of ancient Rome, being six in all, and one to each ten; also a captain of a regiment of horse.

SEWER, (égout, Fr.) a drain, conduit, or conveyance, for carrying off water, soilage, &c. It is necessary, that every building have conveniences for discharging its refuse water, and other useless and offensive matters. These are obtained by digging and laying sewers and drains at proper depths, and with the necessary outlets. The great care is, that they be large enough; that they be placed sufficiently deep, and have a proper descent; that they be well arched over, and have so free a passage, that there be no danger of their choking up; the cleaning them being a work of trouble and expense.

Instead of making the bottom of the sewer a flat floor, it should be in the form of an inverted arch, answering in part to the sweep of the arch above. Every one knows that the freest passage is through circular channels; and these might easily be constructed so as to wear that form; they would resemble so many water-pipes of a circular base, and there would be no danger of their filling up. The perpendicular walls would not retain any thing, because there are no angles in their joining; and the bottom being round and free, all would run off.

SEX-angled, having six angles.

SEXTANT, (Sextant, Fr.) in mathematics, an instrument which serves to measure angles. It is the segment of a circle, or an arch of 60 degrees, which makes the sixth part of a circle.

SEYMAR-Bassy, or first lieutenant-general of the Janizaries, an officer among the Turks who not only commands the Janizaries that are called Seymens, but when the Aga, (which signifies chief guardian, and Aga-i, chief or guardian of) takes the field, who further assumes the title of Kaymak, or his lieutenant at Constantinople. He is authorized to put his own seal upon the different dispatches which he sends, and takes rank of all the sardans or colonels in his jurisdiction. He is likewise entrusted with the entire direction and management of all that concerns, or relates to, the interior government of the Janizaries.

SEXTIDI, Fr. the sixth day in the French republican decade.

SEXTILE, Fr. In the French republican almanack, a year is said to be sextile, when it contains 366 days; in which case there is a sixth complementary day.

SHAKE, Ind. a small coin of the value of about three-pence.

SHIAKER, Ind. city.

SHALT, Ind. bridge, embankment.

SHAFT, an arrow; a missile weapon.

SHAFT, in mining; a narrow, deep perpendicular pit.

Shafts of a carriage, are two poles joined together with cross bars, by which the hind horse guides the carriage, and supports the fore part of the shafts; the hind part turning round an iron bolt.

Shaft-bars, are two pieces of wood to fasten the hind ends of the shafts together,
together, into which they are pinned with wooden pins.

SHALLIE, Ind. the same as batty, which signifies rice in the husk.

SHAMROCK, the Irish word for three-leaved grass. It is worn by the Irish in their hats on St. Patrick's day; as the leek is by the Welsh on St. David's, and the thistle by the Scotch on St. Andrew's.

SHANK, the long part of any instrument.

SHAROCK, Ind. a silver coin, equal in value to about one shilling.

SHAUMIARI, Ind. a canopy of cotton cloth.

SHAW, Ind. a king.

SHAWZADA, Ind. the king's son.

SHEED, Ind. a witness.

SHEICK, a chief of a tribe among the Arabs. Mr. Morier, in his account of a campaign with the Ottoman army, relates, that in 1800, a fanatic sheick, who pretended to be inspired, headed the Fellahs, (the lowest class of inhabitants are so called among the Arabs) of the district of Demenhor, and caused a detachment of 80 Frenchmen to be put to death in the night; this was effected by first securing the sentinel.

SHELL of a sword, (plaque d’épée, Fr.) a particular part of a sword, which serves as a shield to the hand when it grasps the hilt. The regulation sword, which is directed to be worn in a cross belt, has its shell so constructed that one side can fall down, by which means the hilt hangs more conveniently.

A Spring-SHELL of a Sword, (plaque d’épée à ressort, Fr.) a shell, which, by means of a spring, can lie flat against the hip, when the sword is worn in a cross-belt.

SHELL, a short jacket without arms, which was worn by light dragoons, and in some instances by the infantry, before the new regulations took place, respecting the clothing of the British army. At the commencement of the late war, some militia colonels derived no inconsiderable emolument from this mode of dress.

SHELLS, in gunnery, are hollow iron balls to throw out of mortars or howitzers, with a fuze-hole of about an inch diameter, to load them with powder, and to receive the fuze; the bottom, or part opposite the fuze, is made heavier than the rest; that the fuze may fall uppermost; but in small elevations this is not always the case, nor is it necessary; for, let it fall as it will, the fuze sets fire to the powder within, which bursts the shell, and causes great devastation. The shells had much better be made of an equal thickness, for then they burst into more pieces.

Message-SHELLS, are nothing more than howitzer shells, in the inside of which a letter, or other papers, are put; the fuze-hole is stopt up with wood or cork, and the shells are fired out of a royal or howitzer, either into a garrison or camp. It is supposed that the person to whom the letter is sent, knows the time, and accordingly appoints a guard to look out for its arrival.

To find the weight of a Shell. Rule. Double the difference of diameters of the shell and hollow sphere, and 7 times the result gives the weight in pounds, cutting off the two right hand figures of whole numbers.

Example. Let the diameter of the shell be 13 inches, and that of the hollow sphere 9.5. Then the cube of 13 is 2197, and that of 9.5, is 857.857; the difference is 1339.052, its double is 2679.25, which multiplied by 7, gives 18754.625; and cutting off two places in whole numbers, the result is 187lb. or 1 cwt. 2 qrs. 21 lb. the weight of the shell.

SHERISCHER WAR, Ind. A word which corresponds with Saturday.

SHERISTA, Ind. An officer; a registry.

To SHIFT, in a military sense, to change place or station. Hence, to shift quarters. In the exercise, &c. of a battalion, officers commanding divisions are, upon particular occasions, such as marching past, &c., to shift from the right to the left, to conduct the heads of files, or the pivot flanks, in column or echelon. Whenever officers shift, they must pass briskly by the rear, and never along the front of the division. The covering sergeants always move with them.

The SHILLINGS, a phrase in familiar use among army brokers, to express a certain profit or per centage which they gain in the sale, purchase, and exchange of commissions. The regulated price of a company in any regiment
giment of foot being 1500l. only, that sum can be lodged at an agent's, or a banker's; but if the company be (what is called) in the market, the broker who transacts the business, receives one shilling in the pound, and in order to produce this premium, the purchaser gives 1500 guineas, out of which the shillings, amounting to 7L. are paid to the broker, leaving the nett regulation untouched.

Head-quarter SHIP, the ship on which the commander in chief of an expedition is embarked, and from which signals are made for the commanding officers, adjutants, &c. of corps, to attend.

Hospital Ship, the ship in which the sick and wounded soldiers, &c. are taken care of on expeditions, and during sea voyages.

Prison Ship, a ship appropriated for the reception of prisoners of war, &c.

SHOCCA, Ind. any letter written by the king.

SHOOKREWAR, Ind. a word which corresponds with Friday.

SHOOTING. See GUNNERY and Projectile.

SHORTEN your bridle, a word of command used in cavalry, viz.

1st. Seize the upper end of the reins of the bridle, which is to lie on the right side of the horse, with the right hand.

2d. Bring it up as high as your chin, keeping your right elbow on a level with the shoulder.

3d. Slip your left hand along the reins of the bridle, and take hold of the loop or button, which is near the upper end of the reins.

4th. Slip the loop down with the left hand as low as the pommel of the saddle.

5th. Bring the right hand down with life on the right holster-cap, quitting the reins of the bridle with both hands.

SHORT-roll. See SIGNALS.

SHOT, a denomination given to all kinds of balls used for artillery and fire-arms; those for cannon being of iron, and those for guns and pistols, &c. of lead.

Grape

Chain

Shot. See Laboratory.

Case

To find the weight of an iron shot whose diameter is given; and the contrary. Rule. Double the cube of the diameter in inches, and multiply it by 7; so will the product (rej ecting the 2 last or right-hand figures) be the weight in pounds.

Example. What is the weight of an iron shot of 7 inches diameter. The cube of 7 is 343, which doubled is 686, and this multiplied by 7 produces 4802, which, with the right hand figures rejected, gives 498 pounds, the weight required.

N. B. This rule is sufficiently exact for practical uses.

To find the diameter of the shot, when the weight is given. Rule. Multiply the cube root of the weight in pounds by 1.923, and the product is the diameter in inches.

Example. What is the diameter of an iron shot of 52 pounds? The cube root of 52 is 3.732, which, multiplied by 1.923 gives 7.177 inches, the diameter required.

Rule by logarithms.

To 1-3d of the log. of 52 0.572001

Add the constant log. 0.285979

And the sum is the log. of the diameter 7.177 0.865980

To find the diameter of a Shot, from the impression or cavity it makes by striking a brass gun, or other object. Rule. Divide the square of the radius of the cavity by the depth of it, and add the quotient to the depth; so will the sum be the diameter of the shot required.

Example. A shot having struck upon a brass gun, made a cavity of 1.49 inches deep, and 4.94 inches diameter; what was the size of the shot? The radius of the cavity is 2.47, and its square is 6.1009, which divided by the depth 1.49, the quotient is 4.1, to which, adding 1.49, the sum 5.59 inches is the diameter required, answering to a 24-pounder.

Langrel Shot, a sort of shot which runs loose, with a shackle or joint in the middle.

Spherical Case-Shot. Case-shot is so termed from the whole charge of the gun being contained in a tin case. The tin case is cylindric, in diameter a little less than the calibre of the gun or howitzer. It is filled with iron balls, so as to make up the weight of the shot. These
These balls are seldom less than 1½ oz. in weight. But little effect is to be expected from firing case shot beyond 300 yards, from the very great divergency of the balls.

SHOULDER, the upper part of the blade of a sword is so called. The shoulders of regimental sword-blades, for the infantry, are directed to be one inch broad at least.

SHOULDER of a bastion, in fortification. See EGAULE.

SHOULDER-belt, so called because it hangs over the shoulder, to carry the bayonet or sword: it is made of strong buff leather.

To SHOULDER, in a military sense, to lay on the shoulder, or to rest any thing against it. Hence, to shoulder a musquet.

SHOULDER arms, a word of command which is used in the British service. See MANUAL.

Right SHOULDER forward, Two terms of command in the British service, when a column of march (in order to follow the windings of its route) changes its direction in general, less than the quarter of the circle. See Sections 22 and 39 of the Rules and Regulations.

SHROF, Ind. a banker, a money-changer, or one who keeps a shop for the accommodation of the public in pecuniary matters, and who derives considerable advantage from the circulating medium of other people's property.

SHROFFING, Ind. the act of examining and sorting money.

SHUMSERTREEPUT, Ind. avowal, acknowledgment, confession.

To SHUT, to close, to make not open.

SHUT pans, a word of command used in the inspection of arms. Place the inside of your fingers against the back part of the hammer, and bring it briskly to in one motion. In opening pans, you place the thumb against the inside of the hammer.

SHUTERNAUL, Ind. a sort of arquebuse, which is fixed upon the back of a camel.

SICK and Hurt, a board so called, to which the agents, commissaries, &c. belonging to the several military hospitals in Great Britain, are responsible.

SIDE-pieces, of gun-carriages. See CARRIAGES.

SIDE-straips, in a field carriage, are flat iron bands which go round the side-pieces, in those places where the wood is cut across the grain, to strengthen them near the center and the trail.

SIEGE, (siegé, Fr.) the position which an army takes, or its encampment before a fortified town, or place, for the purpose of reducing it. The term comes from siége, which signifies seat, chair, &c. Hence, to sit down before a place, signifies, in a military sense, to choose a position from which you may commence the necessary operations to attack and get possession of it. The French use the word generally as we do.

To undertake the SIEGE of a town, (entreprendre le siège d'une ville, Fr.) to invest it, to form lines of circumvallation, to open trenches, &c.

To lay SIEGE to a town, (faire le siège d'une ville, Fr.) to draw your forces round a town, for the purpose of attacking it.

To carry on a SIEGE, (continuer un siège, Fr.) to persevere by regular approaches, &c. in gaining ground upon the garrison.

To lay close SIEGE, (presser le siège, Fr.) to approach close to the walls for the purpose of making a breach and storming, or of starving out the garrison. For a full and scientific explanation of the different methods, which are adopted in modern times, for the attack and defence of places, particularly of sieges, see Essai Général de Fortification, d'attaque et de défense de places, tom. 1. page 61, &c. &c.

SIEGE brusqué, Fr. an expression used among the French to signify the prompt and immediate movement of a besieging army, against a fortified town or place, without waiting for the regular formation of lines, &c. In this case the troops make a vigorous attack upon all the outworks, and endeavour to make a lodgment upon the countergarde. When they have succeeded, they instantly throw up temporary lines, &c. behind them, in order to secure a retreat, should the garrison force them to quit their ground.

SIEGE, in the art of war, is the act of surrounding a fortified place with an
leading into the place, are so well guarded, that no succour can get in to its relief.

To insult a work, to attack it in a sudden and unexpected manner, with small arms, or sword in hand.

Surprise, is the taking a place by stratagem or treason.

To escalade a place, is to approach it secretly, then to place ladders against the wall, or rampart, for the troops to mount, and get into it that way.

To petard a place, is privately to approach the gate, and fix a petard to it, so as to break it open for the troops to enter.

Line of circumvallation, is a kind of fortification, consisting of a parapet, or breast-work, and a ditch before it, to cover the besiegers against any attempt of the enemy in the field.

Line of counter-circumvallation, is a breast-work, with a ditch before it, to cover the besiegers against any sally from the garrison, in the same manner that the line of circumvallation serves to protect them in the field.

Linces, are works made to cover an army, so as to command a part of the country, with a breast-work and a ditch before it.

Retrenchment, a work made round the camp of an army, to cover it against any surprise.

Line of counter-approach, a trench which the besieged make from the covert-way to the right and left of the besiegers' attacks, in order to scour their works. This line must be perfectly enfiladed from the covert-way and the half-moon, &c. that it may be of no service to the enemy, in case he gets possession of it.

Batteries at a siege, cannot be erected till the trench is advanced within reach of the cannon of the place; that is, within what is generally understood to be a point-blank range, which is reckoned about 500 toises, or 1800 feet.

Cannon is made use of at a siege for two different purposes; the first to drive away the enemy from their defences; and the second, to dismount their guns. To produce these two effects, the batteries should not be above the mean reach of cannon-shot from the place: therefore there is no possibility of constructing them, till the first parallel is formed;
formed; and as the distance of the first parallel from the second is generally 300 toises, the batteries must be on this line, or beyond it, nearer the town.

The construction of batteries belongs to the officers of the royal artillery, who generally consult with the engineer that has the direction of the siege, as well about their situation as about the number of their guns and mortars. They must be parallel to the works of the town which they are to batter. It is customary to place the mortar-batteries and gun-batteries side by side, and in the same line, to the end that they may batter the same parts. The use of both is to demolish the enemy's works, to dismount their guns, to penetrate into their powder magazines, and to drive the besieged from their works and defences; as also to ruin and destroy the principal buildings, by setting fire to the town; and to fatigue and distress the inhabitants in such a manner, that they shall press the garrison to surrender.

To sally at a siege, is to go privately out of a besieged town, fall suddenly upon the besiegers, and destroy part of their works, spike their cannon, and do every other possible damage.

A sally, a secret movement which is made out of a besieged town or place, by a chosen body of troops, for the purpose of destroying an enemy's outworks, &c. Sallies are seldom made when the garrison is weak; for although they molest the enemy, and keep him on the alert, yet the chance of losing men renders it prudent to keep within the works.

Saps in a siege, are trenches made under cover from the fire of the place, behind a mantlet or stuffed gabion: they are generally ten or twelve feet broad. This work differs from the trenches, inasmuch as the latter are made uncovered. The sap has also less breadth; but when it is as wide as the trench, it bears the same name. There are various sorts of saps, viz.

Single sap, is that which is made on one side only, or, which is the same thing, has only one parapet.

Double sap, has a parapet on each side, and is carried on wherever its two sides are seen from the place.

Flying sap, is that in which the besiegers do not give themselves the trouble of filling the gabions with earth; it is made where the workmen are not much exposed, and in order to accelerate the approaches.

Saps-faggots, are a kind of fascines, only three feet long, and about six inches in diameter.

Saucissons, are another species of fascines, from 12 to 19 feet long, and from 8 to 10 inches in diameter, and are used in making batteries, and repairing the breaches.

Sortie. See SALLY.

Tail, or rear of the trench, (Queue de la tranchee, Fr.) is the first work the besiegers make when they open the trenches.

Tambour, is a kind of traverse, at the upper end of the trench, or opening made in the glacis to communicate with the arrows. This work hinders the besiegers from being masters of the arrow, or discovering the inside of the place of arms belonging to the covert-way.

Traverse, in a siege, a kind of re-tranchement which is made in the dry ditch, to defend the passage over it.

Trenches, are passages or turnings dug in the earth, in order to approach a place without being seen from its defences.

Wool-packs, used in a siege, differ from sand-bags, in this only, that they are much larger, and, instead of earth, they are filled with wool. They are used in making lodgments in places where there is but little earth, and for other similar purposes. They are about five feet high, and 15 inches in diameter.

Rear of an attack, is the place where the attack begins.

Front, or head of an attack, that part next to the place.

Mantlets, are wooden fences, rolling upon wheels, of two feet diameter; the body of the axle-tree is about four or five inches square, and four or five feet long; to which is fixed a pole of eight or ten feet long, by two spars; upon the axle-tree is fixed a wooden parapet, three feet high, made of 3-inch planks, and four feet long, joined with dowel-pins, and two cross-bars: this parapet leans somewhat towards the pole, and is supported by a brace, one end of which is fixed to the pole, and the other to the upper part of the parapet.

Mantlets
Mantlets are used to cover the sappers in front against musket-shot.

Mantlets in sieges, 1st. The approaches should be made without being seen from the town, either directly, obliquely, or in flank.

2. No more works should be made than are necessary for approaching the place without being seen; i.e., the besiegers should carry on their approaches the shortest way possible, consistent with being covered against the enemy's fire.

3. All the parts of the trenches should mutually support each other; and those which are farthest advanced, should be distant from those that defend them about 120 or 130 toises, that is, within musket-shot.

4. The parallels, or places of arms, the most distant from the town, should have a greater extent than those which are the nearest, that the besiegers may be able to take the enemy in flank, should be resolve to attack the nearest parallels.

5. The trench should be opened or begun as near as possible to the place, without exposing the troops too much, in order to accelerate and diminish the operations of the siege.

6. Care should be taken to join the attacks; that is, they should have communications, to the end that they may be able to support each other.

7. Never to advance a work, unless it be well supported; and for this reason, in the interval between the 2d and 3d place of arms, the besiegers should make, on both sides of the trenches, smaller places of arms, extending 40 or 30 toises in length, parallel to the others, and constructed in the same manner, which will serve to lodge the soldiers in, who are to protect the works designed to reach the third place of arms.

8. Take care to place the batteries of cannon in the continuation of the faces of the parts attacked, in order to silence their fire; and to the end that the approaches, being protected, may advance with greater safety and expedition.

9. For this reason the besiegers shall always embrace the whole front attacked, in order to have as much space as is requisite to place the batteries on the produced faces of the works attacked.

10. Do not begin the attack with works that lie close to one another, or with rentrant angles, which would expose the attack to the cross fire of the enemy.

Stores required for a month's siege are nearly as follow:

- Powder, as the garrison is more or less strong 8 or 900,000 lb.
- Shot for battering pieces - 6000
- Shot of a lesser sort - 20,000
- Battering cannon - 80
- Cannons of a lesser sort - 40
- Small field-pieces for defending the lines - 20
- Mortars for throwing shells - 24
- Shells for mortars - 15 or 16,000
- Hand-grenades - 40,000
- Leaden bullets - 180,000
- Matches in brasses - 10,000
- Flint for muskets, best sort - 100,000
- Platforms complete for guns - 100
- Platforms for mortars - 60
- Carriage for guns - 60
- Mortar-beds - 60
- Spunges, rammers, and ladles, in sets - 30
- Tools to work in trenches - 40,000

Several hand-jacks, gins, sling-carts, travelling forges, and other engines proper to raise and carry heavy burdens; spare timber, and all sorts of miner's tools, mantlets, studded gabions, fascines, pickets, and gabions.

SIENS, Fr. the plural of sien, his, her's, or one's own. This word is used among the French, to signify the same as gens, men, people, soldiers; viz. ce général fut abandonné par les siens, Fr. that general was abandoned by his own soldiers.

SIEVE, an instrument, which by means of hair, lawn, or wire, is capable of separating the fine from the coarse parts of any powder.—See Gunpowder, Laboratory, &c.

SIES or Shias, Ind. a tribe of people in the N. West of India.

SIFFLEMENT, Fr. literally means the noise of a whistle. It is used to express the sound which a ball or bullet makes when it cuts the air; as sifflement des armes à feu, the whistling or whizzing noise of fire-arms.

SIFFLET, Fr. a whistle. The French make use of the whistle on board their ships in the same manner as we do. It answers the same purposes at sea, that
that the drum and trumpet do on shore. The boatswain's whistle pipes all hands up, as occasion requires in a ship: and the drum and trumpet collect troops together in camp, garrison, or elsewhere.

SIG, an old Saxon word, importing victory.

SIGHT, (La Mire, Fr.) a small piece of brass or iron which is fixed near to the muzzle of a musket or pistol, to serve as a point of direction, and to assist the eye in levelling.

SIGN, a sensible mark or character, denoting something absent or invisible. As the trace of a foot, the hand-writing or mark of a man; also the subscription of one's name.

SIGN Manual, the king's signature is so called. All commissions in the regular army of Great Britain, army warrants, &c. bear the sign manual. The appointments of officers in the volunteers have been so distinguished during the present war. Adjutants only in the militia have their commissions signed by the king; those of the field officers, captains, and subalterns, &c. are signed by the lords lieutenants of counties, or by their deputies for the time being, sanctioned by a previous intimation from the secretary of state, that the king does not disapprove of the names which have been laid before him.

SIGNAL, (Signal, Fr.) Any sign made by sea or land, for sailing, marching, lighting, &c. Signals are likewise given by the short and long rolls of the drum, during the exercise of a battalion.

SIGNAL, in the art of war, a certain sign agreed upon for the conveying intelligence, where the voice cannot reach. Signals are frequently given for the beginning of a battle, or an attack, usually with drums and trumpets, and sometimes with sky-rockets, &c.

SIGNAL of attack or assault, (Signal d'une attaque, ou d'un assaut, Fr.)—This signal may be given in various ways. By the discharge of a lighted shell, by sky-rockets, by colours displayed from a conspicuous spot, &c.—In 1747, Marshal Lowendal made use of lighted shells or bombs, when he laid siege to the town of Bergen-op-Zoom.—During the consternation of the inhabitants, which was excited by a continual discharge of these signal shells, the grenadiers entered a practicable breach, and took the town by storm.

SIGNAL-flag, in ancient military history, was a gilded shield hung out of the admiral's galley: it was sometimes a red garment or banner. During the elevation of this the fight continued, and by its depression or inclination towards the right or left, the rest of the ships were directed how to attack their enemies, or retreat from them.

SIGNS made by the colours of an army, (Signaux des Enseignes, Fr.)—The ancients had recourse to all the various methods which could be used by signals, to express the particular situation of affairs, and to indicate measures that should be adopted. If, during an engagement, victory seemed inclined more to one side than another, the colours belonging to the victorious party were instantly bent towards its yielding antagonist. This signal was conspicuous to the men, and excited them to fresh efforts. They imbibed the most lively hopes of success, and eagerly pressed forward to reap the advantages of bravery and good conduct.

When an army was hard pressed by its enemy, the colours of the former were raised high in air, and were kept in a perpetual flutter and agitation, for the purpose of conveying to the soldiers, that the issue of the battle was still doubtful, and that nothing but courage and perseverance could determine the victory. If, in the heat of action, any particular regiment seemed to waver and give way, so as to cause an apprehension that it might finally be broken, its colours were instantly snatched out of the bearer's hands by the general or commanding officer, and thrown into the thickest of the enemy. It frequently happened, that the men, who were upon the point of yielding ground and flying, received a fresh impulse from this act, rallied, and by a desperate effort of courage recovered the colours, and restored the day. This method of re-animating their legions was generally resorted to by the Romans. We have had instances in modern times, where the fortune of the day has been wholly decided by some sudden and unexpected
expected act of an individual. In the reign of Louis XIV. a private soldier threw his hat into the midst of the enemy, during a hard fought and doubtful battle, expressing thereby that fresh succours were arrived to strengthen the French army. This circumstance, so apparently trifling, produced the desired effect. It threw the enemy into confusion, gave the French fresh spirits, and finally determined the victory in their favour. We read of various instances in which signals have been used to express the personal danger of a king or general, who was fighting at the head of a select body of men. The knowledge of the critical position in which their leader stood, excited fresh courage in the rest of the troops, and drove them to acts of the greatest intrepidity. In the course of the present war some examples of the same sort might be adduced, both on the side of Austria, and on that of France. The bridge of Lodi, the passage of the Teiglemonti, &c. would illustrate any observations we could make upon the subject.

Nor are the advantages, which arise from the use of signals, confined to these particular cases. Various circumstances grow out of the desultory nature of military operations, to render flags of communication indispensably necessary. The vast scope which is given to modern tactics, makes it impossible, that the human eye or voice should take in all the critical manoeuvres or evolutions that occur, when an extended line is actually engaged. The right wing may be giving way, while the left is gaining ground, and the center might be in danger, while the two flanks were rapidly advancing with apparent security against the enemy. Under these circumstances, a general, by means of communicating signals, would be enabled to provide for every contingency, without losing time by sending his orders verbally. Although signal flags, in modern engagements, have been generally laid aside, their use has been acknowledged in the adoption of warlike instruments, which by the variety of their sounds convey the necessary directions to an engaging army.

The ancients had signals which they called Mute Signals, (Signaure muta.)—These consisted in certain actions or signs that were made by a general, such as waving the hand, brandishing a stick or sword, or by exhibiting to view any part of his dress, accoutrements, &c. Instances of the same kind have occurred among the moderns. Under this denomination may likewise be classed the different signals which are made for the movement, marching, and manoeuvring of troops, in and out of quarters.

When troops are scattered or separated from one another, it is usual to communicate by means of fires lighted upon eminences, during the night, and by smoke, during the day.

In former times, large pieces of wood were hung above the towers of cities or castles, which, by being drawn up or lowered, gave intelligence of what passed. This method has been succeeded by the invention of telegraphs, which answer every purpose of communication, when they can be established through any extent of country. Besides those signals, there are others which may be called vocal and demivocal. The vocal signals are those of the human voice, which consist in the necessary precautions that are adopted to prevent a guard or post from being surprised, to enounce words of command in action, &c. Of the first description are paroles and counternsigns which are exchanged between those to whom they are intrusted, and which are frequently altered, during the day and night, to prevent the enemy from receiving any information by means of spies. The demi-vocal signals are conveyed by military instruments; the different soundings of which indicate, instantaneously, whether an army is to halt or to advance, whether troops are to continue in the pursuit of an enemy, or to retreat.

The demi-vocal signals, directed to be observed in the British service, as far as regards the manoeuvring of corps and consist of signals for the government of light infantry, and of cavalry regiments, squadrons, or troops; the latter are properly called soundings. Light infantry signals are to give notice, —to advance; to retreat; to halt; to cease firing; to assemble; or call in all parties.
parties. In the regulations, printed by
authority, it is observed, that these
signals are to be always considered as
fixed and determined ones, and are
never to be changed. The bugle horn
of each company is to make himself
perfect master of them. All signals
are to be repeated; and all those sig-

duals which are made from the line or
column, are to convey the intention of
the commanding officer of the line to
the officer commanding the light infan-
try, who will communicate them to the
several companies or detachments either
by word or signal.

SignaL Stafa. In matters of military
parade it is usual to fix a red flag, some-
what larger than a camp colour, to point
out the spot where the general, or officer
commanding, takes his station in front of
a line. This is called the signal
staff.

Signalement, Fr. The descrip-
tion of a man's person, his appearance,
&c. Having omitted to mention the
English term under its appropriate let-
ter D, we shall give it under the French
word Signalement, which signifies not
only the description of a man's figure,
but an exact and specific detail of such
marks and prominent features, that by
comparing the copy taken on paper
with the original, the latter may be in-
stantly recognized. It is the custom
in all well regulated armies for every
regiment to have an exact description
of each man that belongs to it, specifi-
cally drawn out in the adjutant's book.
So that when a soldier deserts, a copy
is instantly taken, and forwarded to
those places to which he is most likely
to resort.

Signum. A standard, an ensign,
a streamer, a flag. In the early days
of Rome, the military ensign or stand-
ard consisted of a wisp or handful of
straw, which was fixed at the end of a
pike. It was then called Manipulus
fæni, a bottle of hay. By degrees, the
Romans adopted more respectable
marks to move by. The wisp of straw,
or bottle of hay, was changed into a
piece of wood which lay crossways at
the end of a pike, and underneath the
traverse hung different small figures
and representations of the gods. In
latter periods, the likenesses of the dif-
cent emperors were suspended in the
same manner. The staff, in these cases,
was made of solid silver, so that it re-
quired uncommon strength of body to
be able to carry the Signum. When
the armies were encamped, each legion
had its signum erected in front of the
pretorium; which was always close to
the general's tent.

Signum Militare. The watch-word
which was given among the Romans,
to the tribunes that were on guard.
The signum militare was changed every
morning. The watch-word of the pa-
trolo was also called tesera, which sig-
nifies a signal in war; any private sig-


taken or token.

Signum Profectio. The signal
for marching, which was given among
the ancient Romans, was so called.
It corresponds with our beat, the ge-


eral.

Signum Pugnae. The signal for
battle which was used among the an-
cient Romans. When this happened,
a red coat of arms was displayed above
the general's tent, after which, all the
different warlike instruments sounded
altogether, and proclaimed the signal of
attack.

Sigurghai, Ind. A feudal te-
nure.

Siguette, Fr. The same as
caissson, a sort of noseband, some-
times made of iron, and sometimes of
leather or wood; sometimes flat, and
sometimes hollow or twisted; which is
put upon the nose of a horse, to for-
ward the suppling and breaking of him.

Silence, (Silence, Fr.) This word
is used by the French as a caution to
soldiers to prepare for any part of the
military duty or exercise.—The French
have likewise another term which cor-
responds with our word attention—See
Garde à vous.—We use Attention in
both instances.

Silhataris, Fr. See Spahis.

Silladaris, Ind. Armour-bear-
ers belonging to the Maharratt princes,
who are obliged to furnish a certain
number of men, composing the second
class of their cavalry.

Sillage, Fr. The wake of a ship;
the trace which a vessel leaves astern
when she moves forward.

Sillon, in fortification, is a work
raised in the middle of a ditch, to de-


cend it when it is too wide. It has no
particular form, and is sometimes made with little bastions, half-moons, and redans, which are lower than the works of the place, but higher than the covert-way. It is more frequently called envelope, which see.

SIMILAR polygons, are such as have their angles severally equal, and the sides about those angles proportional.

Simple SOLDAT, Fr. A private soldier.

SIMPLIFICATION, (Simplification, Fr.) The act of rendering plain, clear, and simple. The state of any thing that is made plain and simple. This substantive, like the verb, is evidently borrowed from the French; who say familiarly, Travailler à la simplification d'une affaire; to endeavour to make a matter plain and conspicuous. The simplification of army accounts is perhaps one of the most desirable objects in finance, especially during a war, when so many branches of service render them unavoidably complicated. It is, however curious to remark, that since the simplification of army accounts is said to have taken place, by the abolition of arrears, &c. every regimental rank of commissioned officers (infantry) has reason to rejoice in the opportunity that is given for the exercise of arithmetical powers; nor has the contriver of it less cause to be proud of the ingenuity displayed in proportionately dividing the lowest silver coin, so as to leave some broken figure, to be calculated and adapted to a square sum. It is not less curious to observe, that of the four different ranks under that of a commissioned officer, three receive pay, the daily rate of which is a fractional part of a halfpenny. The following two instances will prove our assertion, viz.

Lieut. Colonel 15s. 11d. per diem.
Major 14s. 1d. ditto.
Captain 9s. 5d. ditto.
Lieutenant 8s. 8d. ditto.
Ensign 4s. 8d. ditto.
Serjeant 1s. 6d. ditto.
Corporal 1s. 2½d. ditto.
Drummer 1s. 1½d. ditto.

To SIMPLIFY. This word has been adopted amongst men of business and arrangement, from the French simplifier, which means to relate the bare matter of fact. This signification likewise reaches every species of analysis, &c.

In order to place the advantages of simplification in the clearest point of view, we subjoin the following enumeration of the words of command which were given in 1689, and may be read in an old book entitled the Perfect of Military Discipline, after the newest method, as practised in England and Ireland, &c. or the industrious Soldier's Golden Treasury of Knowledge in the Art of Making War, viz.—

1 Musketeers, have a care of the exercise, and carry your arms well.
2 Lay your right hands on your muskets.
3 Poise your muskets.
4 Rest your muskets.
5 Cock your muskets.
6 Guard your muskets.
7 Present.
8 Fire.
9 Recover your arms.
10 Half bend your muskets.
11 Clean your pans.
12 Handle your primers.
13 Prime.
14 Shut your pans.
15 Blow off your loose corns.
16 Cast about to charge.
17 Handle your chargers.
18 Open them with your teeth.
19 Charge with powder.
20 Draw forth your scowriers.
21 Shorten them to an inch.
22 Charge with bullet.
23 Ram down powder and ball.
24 Withdraw your scowriers.
25 Shorten them to a handful.
26 Return your scowriers.
27 Poise your muskets.
28 Shoulder your muskets.
29 Order your muskets.

SINE. In geometry, a right side, is a right line drawn from one end of an arch perpendicularly upon the diameter drawn from the other end of the arch.

SINGE. Fr. An instrument so called. See PANTOGRAPH.

SINECURE. Dr. Johnson calls a sinecure an office which has revenue without any employment. Of this description, in a military sense, are those appointments which admit of deputies upon deputies; so that the original holder receives the public money without doing
doing any public service; an abuse that has been very justly reproved by the select committee of the house of commons.

SINEW. See the article Argent.
SINGLE combat, a contest in which not more than two are engaged.

SINUS, Fr. See Link for its geometrical acceptance.

Sinus, in English, signifies a bay of the sea, an opening of the land; any fold or opening.

SINUSOID, Fr. A geometrical curve, which has been imagined by Monsieur Bélidor, for the purpose of balancing or preserving the equipoise of a draw-bridge. See Science des Ingénieurs, liv. iv. See likewise the specific construction of this curve as explained by the Marquis de l'Hopital, in a book entitled, Acta Erudiorum, published at Leipsick, in 1695; and demonstrated by M. Bernouilli, who discovered, that this curve was nothing more than the epicycloid, which see.

SIPHON, (Syphon, likewise Siphon, Fr.) In hydraulics, a crooked tube, one leg or branch whereof is longer than the other. It is used in the raising of fluids, emptying of vessels, and in various hydrostatical experiments.

SÍRKAR, Ind. The government.

SIROC. From Sirius, the dog-star. The wind, which we call south-east, is so called in Italy.

SISTRUM. A musical instrument which was used by the Egyptians in their armies. It also signifies, generally, an instrument used in battle instead of a trumpet. Likewise a braven or iron timbrel, much like to the kettle-drum.

To SIT, (asseoir, Fr.) In a military sense, to take a stationary position; as, To sit before a fortified place; to lie encamped for the purpose of besieging it. The French use the word asseoir as an active verb, with respect to military matters, viz. asseoir un camp, to pitch a camp. Il assit son camp hors de la porte du canon de la ville; he pitched his camp out of the range of the town’s cannon.

SITUE, Fr. Situated; placed; pitched. The French say, un camp bien situé, a camp well situated, or pitched.

SIXAIN. Sixth, Sexagena, in war, an ancient order of battle, wherein six battalions being ranged in one line, the second and fifth were made to advance, to form the van guard; the first and sixth to retire to form the rear guard; the third and fourth remaining to form the main corps. The word is derived from the French, which signifies the same thing. The sixain order of battle may be formed with all the battalions whose number is produced by the number six. Twelve battalions, for instance, may be ranged in order of battle, by forming two Sixains; and eighteen battalions, by forming three Sixains, and so on progressively.

To SIZE. In a military sense to take the height of men for the purpose of placing them in military array, and of rendering their relative statures more effective. In all regiments the sizing begins from flanks to centre, the tallest men being placed upon the right and left of the several companies in the front rank, and the shortest in the center and rear ranks. The flank troops of a squadron must be sized in the following manner:—That of the right flank, from right to left; that of the left flank, from left to right; the center one from center to flanks: the tallest man must, of course, be always in the part where the sizing begins, excepting the corporals, one of whom must be on each flank of the front rank of the troop, covered by a clever soldier in the rear rank. If there be only two troops in a squadron, they size the right from the left, the left from the right flank. A question has arisen among military men, especially among those who has seen service, respecting the propriety of placing the shortest infantry men in the centre and rear ranks.

SKAIT, Skate, or Skate; Skidor, Swedish; Skid, Icelandic; Screbba, Saxon; Skier, Norwegian; Patin, Fr. A sort of shoe or sandal made of wood, and armed with iron for sliding on ice.

Skates are used by the inhabitants of all Northern nations, either for expedition in travelling or amusement. They are made of wood and iron, fastened to the feet by straps of leather or by screws. The Dutch were probably the original inventors; but the English have greatly improved upon them, for by comparing them together, the preference
ence must be given to the latter. Skates are so well known, that it is needless to describe them. It will be necessary, however, to remark, that the Dutch skates are very long in the iron, of a flat broad surface, to enable them to run over rough ice with ease and expedition, while those that are used by the English are short and circular, so that not above two inches of it touch the ice, and all that is required, is for the skater to keep his body in a proper equilibrium. It has another advantage over the Dutch, the friction on the ice is considerably diminished. In Holland, it is not so much a diversion as an employment. Women as well as men, practice it for the purpose of going from one place to another, and carrying provisions to market. But it is in England that skating has been brought to the highest perfection. An artillery officer, about 30 or 40 years ago, published a very ingenious treatise on it, which work is now seldom to be met with. In it he lays down rules for the art, which is still capable of great improvement.

In Norway, a kind of skate is used for travelling upon land. These are formed of planks of wood as broad as the hand, and nearly of the thickness of the little finger, the middle underneath being hollowed to prevent vacillation, and to facilitate the advancing in a direct line. The plank fastened under the left foot is ten feet in length; that intended for the right is only six, or thereabouts; both of them are bent upwards at the extremities, but higher before than behind. They are fastened to the feet with leather straps attached to the middle of them, and for this purpose they are formed a little higher and stronger in that part.

The plank of the right foot is generally lined below with the rein deer’s skin, or at least with skin of the sea-wolf, so that in drawing the feet successively, in right or parallel lines, with skates thus lined with skin, and very slippery in the direction of the hair, the skielober or skater finds them, nevertheless, capable of resistance, by affording a kind of spring when he would support himself, with one foot, in a contrary direction, as by much movement he raises up the hair or bristly part of the skin. With skaits on the plan, it is astonishing, (however loose or compact the snow may be,) to what a distance a Norwegian will travel in a day. In Canada, the Indians and other inhabitants, make use of what are called snow-shoes, for a similar purpose: these are shaped something like a pear with a stalk. They are made of a hoop of wood bent to that form, and fastened at the narrow end by the sinews of deer or small thongs of the skin of the same animal. Two cross pieces of wood are placed, one about three inches from the broadest end of the snow-shoe, and the other the length of a man’s foot from it. These pieces are fixed into the outer frame. Between them, a kind of net work is made from small thongs of deer skin, something like a racket. On this net work the feet are placed and fastened by a pliable strap of smoked deer skin in a very simple manner; so that the feet may be extricated without untieing the strap, which is sometimes necessary, particularly when the traveller accidentally falls in deep snow, or strike his feet against the stump of a tree. During the American war, the king’s troops were practised in the use of these shoes, and could walk or run with them, as well as the natives. All the scouting parties sent out from the frontier posts, during the winter, were equipped with snow shoes, to enable them to travel through the woods, where the snow is frequently of astonishing depth.

In Norway, there is a regiment of two battalions of skaters; one stationed in the North and the other in the South. The corps consists of 960 men. The uniform is a short jacket or waistcoat, a grey surtout, and grey pantaloons. The arms are a carbine, which is hung in a leather belt, passing over the shoulders, a large couteau de chasse, a staff of three yards and a half long, an inch and a quarter in diameter, to the end of which is affixed a piece of iron, which serves principally to moderate his speed in going down a hill; the skater then puts it between his feet, and contrives to draw it in that manner, or he draws it by his side, or uses it to help himself forward when he has occasion to ascend a hill; in short,
short, he makes use of it according to the occasion and to the circumstances in which he may be placed; this staff, besides, affords a rest to the firelock when the skater wishes to discharge its contents. In the ordinary winter exercise, the skaters draw up in three ranks, at the distance of three spaces between each file, and eight paces between each rank; a distance which they keep in all their movements, (whenever they do not disperse,) in order that they may not be incommoded in the use of their skates. When there is occasion to fire, the second and third ranks advance towards the first. The baggage of the corps (kettles, bottles, axes, &c.) is conveyed upon sledges, or carriages fixed upon skates, and easily drawn by men, by the help of a leather strap passing from the right shoulder to the left side, like that of a carabineer. In Canada, when the Indians travel in the winter, they make use of a similar conveyance, which is generally drawn by the synaws, by means of a broad strap across the forehead that passes the shoulders. The Norwegian skaters are of great use in winter campaigns, as from their velocity, and form of their skates, they are enabled to move, in every direction over light or deep snow, rivers or creeks covered with thin ice, and where cavalry or other infantry cannot act. Their use in harassing an enemy, in reconnoitring, or performing the office of couriers, must be obvious to every one. It may be conceived, that they find great difficulty in turning, on account of the length of their skates: this, however, is not the case; they make a retrograde motion with the right foot, to which the shortest plank is attached, and put it vertically against the left. They then raise the left foot and place it parallel to the right, by which movement they have made a half face; if they would face about, they repeat the motion.

We have given these particulars, as furnished to us by an officer who has served in Canada, because we humbly conceive, that the knowledge of the art might be of use to our troops in America.

SKATERS, (Patineurs, Fr.) SKEAN. This word is sometimes written skeene, skeyne or skaine. It signifies a weapon, in the shape of a small sword or knife, which was anciently used by the Irish.

SKELETON. This word is frequently applied to regiments that are extremely reduced in their number of men.—Thus a regiment that went out to St. Domingo 1000 strong, and returned to England with 20 or 30 men only, was called a skeleton regiment.

SKELETON PLAN. See OUTLINE.

SKETCH. See ditto.

SKETCH-BOOK, (Livre d'esquisse ébauche, Fr.) In page 231 of the Little Bombardier, we find the following particulars relative to the use which may be made of a sketch-book, in military reconnoitring.

"Before an officer sets out to reconnoitre a country, he should trace out, from the best map he can procure, its principal features, which will serve him as a guide, in his progress through the principal parts that are to be the subject of his observations, and will enable him to connect the whole into one grand plan. His observations should be expressed by written remarks, and by sketches. For this purpose, he must be provided with a sketch-book, on the right hand page of which he may express the appearance of the country by sketches; and on the left, the remarks made on particular parts, with the names of the towns, their distances asunder, &c. with proper references to the sketches. The scale best adapted to this purpose, is two inches to a mile; if therefore the sketch-book be made six inches wide, and the leaves divided by lines into three equal parts, each division will be one mile, which will be a sufficient scale for the purpose."

SKILL, knowledge in any particular art.—As,

Military Skill. (Habilité militaire, Fr.) M. Belleisle, the French general, after the example of Xenophon, the Greek, undertook in the month of December 1742, to withdraw the French army from Prague, where it was at that time shut up, and to march over the enemy's country through a road of 38 leagues, upwards of 124 English miles, covered with ice, and over mountains whose precipices were concealed under the snow, having, besides, an army
my of between eighteen and twenty thousand men, under the command of Prince Lobkowitz, to fight with. For the particulars of this famous retreat, in which was evinced so much military skill, and which, in Count Turpin's words, deserves to be written by Xenophon himself, see page 2, Vol. I. of his Art of War.

SKINS. Sheep-skins are made use of to cover the mortars or howitzers between firing, to prevent any wet or dampness getting into them.

SKIRMISH, in war, a loose desultory kind of combat, or encounter, in presence of two armies, between small parties who advance from the main body for that purpose, and invite to a general fight.

SKIRMISHERS, detached parties of light horse sent out in front of a battalion, &c.

SKIRT, in a general acceptance, edge, border, extreme part. As the skirt of a country, the skirts of a wood. It also signifies the loose or hanging part of a coat or garment. The whole of the British army formerly wore skirts to their coats. The non-commissioned officers and soldiers now generally wear jackets.

SKITALE, Fr. according to the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, a staff, or stick of distinction, which was used by the Lacedæmonian generals.

SKY-ROCKET. See Rocket.

SLASH, a cut; a wound; also a cut in cloth. It is used to express the pieces of tape or worsted lace which are upon the arms of non-commissioned officers and corporals, to distinguish them from the privates.

SLASHED, cut in stripes or lines. Hence slashed sleeves and pockets, which are peculiar to the British cavalry, when the officers or men wear long coats.

SLASHERS, a nickname which was given, during the American war, to the 28th regiment of foot, and which took its origin from the following circumstance:—One Walker, a magistrate in Canada, having, during a severe winter, with great inhumanity refused to give comfortable billets to the women belonging to the 28th, and some of them having perished in consequence of the inclemency of the season, so great was the resentment of the corps, that some officers dressed themselves like savages, entered his house whilst he was sitting with his family, danced round the table, and suddenly pulling him back upon his chair, cut off both his ears. They instantly disappeared; nor was the deed discovered until after their departure. From this circumstance, and in consequence of various intrepid actions which the 28th performed during the course of the war, the men obtained the name of Slashers.

SLATE, in military architecture, a kind of bluish fossil stone, very soft when dug out of the quarry, and therefore easily slit, or sawed into thin long squares, to serve instead of tiles for the covering of all kinds of military buildings, &c.

SLAUGHTER, destruction by the sword, bayonet, and fire-arms.

SLEDGE, or Sledge Hammer, (gras marteau, Fr.) a smith's large iron-headed hammer, to be used with both hands in beating out iron upon the anvil.

SLEDGE, (traîneau, Fr.) a sort of carriage without wheels, upon which a plough, or other weighty things, may be laid. It also signifies a machine, on which traitors are usually drawn to the place of execution. It means likewise a genteel carriage without wheels, which is used by the nobility and gentry in cold climates, to divert themselves in winter upon the snow. Likewise a machine which is hired by travellers in the North of Europe.

SLEEPERS, the undermost timbers of a gun or mortar-battery. Small joists or beams of wood, which are laid over a foundation, for boards, &c. to be placed upon them. See Platform.

SLEETS, are the parts of a mortar going from the chamber to the trunnions, to strengthen that part.

SLIDING, (coulant, Fr.) passing without difficulty or obstruction, easily removed.

SLIDING of Courage, an obsolete term, signifying easily daunted.

SLIDING Knot, (nœud coulant, Fr.) a running knot which is made in a rope, for the purpose of being stopped when required.

SLIDING Rule, Mathematical inst. SLIDING Scale, instruments to be used without compasses in gauging.

SLIDING
Sliding-Keel. This is an improvement in ship-building, for which we are indebted to the skill and ingenuity of Captain John Shank of the Royal Navy; an officer who, during the American and late war, gave proofs of his consummate talents, for invention and resource, on many occasions. Vessels of this kind have each three keels, made moveable in a trunk or well, so as to be drawn up or let down in shoal water. By means of these keels they sail faster, steer easier, and tack and wear quicker, and in less room; they ride more easily at anchor; take the ground better; and in case of shipwreck, springing a leak, or of a fire, they are more safe and more likely to be saved. For fire-ships, floating-batteries, gun-boats, and flat-bottomed boats for landing troops, they are particularly well adapted. Three vessels with these keels have been built for his Majesty's service, viz. the Trial cutter, Cynthia sloop of war, and the Lady Nelson of 60 tons burthen; which latter vessel was fitted out for a voyage of discovery in 1800, under the command of Lieutenant James Grant, of the Royal Navy, who in it arrived safe at New South Wales the following year. An account of this very interesting voyage, with the origin of sliding keels, and various official documents of their utility, was lately published, to which we refer our readers. It may not be improper to observe, that Lieutenant Grant is the officer, who, in May, 1804, was taken by the French, in attempting to cut out a vessel in the Weser, in a boat, with only 11 men, belonging to his Majesty's cutter the Hawke, which he commanded, and in the attempt he was wounded in five places, and several of his gallant followers killed or wounded.

Sling, a leather strap which is attached to a musket, and serves to support it across the soldier's back as occasion may require.

Gun-Sling, or Belt. Although this useful article owes its invention to the ingenuity of an individual for the convenience of sportsmen, it may, nevertheless, be adapted with so much facility to military purposes, that a description of it cannot be thought superfluous.

The gun-sling or belt, contrived by

Thomas Smith, saddler, No. 159, New Bond Street, is made in the following manner:

The sling consists of three straps of leather, viz. one of four feet six inches long, with the breadth agreeable to order. It is pointed and punched at one end, and has a buckle and loop at the other, which serves to shorten or lengthen it as the size of the person may require; another about twelve inches long, and three quarters of an inch wide, with a hook fixed at one end, the first being sewed ten inches from the pointed end of the belt. This strap being hooked up to either of the hooks in the main sling, forms a loop or bearing strap for the barrel of the musket; and a third three quarters of an inch wide, and about six inches long, with an inch ring at one end, through which the belt is passed. This ring runs conveniently up and down the belt, and fully answers every purpose for which it was designed.

A hook is sewed at the other end of this strap. The strap being lapped round the small part of the stock of the musket, and the hook fastened to the ring, they together form a loop, or bearing strap for the butt. By these means, in addition to the strap round the barrel, as already mentioned, the musquet or rifle can be conveniently carried, on foot or horseback, without the assistance of either hand. The musquet being released from these restrains, and the hook fixed to the strap, (with the ring being hooked to a small eye that is fixed just before the guard,) the whole is carried with very little assistance from either hand, and is instantly brought to a firing position. The next position is by hooking the same hook to an eye that is fixed to the stock, about seven inches behind the guard; the barrel being at the same time supported by the strap, which is hooked to the main belt. The musquet is thus carried without the assistance of either hand; and if there be occasion to fire at a moment's notice, you have only to draw out the top hook.

Sling, a missile weapon made by a strap and two strings; the stone is lodged in the strap, and thrown by loosing one of the strings.

Sling likewise means a kind of hanging
ing bandage, in which a wounded limb is sustained.

**Breeches Sling**, an article of regimental necessaries which is used to keep up the breeches, and which must be paid for by the men.

To Sling, to hang loosely by means of the strap belonging to a firelock.

**Sling your firelocks**, a word of command formerly used in the exercise of British grenadiers.

1st. Bring the sling with the left hand opposite to the right shoulder, and the firelock with the right hand opposite the left shoulder, by crossing both hands at the same time, bringing the left hand within the right, keeping the muzzle upright, the barrel to the left, and the right hand just under the left elbow.

2d. Bend the firelock back, and bring the sling over your head, placing it just above your right shoulder.

3d. Draw the sling with your left hand, and let go the firelock with the right at the same time, that it may hang by the sling on the right shoulder, the muzzle upwards, dropping both hands down by your sides at the same time.

**Handle your Slings.** 1st. Seize the sling with both hands at the same time, taking hold of it with the right hand about the middle, and as low as you can reach, without bending your body.

2d. With the left hand bring the butt forwards, slipping your left elbow under the firelock, by bringing it between the firelock and the sling; taking hold of the firelock at the same time with the left hand, letting the stock lie between the thumb and fore-finger, the butt end pointing a little to the left with the barrel upwards.

3d. Bring the firelock to lie on the left shoulder, and the sling on the right, the barrel upwards, and the butt end pointing directly to the front, keeping the firelock to a true level.

**SLOPE Arms**, a word of command, by which the musquet rests upon the shoulder with the butt advanced. In long marches soldiers are sometimes permitted to slope arms. In all other instances it is strictly forbidden.

**SLOPING Swords**, a position of the sword among cavalry, when the back of the blade rests on the hollow of the right shoulder, the hilt advanced.

**SLOPS.** See **Neccessaries.**

**Stors** also signifies a sailor's trowsers.

The French say, *culottes de matelots*.

**SLOW Time.** See **Ordinary Time.**

**SLUGS, (Boulets coupés, Fr.) Cyliodric, or cubical pieces of metal, shot from a gun.**

**SLUICE-gate**, a water-gate by which a country may be inundated, or the water excluded at pleasure.

**SLUICES, in military architecture.** are made for various purposes; such as to make rivers navigable; to join one river to another, which is higher or lower, by means of a canal; to form inundations upon particular occasions, or to drain spots of ground that are overflowed by high tides; they are also made in fortresses, to keep up the water in one part of the ditches, whilst the other is dry; and to raise an inundation about the place when there is any apprehension of being attacked.

**SLUICES are made different ways, according to the uses for which they are intended:** when they serve for navigation, they are shut with two gates presenting an angle towards the stream; when they are made near the sea, two pair of gates are made, the one pair to keep the water out, and the other in, as occasion may require; in this case, the gates towards the sea present an angle that way, and the others the contrary way. The space included by these gates is called **chamber.**

When sluices are made in the ditches of a fortress to keep up the water in some parts, instead of gates, shutters are made, so as to slide up and down in grooves; and when they are made to raise an inundation, they are then shut by means of square timbers let down into **cullises,** so as to lie close and firm.

Particular care must be taken in the building of a sluice, to lay the foundation in the securest manner; that is, to lay the timber, grates, and floors, in such a form, that the weather cannot penetrate through any part, otherwise it will undermine the work, and blow it up, as it has sometimes happened: lastly, to make the gates of a proper strength, in order to support the pressure of the water, and yet to use no more timber than what is necessary.

Those who wish to be thoroughly acquainted with this kind of work, may, meet,
meet with satisfaction in *L'Architecture Hydraulique*, par. M. Belidor; or in Mr. Miller's *Practical Fortification*.

SMALL arms, muskets, fusils, carbines, pistols, &c.

SMARKS. The different sums which are received by recruiting parties under the head of *smart money*, are frequently so called. It is a standing order in most regiments, that an account of all smarts should be kept, and regularly accounted for, by the officer or non-commissioned officer commanding the parties, to the officer commanding the regiment in the different abstracts, that he may give orders for the distribution thereof, when the parties join the regiment.—See *Money*.

SNAFFLE, a bridle without a curb bit.

SNAPHANCE. 'A firelock, a gun that fires without a match, *Bailey.*—

SNAPHANCE, according to Nugent's French and English Dictionary, signifies in French, *Rouet d'argheuse*.

SNAPSACK, from the Swedish Snappskäck, a soldier's bag; more usually *knapsack*.

SNICK and SNEE, a combat with knives, such as the Dutch carry.

SOBRIETY, (sobriété, tempérance, Fr.) general temperance. In a military consideration, abstinence from an inordinate use of strong liquors. However frequent the deviations from this great and uncommon virtue may be found among soldiers, nothing can excuse or exculpate an officer who should so far forget himself, especially upon service, as to give the least countenance to such excesses, even by an occasional, much less by an habitual, dereliction of this estimable quality. Sobriety keeps the head cool, strengthens the nerves, and renders moderate abilities equal to great exertions. Drunkenness, on the contrary, unfit the man for the common functions of life, and makes an officer not only contemptible to his soldiers, and dangerous to the cause he has engaged to fight for, but an indirect spur to the enterprise of an enemy; who will soon know how to take advantage of his vice and weakness.

SÖC, Fr. a machine made of leather, which is fixed near the stirrup, to receive the end of the standard staff in cavalry regiments. It is likewise called *braiter*, and is used by the persons who carry the colours either in infantry or cavalry regiments. In the former instance it is fixed to a leathern belt that comes over the shoulder, or that is fixed to the waist.

SOCI, allies; a term by which the Romans generally distinguished those kings and nations with whom they were in alliance, or, more properly speaking, whom they condescended to honour with their friendship. The Romans, observes *Pistaces*, became so intoxicated with the power they possessed, that they obliged the neighbouring nations to purchase their friendship at the rate of the most abject submission. Their uninterrupted succession of victories made them behave, towards the most powerful of their allies, with brutal superiority; thus converting the name of *friend* and *ally* into a tame and unqualified acknowledgment of the most unbounded tyranny. They were not aware, that the greatest conqueror becomes little and debased, when he can treat those with contempt and ill usage, from whose downfall and defeat he derives all the laurels he possesses. The Romans, however, (if we may be permitted to add our humble opinion to these observations), were not singular in this perversion of true gràpeur. The modern French (whose success upon the continent has given them and their leaders all the notions of ancient Rome), by different names and by different means, have insidiously brought half Europe under the yoke of treacherous affiliation.

SOCKET, (bôche, Fr.) Generally means any hollow pipe that receives something inserted.

SOCKET of a bayonet, the round hollow part near the bent or heel of a bayonet, into which the muzzle of a fire-arm is received when the bayonet is fixed.

SODS, pieces of turf with which works are faced.

SOHAN, Ind. the seventh month. It, in some degree, corresponds with July and August.

SOI, Fr. one's self; itself; one.

SOI-disant, Fr. pretended; would-be. Hence, *Soi-disant soldat*, a pretended or would-be soldier; *Soi disant roi*, pretending to be king, but not acknowledged.
ledged as such. This was said, by the British, of James the IIth, when he lived at St. Germain in France; and is now asserted by the French of Louis the XVIIIth, whom they refuse to acknowledge. The term is used, by the French, by way of raillery or contempt, as in the first instance, and by way of legal distinction as in the second. They also say, *Soi-disant héritier*, a person who pretends to be heir to any individual or property.

**SOL.** Fr. soil; ground.

**SOLAKS,** bowmen or archers belonging to the personal guard of the grand signor. They are always selected from the most expert bowmen that are among the Janizaries. Their only arms are the sabre, bow, and arrows.

**SOLBATU,** Fr. in farriery, surbated.

**SOLD.** See Pay, Subsistence, &c.

**SOLDAN.** This word is pronounced *Soudan.* It was formerly given to a general who commanded the caliph's army. Saladin, a general under Nara-дин, king of Damas, having killed the caliph Caym, usurped the throne, and assumed the title in 1146; so that he became the first Soldan of Egypt.

**SOLDAT,** Fr. a soldier. Although we have offered our own observations respecting the etymology of this word, under soldier; we shall nevertheless extract, from our French authority, what is said upon the same subject. In the *Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire* we find, that Soldat, which comes from *Solde*, signifies any man who serves the state for a stipulated sum of money. This distinction did not obtain ground, nor was it acknowledged in France, until after the reign of Francis I. Under the reigns of Charles the VIIIth and Louis the XIIIth, persons who took up the profession of arms, were simply stiled *aventuriers* or *adventurers*; and before we conclude this article, it will not be thought superfluous to remark, that although many writers have given various interpretations to the word *aventurier*, the term may be brought under a plain and historical explanation. These *aventuriers* or adventurers, were nothing more than a certain description of soldiers or armed men, who were hired by a number of Lords, that had the command of little jurisdictions beyond the Pyrenees and the Alps.

Charles the VIIIth, Louis the Xllth, Francis the Ist, and Henry the IIId, made use of these adventurers during their campaigns in Italy. To return to our first article, it is nevertheless certain, that in France, bodies of armed men were already taken into pay under the reign of Philippe Auguste; and it is equally certain, that foreigners or mercenaries were first employed, for money, by Philippe-le-Bel. Among the Romans, soldiers were distinguished under a multiplicity of apppellations, which grew out of the dress or uniform of each particular arm or corps; which was again marked by some particular service, and peculiar weapons of offence. When strangers were taken into their pay, they were called *auxiliarii*.

**Simple Soldat,** Fr. a private, or a soldier in the ranks.

**Simple CAVALIER,** Fr. a private dragoon.

**Soldat écouru,** Fr. See *Écroué*.

**Soldat d'ordonnance à l'armée,** Fr. an orderly man.

**SOLDATS étrangers ou mercenaires,** Fr. foreign or mercenary troops.

**SOLDATS de marine,** Fr. marines, or soldiers who do duty on board ships of war.

**Soldats gardiens,** Fr. a description of invalid soldiers, so called during the French monarchy. They were stationed at the sea-ports. There were 300 at Toulon, ditto at Rochefort and Brest, and 50 at Havre-de-Grace. There were besides 300 in each of the first three ports, who received half-pay.

**Faux Soldats,** Fr. See Fagon; Passe-volant.

**SOLDATESQUE,** Fr. a substantive of the collective feminine gender, which signifies private soldiers, viz.

*La Bourgeoise était exposée aux insultes de la soldatesque;* the citizens were exposed to the insults of the soldier.—*La soldatesque s'est révoltée contre les officiers, the soldiers revolted, or mutinied, against the officers.*

**Soldatesque** is likewise used as an adjective, viz. des mens soldatesque, the ways or manners of a private soldier. Une dispute soldatesque, a military brawl, or a dispute among private soldiers. We have an adjective, which is derived from the same source, and which is frequently used, as soldier-like conduct.
conduct, soldier-like behaviour; unsoldier-like being the opposite.

**SOLDE, Fr.** the pay and subsistence, &c. which are issued to officers and soldiers are so called.

**Demi-SOLDE, Fr.** half-pay. The French likewise say, *demi-poge*, half-pay.

**Compagnies SOLDEES, Fr.** troops or companies receiving stated pay.

**SOLDIER, a piece of money; the pay of a soldier.** Dr. Johnson derives the word from *solidarius*, low Latin of *solidus*. We conceive it to be immediately taken from the French *soldat*, which comes from the Latin *solidatus*. *Veget.* A soldier in pay—a *solido quem meretur*. Some again trace both the English and French word to the Italian *soldato*, and others to the German *soldat*; *sold* in German signifying pay. So that originally soldier meant only one who listed himself to serve a prince or state, in consideration of certain daily pay.

**SOLDIER, (Soldat, Fr.) Under this head so much might be written, that it would become rather a dissertation than an article in a Dictionary. Who is the best Soldier? All the people in Europe have claimed this honour in their turn; even the Tartar and the Arab are not without well-founded pretensions. Perhaps some nations may have greater aptitude for war than others; but then that very aptitude is formed, strengthened, and even created, by particular habits, education, and a certain state of society. The laurel on the warrior's brow is not perennial, but is liable to wither and decay. Almost every country in Europe has had its share of military renown, at some particular period. Greece, Italy, France, Germany, Sweden, Spain, Russia, England, have all to boast of the bravery of their soldiers, and the skill of their generals. This reflexion ought to diminish the pride of those nations who consider themselves, at this moment, as the most military; and, at the same time, administer consolation to the inferiority of weaker powers, who may yet hope to have their day, and to be illuminated by the sun of warlike glory. Of all the puerile vanities into which national presumption and national prejudice have caused men to fall, surely none is less consonant to reason, or more reprehensible, than the idle, we might say blasphemous opinion, that God has created one nation braver than another. Courage, perhaps, depends upon human institutions more than any other quality of the mind; and upon those strong impelling circumstances, which induce every individual to become a party in the common cause, and to fight the battles of the public, as if they were his own. The King of Prussia, (sometimes a great authority, but at others a disingenuous and miserable sophist), has declared his opinion, that soldiers ought to be machines, beings with sense and motion, but without feeling and understanding; born for confinement, chains, hunger, and drilling. This principle may do on the parade, for there a soldier may be an automaton, to be moved by the stick of the corporal; but his Prussian Majesty found out the folly of this position, or rather of this assertion, (for he was too great a man to believe in it himself,) when he lost twenty-five thousand men by desertion, in the campaign of 1778, against the Austrians. History and military experience sufficiently vindicate human nature from this stain. Perhaps soldiers are so far from being automatons, that the greatest successes in war have derived their origin from the influence of the human passions. What did the Arabs, operated upon by an intolerant zeal and religious enthusiasm? The raw levies of the French, at the commencement of the late war, resisted and repulsed the veteran troops of Europe; animated by a mistaken love of what they called liberty, and by an unconquerable determination not to suffer foreign powers to interfere in their domestic concerns. At other times, hope and confidence have enabled soldiers to perform the most illustrious achievements; hope, inspired by former success, and confidence, built upon the knowledge of the talents and military views of a fortunate general. It is certainly true, that a mistake, which would ruin a general of inferior reputation, has sometimes added to the fame of a superior one. *Cesar* and *Alexander* often tempted fortune, and risked more than was prudent or perhaps justifiable. The confidence, with which they had inspired their soldiers, led them out of every
every difficulty. Under such leaders they thought themselves invincible, and they actually became so. We have dwelt particularly on this part of the subject, because we are convinced, that the most erroneous and dangerous opinions have been adopted upon it. We repeat it again, and we would never cease to re-echo it, till the solemn sound vibrated upon the ear of every British officer, that a soldier is not an automaton, but a man, in whose humble breast the pulse of glory often beats high, and who rushes, with indifference, into the heat and danger of battle, without the hope of fame, or the prospect of sharing in the reward of victory. Where is the philosophy—where is the reason of him who asserts, that in order to draw forth the best exertions of a man, and to make him a hero in the cause of his country, it is necessary first to degrade him from the rank of a human being, and to level him to the standard of a brute? No; on the contrary, arm the human passions in your favour; teach the soldier to believe, that he has an interest in your cause; pity his weakness, cherish his good and noble qualities, instil into his breast principles of honour and rectitude; you will then be invincible, and place around you a wall stronger than brass, which the efforts of no earthly power shall ever be able to penetrate. The human passions, properly regulated, are the handmaids of truth; of pure, genuine, uncorrupted nature; the staff of virtue; the harbinger of victory; the prop, the buttress, the main pillar of government. Dissertation upon dissertation has been written about the pirouettes of the body, but not a word has yet been said upon the moral discipline of the mind; which certainly must be the essential part, so long as man is a creature composed of body, and soul. Should you be induced to assert, that a soldier is a machine, make an appeal to your own heart; if you are not contradicted, retire from the profession of arms, for you are a man without passions, and consequently without talents.

Although in a former part of this work (vide Pana militares) we have attempted to shew, that corporal punishment is necessary, nevertheless we are not ashamed to confess ourselves the feeble advocates of a mild system of military discipline. We would endeavour to elevate, and not to depress, the soldier's mind; we would treat him as an humble friend, and not as a slave: we would abolish that disgrace to our service, the punishment of flogging. We are asked what we would substitute in its room? We answer again, abolish it; we dare not trust our indignation to reason upon it, but shall satisfy ourselves in the words of a great authority, J'attends la voix de la nature qui s'écrit contre moi. Montesquieu.

Certainly this doctrine of the moral education of the soldier, ought not only to be inculcated, but should be acknowledged and adopted. When you reflect, that all the European powers have now nearly the same arms, the same constitution, practise the same movements, and follow the rules of the same tactick; to look upon them on a parade, or in a field of exercise, the shades of distinction between the troops of different countries, are only just perceptible; so that the superiority which the army of one power may have over that of another, cannot arise from practices which are similar in all, but from causes arising out of the moral and intellectual qualities of man. To give strength and perfection to those qualities is the great desideratum, and ought to be the object of our most zealous pursuits, and not the idle imitations of idle nothings, taken from other services; as if it were the cut of the coat, and not the strength of the arm, impelled by the magnanimity of the heart, which led to victory. Better, far better is it for us to continue good Englishmen, than to endeavour to become bad Germans. Our military institutions are not perhaps the best possible, but we will adopt the idea of a great Legislator (Sulon), and say, they are ours, and consequently the best for us, as far as national habit and constitution go. Among the ancients the army of one nation might have had a great and real advantage over that of another, from the comparative excellence of their tactick, and the superiority of their arms; but in our times the European nations, with the exception of the Turks, have all of them adopted a tactick nearly similar, if not the same. We do not mean
mean to say, that there are not great shades of difference, and a marked line of separation, which clearly distinguish the soldier of one country from that of another. War is a science, which, like physic, is divided into a multiplicity of different branches; because a man is great in the practice of one, it does not therefore follow, that he should be excellent in another. So it is with the troops of different nations; they have, each, their peculiar qualities and comparative merits. The cool and steady courage, the phlegm, the obedience of a German, make him excellent in a retreat; the natural sagacity, the activity, the promptitude of a Frenchman, make him admirable in a war of posts, and in a country of mountains. In a plain, and in a day of general action, the British infantry are inferior to none in Europe; there is a decision in their mind, a boldness in their character, and perhaps even an impatience, in danger, which ever prompts them to close their enemy, and to bring the contest, at once, to a glorious issue. Every officer, who looks to great command, ought to study the nature, the habits, the constitution, of the different European armies. This knowledge is absolutely necessary, in order to become thoroughly acquainted with the strength and the weakness of the troops of his own country, of its allies, and of those which are opposed to him. There is, perhaps, no part of the profession which requires more serious meditation; to the neglect of it may be attributed many of the misfortunes of the last war. The French first brought into practice a system of operations peculiarly consonant to the tone and temper of the mind, the disposition and state of the troops which composed their armies. The Austrian generals had the weakness, or rather the imbecility, to follow them, and to imitate a mode of warfare, which their soldiers, by nature and habit, were eminently disqualified to adopt. They committed the greatest of all possible errors, that of suffering themselves to be dictated to by their enemies, and to wait upon their movements. Had they sufficiently studied the constitution of their own troops, and that of the enemy whom they opposed, they would have avoided those multiplied affairs of posts which led to their defeat and ruin; on the contrary, had they concentrated their troops, and engaged in nothing but general actions, the ultimate issue of the war would, probably, have been very different from what it unfortunately was. We cannot conclude this important subject without conjuring British officers to consider war as a science, the common property of all; to place themselves above narrow, little, dangerous prejudices; to cease to over-rate themselves, and to under-rate their enemies. Flattery to an individual is meanness, to a nation wickedness; for it is the parent of presumption, the polar star of ignorant ministers and of thoughtless generals, who scorn to calculate, and appear to imagine, that fortune is enchained to the triumphal car of Britain, and consequently that they may attempt anything with the most inadequate force. We have heard it said, by a very intelligent and scientific officer, that formerly at Rome, it was inscribed, in letters of gold, over the gate of the Temple of Bellona, "Warrior! if you despise your enemy, your adoration is not worship but blasphemy!" The ancient Romans obeyed the precept of the goddess, and never failed to adopt the arms and military constitution of the nations whom they conquered, when they found them more useful and advantageous than their own. It is not permitted to despise your enemy, and least of all, an illustrious people, who, in modern times, have produced more great generals, than any other; who were victorious for sixty years in the former century, and who, in the latter, over-run half Europe. It is in vain to deny, that the French are a military nation; history and our own experience demonstrate that the French troops have been and are excellent.

The three great and necessary qualities of an army are, marching, abstaining, and fighting; in the latter virtue we yield to none in the world: but surely candour must allow, that the French are better marchers, and require a much less quantity of food to subsist on than an English army of the same force. To have contended with such a nation, so superior to us in population, extent of territory, and natural resources for five hundred years; to have generally been victorious over her, has been the fortune,
tune, and is now the glory and boast of the British name. These triumphs may swell the pride of youthful and thoughtless patriotism; but they afford matter for serious contemplation to the cool, dispassionate, reflecting military mind; to him, who judging of events, with impartiality, belongs to no party, and to no country. He who thus meditates on the fate of nations, will make a great and a just distinction between a general who dictates to fortune, and is successful by his own arrangements; and him who owes his glory to the failure and rashness of his enemy. To gain a victory by your own conduct, and to acquire it by the misconduct of another, are things very distinct in their own nature, though they are constantly confounded. Edward and Henry were bad generals, for they acted contrary to all the rules of war; fortunately for them John and Charles of France were worse. The latter preferred the eclat of battle, (where they were defeated), to the enjoyment of the fruits of victory, which they held in their hands. It is not a little extraordinary, that at Crescy, Poitiers, Agincourt, and even in Egypt, the French committed the same errors, and engaged in general actions where they should have avoided them. In Egypt their conduct was more pardonable than on the three former occasions. They made, however, it would appear, a miserable disposition of their army on the 21st of March. Had they attacked the left, in the plain, with their cavalry, instead of the right, placed in unfavourable ground, and among ruins, the event would have been more doubtful, and possibly different. Military men are particularly bound to investigate the circumstances which have attended, and the dispositions which have been made in all actions, where the troops of their own country have been principally engaged. It may be a mortification to their national vanity, but it cannot fail to be an instruction to their reason, to find that the enemy often placed themselves in such a situation, and acted in such a manner, that it was impossible that they should not have been defeated. Trace events to their proper causes, and then you may be enabled to draw a just conclusion; but we cannot see how it can give you any additional powers to be unacquainted with the real strength of your enemy. As well might it be said, that ignorance is wisdom; or that because you chose to be unacquainted with your danger, therefore it did not exist.

It is in vain for sophistry to endeavour to argue; practice and experience teach almost every thing in war. Veterans will always be more formidable than an army of recruits; officers of much experience will ever have a great advantage over those who have little. It seldom happens, that old soldiers will not fight, and make a resistance more or less vigorous. Young soldiers cannot be relied on; they may be heroes in the day of battle; but they may take it into their heads to conduct themselves in quite a different manner, and to bring danger upon themselves, which otherwise would not really have existed. It is experience in war that teaches an old soldier the danger of running away; for there is generally more security in doing your duty with the greatest courage and perseverance, than in endeavouring to avoid it. In many battles the troops which have fought hard, and gained a victory, have suffered less than those who have abandoned their ground, and betaken themselves to a shameful flight. At the battle of Leipsic the Saxons did not stand at all, while the Swedes won the battle; and it is well known, that the latter did not lose half so many men as the former.

A thousand such instances might be given; cowardice increases danger, courage diminishes it: it is therefore the opinion of the best military writers, that in time of war you should not add above one fourth to the strength of an army. In the first year of the late war, we raised upwards of 120,000 men; that is, four fifths of our soldiers were recruits.

We should imagine, that this country will at last find it necessary to have an effective army. Other powers, after the conclusion of a war, endeavour to augment their troops, and to place them on the best possible footing. What is our practice?—At a peace we reduce the army to the lowest establishment; we pay no attention to the recruiting: on the contrary, we neglect it in all its different branches. The period of hostilities advances; the commencement of a war arrives. We have every thing to begin
begin again, and a new army to create.
In the exigency of our case we are
obliged to have recourse to ale-houses and
to crumps of the worst description, from
whom we purchase defenders by a rai
uous system of enormous bounty. At the
expiration of six months, we find, how-
ever, these very men thus procured. (ma
ny of whom are feebie in their frames,
and vitiated in their minds,) transformed
into soldiers, lay into heroes, by the
magic touch of the drill-corporal, and
the stroke of the elastic drum. We sing
the hymn of victory before the day of
battle; we buoy up our minds with vi
sions of imaginary glory; we declare
that we possess an army the terror of
our enemies, the admiration of Europe;
the strength and security of England,
the last hope and refuge of established
governments! What we have related is
no exaggeration; the wisest men have
adopted this language; political orators
have descanted upon it; the press has
teemed with such effusions; whilst the
unlettered military reasoner is struck
dumb and confounded, but he is not
convinc ed; he bows his head to such
great authorities, and begs leave with
the utmost humility, to burn the few
books he may have perused; to turn a
deaf ear to the suggestions of expe
rience, for he has been misled by them;
—to set at nought in future the prac
tice and authority of the greatest gen
erals, for they have been mistaken; and
to acknowledge that a great military
principle, though true, and found so in
every other country, must be false
when applied to Englishmen.

In this article, we are sensible that we
have exceeded the bounds of a dictionary; we may have shocked prejudices,
and combated general opinions; we
make no apology. It is the duty of a
writer to instruct and not to flatter; he
ought to know how to place himself
above censure and above praise. We
feel, we know that what we have said is
true.—Magna est via veritatis et prece
lebit; We hope so, for the honour of the
king, the reputation of the British arms,
and the glory of our common country.
We cannot conclude, without seriously
recommending to review our military in
stitutions; and we do so with the greater
confidence, because we are borne out,
not only by the best written authorities,
but also confirmed and strengthened in
our opinion by the most experienced
and most successful officers amongst
us. Whatever may be right, let us re
tain; whatever may be wrong, let us
correct. We must particularly keep in
our recollection, that the events of the
last few revolving years have materially
altered the position and relative situ
ation of our natural enemy. For us, in
future, there will be no security, but
in an army composed of real soldiers,
and not of individuals dressed in red
costs, armed with a firelock and a bayo
net, and called by the names of regu
lers, militia, and volunteers, or what
ever appellation your fancy may be
pleased to bestow upon them. Never
theless, let not Englishmen be disheart
ened by this representation of our mil
itary state; let them, on the contrary,
remember, that every day brings an ac
cession of strength to their internal de
fence, by the amelioration of systems,
which (though not productive of the
discipline of regular armies) are suf
ficiently digested to render the native
courage of the inhabitants of these
islands subservient to the best plans of
military distribution:

For Britons plac'd on dissolution's brink,
Will dare to do what some scarce dare
to think!

Soldier now generally signifies any
fighting man.

Private Soldier, a man in the ranks;
one under the degree of a corporal; as
distinct from the commanders.

A real Soldier, a term among mili
tary men, to mark out one who knows
and does his duty.

No Soldier, an expression of fa
miliar currency in the British service.
It is sometimes used as a term of re
proach, and sometimes of harmless
irony; as, you're a dirty fellow and no
soldier.

Citizen Soldier, (Soldat citoyen,
Fr.) In a general acceptance of the
term, a citizen soldier signifies any man
who is armed for the support and vin
dication of his rights.

A Brother Soldier, a term of affec
tion which is commonly used in the
British service by one who serves under
the same banners, and fights for the same
cause, with another. In a more exten
sive signification, it means any military
man with respect to another.

Soldier of Fortune, (Soldat de For
tune),
During the frequent wars which occurred in Italy, before the military profession became so generally prevalent in Europe, it was usual for men of enterprise and reputation to offer their services to the different states that were engaged. They were originally called condottieri, or leaders of reputation. They afterwards extended their services, and under the title of soldiers of fortune, sought for employment in every country, or state, that would pay them.

Soldier's Friend, a term in the British service, which is generally applied to such officers as pay the strictest attention to their men; granting them reasonable indulgences without injuring the service; seeing their wants relieved; and, above all things, having them punctually paid, and regularly settled with. There is much confidence in the multitude when they are justly dealt by, and every soldier fights well under the guidance of a soldier's friend!

Soldier-Officer, a term, generally used among naval men, to signify any officer belonging to the land service.

Soldiership, (métier de soldat, Fr.) the profession, character, and qualities of a military man.

Soldiery, body of military men; soldiers collectively. Soldiers are properly the land forces of a kingdom, or state; but in England it is against the ancient law to keep an army of soldiers, in time of peace, beyond a certain establishment. It is, however, in the power of the legislature to augment this establishment, according to the exigency of the times. Where any soldier that is lawfully retained shall depart from his colours without leave, he is declared to be guilty of felony by 18 Henry VI. c. 9. and every soldier, who either causes a mutiny, or deserts the service, shall be punished with death, or otherwise, as a court-martial shall think fit. All persons, suspected of desertion, are to be apprehended by constables, who shall be allowed a reward of twenty shillings for every such deserter.

By 4 Geo. I. c. 4, it is ordained, that no soldier shall be taken out of the service by any process in law, unless it be for some criminal matter, or where the debt he owes amounts to twenty pounds at the least; of which affidavit is to be made, &c. Soldiers must be quartered in inns and ale-houses only, and not in private houses, without the consent of the owners, under certain penalties; and where victuallers refuse soldiers quartered on them, or constables receive any reward for excusing their neglect, they forfeit a sum not exceeding five pounds, nor under thirty shillings, by 5 Geo. II. c. 2. A person, enlisted for a soldier, within four days after, is to be carried before the next justice or chief magistrate of a town, and is to declare his assent, that he listed voluntarily, &c. but if he then dissents therefrom, on his returning the money received, and paying twenty shillings smart money, he may be discharged. In case any subject of Great Britain, or Ireland, shall list or enter himself, or procure anyone to be enlisted a soldier to go beyond the seas, without leave obtained from his Majesty, such person shall be punished as a felon by 8 and 9 Geo. II. There are acts annually made for punishing mutiny, &c. of soldiers, and false matters, and for the better payment of the army and their quarters. During the late war, a specific act passed both houses of parliament, whereby all persons who shall be discovered to have used any art or persuasion to induce a soldier to quit the service, or who shall otherwise tamper with him, to the detriment of good order and discipline, are declared to be guilty of high treason.

Soldiers, according to the author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire, were intrepid men among the Gauls, who were so closely attached to some particular chief, that if he fell in action they fell also, by continuing to light, or destroy themselves. It is said, in Cesar's Commentaries, that no man of this class was ever known to forfeit his engagement. The word comes from soldarius, a man sworn and devoted to his friend, to partake of his good and ill fortunes; a retainer to a great person, or one of his clan. With certain
modifications, the clans of Scotland come under this description.

Barque à SOLE, Fr. a flat-bottomed vessel.

SOLEIL, Fr. sun.

SOLEIL, fire, Fr. an artificial fire-work, so disposed, that when it takes fire, it emits a brilliant light from a fixed center, and resembles the sun at mid day.

SOLEIL tournant et courant sur une corde, Fr. an artificial fire-work made in the shape of the sun, which is so contrived, that it moves in full illumination, either backward or forward, along a rope.

SOLEIL montant, Fr. an artificial fire-work, so called from its ascending in full illumination, and scattering fire in various directions by a desultory movement. It is likewise called tourbillon de feu; a whirlwind of fire.

SOLEIL tournant et girandole, Fr. an artificial fire-work, which, when set fire to, resembles a sun moving round its axis, and exhibiting the figure of a girandole; which see.

SOLID, (sodie, Fr.) that body which has all the geometrical dimensions.

SOLID Bastion. See Fortification.

SOLIDARIE, Fr. consolidated. An old French legal term, but now generally used to signify a concentration of good qualities, &c. Thus the French Convention declared—Que les armées étaient solidaires de gloire; that the armies had consolidated their glory; meaning thereby, that the victories of one part of the army had been added to the account of the rest.

SOLIDATUS, the Latin word for soldier, or for any person who carried arms for pay. Hence soldat, Fr. a solido quem meretur. Dr. Johnson, as we have stated under solider, derives the latter word from solidarius. Solidatus seems more appropriate.

SOLIDITY, (solidité, Fr.) firmness; density; compactness.

SOLITARILIA, (solitaurees, Fr.) sacrifices of three things of sundry kinds, as a bull, a ram, a boar, which were made by the Romans in honour of Mars, the god of war.

SOLE, Fr. a joist.

SOLE likewise signifies a measure in carpentry. It is supposed to be equal to three cubic feet. So that the solive in France is to the measure of wood-work, what the cubic toise is to the measure of earth or brick-work. The solive is divided into six French feet which are called pieds de solive. The foot into 12 inches, called pouces de solive; and the inch into 12 lines, which are called lignes de solive. In order to form a correct idea of the solive, with regard to all parts or proportions, it must be considered as a parallelepiped, whose base is a rectangle containing 12 inches in breadth, to six in height, and a toise in length, the solive being equal to 3 cubic feet.

SOLIVEAU, Fr. a small joist; a rafter.

SOLSTICE, (solstice, Fr.) the point beyond which the sun does not go; the tropical point; the point at which the day is longest in summer, or shortest in winter. It is taken, of itself, commonly for the summer solstice.

The Summer SOLSTICE, (le solstice d'été, Fr.) is when the sun is in the tropic of cancer, and gives us the longest day.

The Winter SOLSTICE, (le solstice d'hiver, Fr.) is when the sun is in the tropic of capricorn, and gives us the shortest day. There is not any solstice under the equator; there being, in that quarter, without variation, equal day and equal night.

SOLUTION, (solution, Fr.) resolution of a doubt; removal of any intellectual difficulty.

SOMACHÉ, Fr. brackish, salt. The mixture of sea and river water is so called, eau sumaché.

SOME-WAR, Ind. Monday.

SOMMERS, in an ammunition wagon, are the upper sides, supported by the staves entered into them with one of their ends, and the other into the side pieces.

SOMMIER d'un pont levis, Fr. See Scul de pont lers.

SONAILLER, Fr. a term used among the drivers of mules, to signify the leading animal that has a bell tied to his neck, which they call sonaille.

SONDE, Fr. sounding lead; also a probe, or any instrument used to ascertain the nature of soil, &c.

SONDE, Fr. to sound, to throw out the lead.

SONNANT, Fr. a particle which is frequently used by the French, to express
press a specific period of time, or the nature of any thing.

A 5 heures Sonnantes, Fr. at five o'clock precisely, or as the clock strikes five.

Argent Sonnant, Fr. hard cash.

This term was in familiar use at the commencement of the French revolution, when it was found expedient to pay a select body of troops, called the gendarmes, in ready money, whilst the aggregate of the nation took paper currency, or assignats.

Sonneter, Fr. to sound. Sonner de la trompette, to sound the trumpet.

Sonnette, Fr. a machine which is used in driving piles of wood into the earth; a sort of rammer.

Sooder, Ind. the fourth, or lowest of the original tribes of Hindoos, as they come from the feet of Bruma, which signifies subjection. They are obliged to labour, and to serve when called upon.

Sookrbar, Ind. Friday.

Soorethaul, Ind. statement of a case.

Soquenille, Fr. See Sarrau.

Sordet, the small pipe or mouth.

Sordine, piece of a trumpet.

Sorn, a servile tenure in Scotland, by which, formerly, a chief tenant might, with his followers, live upon his tenants at free quarters.

Sort, Fr. fate; lot; destiny. The French say, sort de la guerre, the fate of war.

Tirer au sort, Fr. to draw lots.

Être condamnés par le sort, to be condemned in consequence of lots being drawn.

Sortie Extérieure, Fr. a sortie or sally which is made out of a besieged place, or invested camp, when the besieging army is at some distance from the works, and which is consequently full of uncertainty and danger. Hence sortie de cinq cents hommes, a sortie or sally of five hundred men.

Grande sortie, a sortie or sally made by a large proportion of the troops in camp or garrison. Vigoureuse sortie, a vigorous sortie or sally.

Sortie intérieure, Fr. a sortie or sally which is made when the enemy gets close to the covert-way. This sort of sally is less dangerous than the former, because the retreat is more cer-}

tain. The Turks are remarkable for their prowess on these occasions; they generally commence their sorties at break of day, and at the very beginning of a siege. The ancients, on the contrary, always sallied out, in considerable force, at midnight.

Sorties, in a siege, parties that sally out of a town secretly to annoy the besiegers, and retard their operations.

Sourcingues, Fr. the Scilly Islands.

Sortir, Fr. to go out. The French say, sortir sur l'ennemi, to rush upon the enemy; sortir l'épée à la main, to rush out sword in hand.

Sortir du camp, du port, Fr. to leave camp; to sail out of port.

Sortir d'un péril, Fr. to get out of a scrape.

Sortir des bornes de la discipline militaire, Fr. to trespass upon military discipline, or to go out of military rules and regulations.

Soubreveste, Fr. a part of the old dress of a musketeer, which was somewhat similar to a close jacket without sleeves, and was hooked on each side like a cuirass.

Soudan, Fr. See Soldan.

Soudard ou Soudart, Fr. an old French term, signifying soldat, or soldier. It is often used in familiar discourse, when the subject relates to a person who has served for any length of time. Hence un vicus soudard, an old soldier.

Soudoyés, Fr. from soudoyer, to keep in pay. This name was originally given to a body of men who enlisted themselves under Philip Augustus of France, on condition that they should receive a certain daily pay in the way of subsistence. Frossart calls all soldiers, who are paid for doing duty, or for going to war, soudoyes.

Soudrille, Fr. a term of reproach, signifying a dishonest soldier; a vagabond, or thief.

Sovereign, supreme in power; having no superior. In Great Britain the sovereign is so far limited with respect to this explanation, that he has no power beyond the legislative delegation of their authority by the two Houses of Parliament. He has, however, no superior with regard to the army and navy.
Sovereign contempt. This expression is used to signify contempt that is shown in the highest degree.

SOUFFLE, Fr. the wind of a cannon.

SOUFFLER les canons, Fr. to scale pieces of ordnance. This is done, by means of a moderate charge of gunpowder, for the purpose of cleaning them.

SOUFFLER, Fr. This word is used figuratively, among the French, and signifies to do any thing underhand, or by stealth. Hence souffler la division, le feu de la discorde, to sow the seeds of, or secretly to blow up the embers of discord.

SOUFFLER un avancement, Fr. to obtain promotion, without having any claim from personal service or merit. To rise by underhand or low means.—See SCABBARD.

SOUFFLER le froid et le chaud, Fr. to blow hot and cold. This sort of character sometimes disgraces military life, especially within the purlieus of a court.

SOUFFLER au poil, Fr. a term used in farriery, to signify that the pus or matter oozes out of the crown of a horse's hoof, through the hair that grows round it.

SOUFFLER un exploit, Fr. to boast of some exploit which has never taken place. The French also use the word souffler in an absolute sense, to signify any fruitless attempt or wild scheme to become rich, by looking after the philosopher's stone, and trying to make gold and silver by chemical operations. Hence il a dépensé tout son bien à souffler, he has spent or wasted all his property in visionary pursuits.

SOUFEURS, Fr. a mean degraded set of men, who get military promotions at the expense of neglected merit, and succeed in life by being subservient to the vices and caprices of imaginary greatness.

SOUFFRIR, Fr. to bear; to support; to meet. Hence souffrir une tempête, to meet a storm.

SOUFFRIR une siège, Fr. to stand a siege.

SOUFFRIR une attaque, Fr. to stand an attack.

SOULURE, Fr. a cavity or hole which is frequently occasioned when pieces of metal have been forged in too intense a fire. Cannon balls lose their required weight by flaws of this sort.

SOUFRÉ, Fr. See SULPHUR.

SOUGARDE, Fr. guard, throat-band of a gun. A semi-circular piece of brass which is fixed beneath the trigger of a musquet, to prevent it from going off by accident.

SOUGARDES, See DECHARGEURS.

SOUGORGE, Fr. throat-band of a bridle.

SOUKARS, Ind. a general name for bankers.

SOULER, Fr. to sully; to stain; to defile.

SOULER ses mains de sang, Fr. to sully or stain one's hands with blood. The author of the French work, from which we occasionally extract matter, observes on this head, that soldiers, who only follow the dictates of their duty, and obey the orders of their superiors, grounded in state necessity, cannot be said to stain or defile themselves with blood, although in the heat of an action, they are obliged to be the blind instruments of the most sanguinary measures. They only, let their sex be what it may, can be said to stain their hands, and to be imbrued in blood, who cause the death of innocent persons.

SOULEVEMENT, Fr. Insurrection, revolt.

SOULEVER, Fr. To stir up, to excite to insurrection.

SE SOULEVER, Fr. To rise, to revolt, to mutiny; l'armée est soulevée contre son général; the army rose, or mutinied against its general.

SOUMETTRE, Fr. (As an active verb) to subdue, to overcome, to reduce to subjection.

SE SOUMETTRE, Fr. To submit oneself; to yield.

SOUMISSION, Fr. Submission.

SOUMIS, is, Fr. In fortification, to lie under, to be commanded. Thus, one work is said to be commanded, or être soumis, when it is lower than another. The same signification holds good with respect to heights or elevations.

SOUND. Any thing audible, noise; that which is perceived by the ear.—The experiments are numerous by which it has been found, that sound

\[5 Q 2\]
is audible to the distance of 50, 60 or
80 miles; but Dr. Hearne, physician
to the king of Sweden, tells us, that
at the bombardment of Holmia, in
1658, the sound was heard 30 Swedish
miles, which make 180 of ours: and
in the fight between England and Hol-
land in 1672, the noise of the guns was
heard even in Wales, which cannot be
less than 200 miles.

The velocity of sound is 380 yards,
or 1142 feet in a second of time, as
found by very accurate experiment.

The exactness of measuring distances
by sound, has been sufficiently proved
by measuring the same distances by
trigonometry.

**Sound, (sone, Fr.)** An instrument
used by surgeons in probing.

*To Sound.* To betoken, or direct
by a sound; as, to sound the retreat.

*Hence*

**Soundings.** Signals made by any
kind of instruments.

**Trumpet Soundings,** as ordered to
be practised by all cavalry regiments,
viz. for duty.

1. **Revellé.**
2. **Stable Call**—For stable duties.
3. **Boots and saddles** When to
4. **To horse.** turn out on
horseback for a march, exercise or other
duty.

5. **Draw Swords.** These sound-
ings begin at
6. **Return Swords.** the instants of drawing the sword from,
and returning it to the scabbard.

7. **Parade March.**
8. **Parade Call.** For assembling on

9. **Officers call.**
10. **Sergeants Call.**
11. **Trumpeters Call.**
12. **Orders.**
13. **Dinner Call.** For men, and for
officers.

14. **Watering Call.** To turn out in
watering order.

15. **Setting the Watch.**

These duty soundings, according to
situation, are given by one trumpet, or
by the whole of the quarter, regiment,
or camp.

**For Exercise.**

16. **March.** The squadron, re-

diment, or line being halted, the trumpet
of the commander will accompany the
word, *march*, the whole will move at

17. **Trot.** When the body is

18. **Gallop.** marching at a walk,
on

19. **Charge.** the signal to trot, the
whole instantly receive the word *trot,*
and change pace immediately. The
same is to be observed from the trot to
the light gallop, and from the gallop to
the charge. During the charge itself,
the trumpets of all the squadrons that
are charging, may sound.

20. **Halt.** The whole halt on the
word of command. After the halt of
a retreating body, the proper command
will bring it to its proper front.

21. **Retreat.** The signal of *retreat,*
(which will be often preceded by that
of halt) is a general caution for the se-
veral words of execution to be given.

22. **Rally.** The signal to *rally,* may
be continued as long as it is necessary,
and be repeated by the trumpets of
such parts of the body, as are concern-
ed in the operation, till the end is an-
swered.

These signals are given by the chief
commander only of the whole body
that is exercised, whether of a squadron,
regiment, brigade, or a line; they are
not repeated by other commanders;
they are addressed as cautions to the
commanding officers of the parts of
such body, not to the men; nor is any
movement, or alteration of movement,
to take place, but in consequence of
the words, march, trot, gallop, &c. &c.
rapidly and loudly repeated, the instant
the trumpet caution is given.

The signals of movement are so
short, that the words of execution may
nearly coincide with them.

These signals for quick movement, may
in regular exercise begin by a person
who at the instant of giving them is
stationary; but if he leads the body in
motion, it is evident that in the gallop,
the charge, and the halt, the voice
and the eye, can only determine, and
regulate.

23. **Turn out Skirmishers.** This sig-

cal is made by the commander of the
whole, if the whole is concerned, other-
wise by the commander of such part
only as is to execute; if one, or two
squadrons only, the voice will suffice.
It may be a signal for pursuers after a
charge.
24. **Call in Skirmishers.** This signal is made by the commander of the whole, and repeated by the commander of detachments; it is for the skirmishers to join their detachments; or it may originally come from the commander of the detachments. On the signal to rally, the whole join the bodies they were detached from.

25. **Skirmishers cease firing.** This signal is made by the commander of the whole, and repeated (or originally made) by the commander of the supporting detachments, from which the skirmishers are advanced.

**Bugle Horn Soundings,** are different calls which are made by the bugle-horn for duty and exercise.—The following constitute the principal ones which are ordered to be practised.

1st, For duty.

1. **Reveille.**

2. **Rouse, or turn out.**

3. **Dinner Call.**

4. **Setting the Watch.**

These soundings are different in their notes from those of the trumpet, but may be used under the same circumstances.

2d, For Exercise.

5. **March.**

6. **Trot.**

7. **Gallop.**

8. **Charge.**

9. **Halt.**

10. **Retreat.**

11. **Rally.**

12. **Turn out Skirmishers.**

13. **Skirmishers cease firing.**

44. **Call in Skirmishers.**

These signals, of the trumpet, and bugle horn, are meant in aid of the voice, but are by no means to be substituted for, or to prevent the ordered words of execution.

The trumpet is always to be considered as the principal military instrument for these soundings, and particularly belongs to the line; the bugle horn to detached parties.

Although it is specifically mentioned in the Rules and Regulations, that words of command are on all occasions to be used, and that signals are only to be resorted to, in aid of the voice; yet there are certain signals, or beats of the drum, as well as trumpet and bugle horn soundings, which are independent of any ordered words of execution.

SOUAPE, Fr. Sucker of a pump.

SOURA, Ind. A division; as that of a chapter.

SOURD, c. Fr. Literally means deaf, dull. It is variously applied by the French.—viz.

**Lanterne SOURDE, Fr.** A dark lantern.

**Lime SOURDE, Fr.** A file which is made in such a manner, that you may separate pieces of iron without making any noise in the operation. It is likewise used in a figurative sense—To signify a person who says little, but is always meditating something mischievous or injurious to others.

The French likewise say, *sourdes pratiques, pratiques sourdes; secret, or underhand practices; sourdes menées, menées sourdes, secret, or underhand ways.* These terms are always used in a bad sense. In mathematics, the French call those quantities, *quantités sourdes,* which are incommensurable, that is, which cannot be exactly expressed, either by whole numbers, or by fractions. Thus the square root, or *racine carrée,* of two, is a *quantité sourde.*

SOURDINE, Fr. A little pipe, a mute. It likewise means a small spring, which is fixed in a dumb repeater. The French make use of this word in a figurative sense, to signify literally, without noise. *Les ennemis ont déposé à la sourdine;* the enemy decamped privately, and without noise.

SOURIS, Fr. Literally a mouse. For its application in fortification, see *pas de souris.* It is likewise used to express a want of expedients, or resources, in critical moments, and the consequent danger of being caught in the snare one is endeavouring to avoid—*La souris qui n’a qu’un trou est bientôt prise;* the mouse that has only one hole to run to, is soon caught.

SOURNOIS, Fr. A sullen character. A quarrelsome man is always a nuisance to society, and the pest of military life, but there are means by which he may be corrected. A sullen and adust character is no less dangerous; perhaps
perhaps more so; because his peevish and morose temper, if not checked in infancy, is seldom mended in manhood.

SOUS, Fr. A preposition which is used to denote the state or condition of one thing with respect to another which is above it, viz.

Sous-tangent, Fr. Sub-tangent.

Sous, Fr. Under; close to. The French say, as we do, camper sous une ville, to encamp under a town; être sous le feu d'un bataillon, to be under the fire, or exposed to the fire of a battalion; les soldats sont sous les armes, the soldiers are under arms; sous les drapeaux, under the colours; sous les aiguières, under the aiguières; être en sous-ordre, to be under orders.

Sous-brigadier, Fr. Sub-brigadier.

Sous-faite, Fr. Under roof timber.

Sous-garde, Fr. Throat-band of a gun.

Sous-gorge, Fr. Throat-band of a bridle.

Sous-gucule, Fr. A bridle.

Sous-lieutenant, Fr. Under lieutenant's place or appointment.

Sous-lieutenant, Fr. Sub-lieutenant.

Sous-secretaire, Fr. Under secretary.

Sous-ventrière, Fr. Under girth.

SOUSIGNER, Fr. To undersign.

SOUSIGN, &c, Fr. The undersigned.

SOUSTRAIRE, Fr. To withdraw; to take away. The French say, soustraire des soldats de ou l'obissance de leur commandant, to seduce soldiers from their duty to their commanding officer. They also say, se soustraire de la tyrannie, to get rid of, or to shake off the yoke of tyranny.

La SOUTE, Fr. The powder or bread-room.

SOUTENEUR, Fr. In a bad sense, a bully; a brave; one who attempts to carry things, by noise and menaces, in opposition to truth and reason.

SOUTENEUR, Fr. A supporter; an abettor.

SOUTENIR, Fr. To maintain; as soutenir le combat; to maintain the fight.

SOUTENIR le feu de l'ennemi, Fr. To stand the enemy's fire.

SOUTENIR le siège, Fr. To hold out in a besieged place.

SOUTENIR, This word is also used in the French drill, and signifies to support or balance the body on the right or left foot, according to the given direction. The point upon which the heel turns, is called the pivot. (Le Pivot.)

SOUTERRAINS, Fr. Subterraneous passages, lodgments, &c. that are bomb-proof.

There are several lodgments of the description in the different fortified places upon the Continent. The most remarkable are those at Landau, an ancient and strong town of Lower Alsace, in France; New Brisach, a town of Alsace, in France, not far from Brisac, the ancient capital of Brisgov, in Germany, and Figuiéros. The latter belongs to Spain, and is so skilfully and so solidly constructed, that the horses of several regiments may be quartered in them.

SOUTHWARK, a dependency of the city of London. All musters of soldiers taken or made in the borough of Southwark, must be in the presence of two justices. See MUTINY ACT, Sect. 21.

SOUTIEN, Fr. A prop; a support. It also signifies any work in fortification, which props or supports another of larger dimensions, and without which aid, it might fall or give way.

SOUVERAIN, Fr. Sovereign. The person in whom sovereignty is vested.

SOUVERAINETÉ, sovereignty; supremacy; highest place; supreme power.

SOW, in ancient military history, a kind of covered shed, fixed on wheels, under which the besiegers filled up and passed the ditch, sapped or mined the wall, and sometimes worked a kind of ram. It had its name from its being used for rooting up the earth like a swine, or because the soldiers therein were like pigs under a sow.

SOWAR, Ind. A horseman.

SOWGUND, Ind. An oath.

SPADASSIN, Fr. In familiar language, a bully. It also signifies a cut-throat; a fellow who is regardless of his own life, and attempts that of another, for the slightest offence of contradiction.

SPADE, (bête, Fr. An instrument for digging. See INTRENCHING TOOLS, Mining, &c.

SPADROON,
SPADROON, a sword much lighter than a broad sword, and made both to cut and thrust.

SPADROON Guard, a guard sometimes used with the cut and thrust sword, and also with the broadsword. It consists in dropping the point towards the right from the outside guard, till it comes under your adversary’s blade, the edge being upwards, and your wrist at the same time raised.

SPAHI, an upper garment made of blue cloth, which is worn by the Janizaries, in the same manner that we wear a loose great coat or surtout.

SPAHLAR-AGASI, Fr. colonel-general of the Spahis. He has the same command or authority over them which is vested in the Aga, who is head of the Janizaries.

SPAHIS, a corps of Turkish cavalry, which is kept in pay by the grand signor. The Spahis do not possess any lands as the Zaims and Timariots are allowed to do. This corps is composed of twelve or fifteen thousand men, and consists of the Selhataris, whose standard or cornet is yellow, and of the Spahis-Clanis, who have a red one. When those troops were first formed, the latter acted as servants or batmen to the former: they became a separate class or troop in consequence of their superior conduct on service, and are distinguished in this manner: they are armed with a sabre and a lance, which they call mireack. They likewise make use of a long dart or javelin, called a gerie, with an iron ferrel at one end, which they throw at an enemy with surprising skill; and if they should happen to miss their aim, they can instantly bend from their saddles, and catch it up, whilst the horse is on full gallop.—Others again are armed with bows and arrows, and some have pistols and carbines. When the grand signor takes the field in person, he generally makes a present of five thousand aspers to each Spahi. This bounty is called saduch-ackachasi, or gift to enable each man to purchase bows and arrows.

When the Spahis take the field, they march in rear of their standard; but they do not observe any particular order of route. They divide themselves, on the contrary, into small bodies, and advance in the most desultory manner.

Besides these two troops of Spahis, there are four others in the Turkish service, which are only called upon under circumstances of extreme pressure and emergency. The first is called sag-lesiti; the standard is red and white. The second is named sol-lesiti; the standard is white and yellow. The third is styled sag-gureba; the standard green; and the fourth, sol-gureba; the standard is white. All these Spahis receive a daily pay of twelve to twenty aspers; and they are subject to every species of duty. There are Spahis called Timars, or Timariots. See Timariots.

SPAHISGLANIS, Fr. See Spahis.

SPANISH, a vulgar phrase, used principally among sea-faring men, to signify money.

SPANER, the lock of a fusil or carbine.

SPARUM, a kind of dart, which was used by the ancients in war, and was shot out of a cross-bow. The wound it occasioned was extremely dangerous, as its point was triangular. Several of these darts were discharged in a volley.

SPATHAIRES. See Protospathaires.

SPATTERDASHES, a kind of covering for the legs of soldiers, made of cloth, or coarse linen waxed over, and buttoned tight; by which the wet is kept off: now called long gaiters.

SPATTS, a small sort of spatterdashes, that reach only a little above the ankle, called also half gaiters.

SPEAKING Trumpet, a trumpet by which the voice may be carried to a great distance. It was formerly used in large armies; and even so late as the siege of Gibraltar, when General Elliott, (afterwards Lord Heathfield) caused the brigade words of command to be given by means of this instrument.

SPEAR, a lance, or long weapon with a sharp point, formerly used as a manual, or missile weapon. See Lance.

Major Cartwright, in a late ingenious publication, has given some curious particulars respecting this weapon. See Egis, published by that gentleman.

SPECULATOR. This word had three different meanings among the ancient Romans. It signified a spy in war,
war, or a sentinel and a scout; it also expressed a soldier who did duty at the imperial palace; and sometimes it was used to mark out the person who did the function of a public executioner.

SPECULATORES, Fr. According to Suetonius, there was a body of men among the ancient Romans, which was called caliga speculatoria, (the word caliga signifying a sort of military spatterdash) whose duty was to observe the motions of the enemy, and to be constantly hovering about him. The speculators were better paid than other soldiers, on account of the dangers to which they were exposed, but they were not so well clothed, being looked upon as a forlorn hope.

To SPEND. This term is used at sea of a mast of a ship; when it is broken down by foul weather, it is said to be spent. It is sometimes used in military matters to express the consumption of any thing; as to spend all your ammunition.

SPENT ball, (boulet mort, balle morte, Fr.) a cannon or musquet ball, &c. is said to be spent, when it reaches an object without sufficient force to pass through it, or otherwise wound, than by a contusion. Spent balls, however, are frequently fatal in their effects, especially when they hit any of the noble parts. It is on occasions of this sort, that the activity and skill of a field or ambulating surgeon are indispensably necessary; for which reason a sufficient number of these useful attendants upon an army ought always to accompany the different battalions that go into action. The French pay the strictest attention to this branch of the service.—Their flying hospitals are not only well supplied with all the requisites for so important an establishment, but every dependent part is equally well provided.

SPHERE, or Sphorae. See CESTES

SPHERICAL, a round body of

SPHERICALS, which the center is at the same distance from every point of the circumference; as is the case with Shot, shells, &c.

SPHERES d'artifice, Fr. iron hoops with matches steeped in combustible matter, fixed round them. When there is only one hoop it is called circle d'artifice; when there are two or three, one within the other, the assemblage of them is called sphère d'artifice, from resemblance to that figure.

SPHERICAL, round.

SPHEROID, an oblong body, approaching the form of a sphere.

SPIES, in war, are persons en-

SPIALS, employed to give intelligence of what the enemy is doing. They should be well paid: who pays them it is never well served. They should never be known to any body, nor should they know one another. When they propose any thing very material, their persons, or their wives and children, should be secured and kept as hostages for their fidelity. If they are apprehended, they immediately suffer death.

Spies are found in the cabinets of princes, in the closets of ministers, amongst the officers of the army, and in the councils of generals; in towns belonging to the enemy, and in monasteries. The greatest generals strongly recommend them, whatever expense they may occasion; and indeed a commander had better be in want of many particulars, however necessary, than be destitute of spies. Nothing should be spared to procure them; and even the promises made to them should be observed with the most inviolable integrity. By making a proper use of these necessary creatures, the most secret designs of an enemy may be discovered, the positions his armies are to take, the stations of his electors, and even the manner in which the former is to be secured by masked batteries, or the latter be kept firm with chain moorings, as was the case off Boulogne in 1800.

To SPIKE a gun. This term is chiefly used at sea, and signifies to fasten a quoin with spikes to the deck, close to the breech of the carriages of the great guns, so that they may keep firm and close to the sides of the ship, and not break loose when the ship rolls. It is likewise used in military matters to signify the choking up the touch-hole of a piece of ordnance, so as to render it useless. See To Nail.

SPIKES, in gunnery. See HISP.

SPIN, or to spin ray, is to twist it up in ropes, very hard, for an expedition; by which means it is less bulky, and less troublesome for the cavalry to carry behind
hind them. An expert horseman can spin five days forage into a very narrow compass.

SPIRAL, (spireale, Fr.) in architecture, a curve that ascends winding about a cone or spire, so that all the points thereof continually approach the axis.

SPIRAL Line, (ligne spirale, Fr.) a curve line, which makes a circular movement like a screw, perpetually diverging or going off from its center.

SPIRAL, a line drawn progressively SPIRÉ, round the same axis, with a distance between each circle; as the thread of a screw. See Screw.

SPIROLE, Fr. a small culverin, which was so called from the spiral or crooked direction that was taken, and the hissing noise which was made by the ball shot from it. Hence it was also called serpentine and maileask.

SPOKES, the bars of a wheel that pass from the nave to the felly.

SPOLIA, from Spolium, among the ancient Romans, spoils; booty taken from an enemy.

SPOlia Opina, among the ancient Romans, those spoils which a subaltern officer took from any officer of distinction belonging to the enemy.

SPONTON, Fr. See Spontoon.

Spontoon, is a weapon much like a halberd, formerly used instead of a halpike, by the officers of foot. When the spontoon was planted, the regiment halted; when pointed forwards, the regiment marched; and when pointed backwards the regiment retroceded.

To SPRAY, to widen out in an irregular and unsoldier-like manner.—This term is chiefly applicable to the cavalry.

SPRAWLING, loose, unconnected, wide of each other.

A SPRAWLING charge, a loose and irregular movement of cavalry, instead of a close, compact, forward attack.

To SPRING, to give vent to any combustible matter upon which gunpowder principally acts by the power of explosion. Hence to spring globes of compression, &c. The latter are frequently used for the same purposes that sky-rockets, &c. are, viz. to serve as signals when any sudden attack is to be made.

When the impression, which finally led to the surrender of Valenciennes to his Royal Highness the Duke of York, was made, the springing of three globes of compression was the signal for the attack. The late General Sir Ralph Abercrombie commanded the column that rushed into the sap on this memorable occasion; and we need scarcely add, that every thing which British valour and intrepidity could do was instantly effected. The result is a sufficient illustration.

SPRING, in a general acceptation, an elastic body; a body which, when bent, or distorted, has the power of restoring itself to its former state. It is in general a piece of tempered metal, which by means of its elastic force, is useful in several machines to give them motion. In a gun lock the springs are distinguished by various appellations according to their several uses, viz.

Cear and Cear SPRING. The cear is a piece of hardened iron or steel in a gun lock, which moves on a pivot, and the point of which is received in a notch cut in the tumbler, and the other end is acted upon by the trigger.

The cear spring is a small spring, which throws the cear into the notch cut in the tumbler of a gun cock, when the piece is at half cock, or full cock.

Feather SPRING, the spring of a gun lock beneath the foot of the hammer; called likewise hammer-spring.

Main SPRING. The spring of a gun lock which operates on the tumbler, and gives force to the cock.

To SPRING, in a military sense, to step forward with a certain degree of elasticity.

SPRING up. A word of command, which has been occasionally used when sections double up. It signifies, indeed, the same as double up, and is sometimes used singly, as Spring! particularly to light infantry men.

To SPRING the firelock. To bring it briskly up to any ordered position; to the recove, for instance.

SPUNGE, (écowilion, griffon, Fr.) A long staff with a roll at one end, covered with a sheep's skin, of the bigness of the bore of a gun, to scour it after firing; and to prevent any sparks from remaining. It is sometimes called Merkin, from its artificial texture of hair at the end of the staff.

5 R. Pyro-
Pyrotechnical Spunges. Spunges which constitute the black match or tinder that is brought from Germany, for striking fire with a flint and steel. These spunges are made of the large mushrooms or fungous excrescences which grow upon old oaks, ash trees, firs, &c. These are dried, boiled in water and beaten, and then put in a strong lye made of saltpetre, and afterwards dried in an oven.

To Spunge the gun, (éconvillonner le canon, Fr.) To cool and cleanse the bore of a piece of ordnance by means of a wet spunge which is fixed to the end of a long pole.

Jingling SPUR. A curious spur which was worn in the seventeenth century. The Reverend Walter Harte, in his ingenious translation of the Life of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, has furnished the following particulars respecting it. His words are—

I have seen one of these jingling spurs which was found in the Star Park, on the famous White Mountain, near Prague, where the battle was fought between the Imperialists and troops of the Union; by the event of which the Elector Palatine lost the crown of Bohemia. The spur was large and strong; it was made of brass, and had a short curved neck. The box (from whose center the rowels came) was as broad as an half crown piece; hollow, and something more than a quarter of an inch. It was of bell metal gilt, and contained three or four metal balls about the size of a small field pea. The rowels, which were generally four of six, passed through the sides of the box, and measured near three inches, from opposite point to point. In the text it is observed, see Essay, Vol.I, Page 49, that it is thought, these spurs were made to jingle, in order to animate the horses, and keep them up to their duty, without going their flanks unmercifully.

SPURS, in old fortifications, are walls that cross a part of the rampart, and join to the town wall.

SPURS. Instruments fixed to the heels of horsemen, with which they can, at pleasure, goad the horse to action.

SQUAD. A diminutive of squadron. It is used in military matters to express any small number of men, horse or foot, that are collected together for the purposes of drill, &c.

To Squad. To divide a troop or company into certain parts, in order to drill the men separately, or in small bodies, or to put them under the direction and care of some steady corporal, or lance corporal. In every well regulated troop or company, the men are squaded in such a manner, that the most minute concern with respect to the interior economy can be instantly accounted for.

The following distinct instructions have appeared in print.—

We quote them the more readily because they not only coincide with our own ideas on the subject, but seem perfectly calculated to preserve good order and discipline. They relate chiefly to the cavalry, but are equally applicable to infantry corps.

Each troop, it is observed, ought to be divided into two squads when under forty. Into three or four when above, according to the number, with an equal proportion of non-commissioned officers in each; and when the eldest is on duty, the charge of the squad falls on the next in the squad, and so on. First the stables must be divided, as equally as possible, into these divisions, and the men must belong to the same squad that their horses do: so that the foot and horse billets, and those for the married men's rooms of a squad, go together. The squads must be as distinct and separate as possible; in short as much so as two troops are; never crossing each other. The stables must likewise be squaded entirely; that is, no one stable must be allotted to two separate squads; for which reason, the proportion of numbers in each squad cannot always be exactly equal. The squad is entirely in charge of its own serjeant, or, in his absence, of the corporal who commands it, with relation to every quarter and stable duty, parades on foot and horseback. The quarter-master, in the cavalry, has, of course, the general inspection of the whole.

When a corporal has charge of a squad, he must not look after his own horse at such times as interfere with his squad duty: he can generally manage to do it at the morning stable, and in the evening he can get him done before
fore the regular hour. On a march, or after a field day, he cannot do it so conveniently, and of course orders another man to do it. — When a detachment of an absent troop is in a quarter, it must be attached to a particular troop, which ever may be judged most convenient. It must be considered as a separate and distinct squad, quartered by itself, (as far as it can be, consistent with the proper quartering of its recruits,) and under the command of its own non-commissioned officer, unless the troop to which it belongs cannot spare a non-commissioned officer with it; in which case it must be given in charge to a non-commissioned officer of the troop to which it is attached.

The same rules for squadding hold good on a march, and in all situations whatever; and the list of quarters must be made out accordingly.

The non-commissioned officers must always be kept to the same squad, as nearly as they can be. The policy of this instruction is obvious, as they will thereby be made acquainted with the character of every man in the squad.

Recruits should always be quartered and squadded with old soldiers who are known to be steady and well behaved; and those men that are at all irregular in their conduct, must be separated and distributed in squads which are composed of good old soldiers.

Awkward Squad. The awkward squad consists not only of recruits at drill, but of formed soldiers that are ordered to exercise with them, in consequence of some irregularity under arms. This term has been likewise used, partly in ridicule, and partly in reproach, to mark out those officers who are negligent of their duty. A well known industrious tactician in the British army, frequently uses the expression, in the latter sense.

Squadron, (Escadron, Fr.) A body of cavalry, composed of two troops. The number is not fixed, but is generally from 80 to 190 men. The oldest troop always takes the right of the squadron, the second the left.

The most scientific and the most experienced officers, have always held the cavalry in high estimation. The service which have been rendered by this body of men, their innumerable suc-

osses, of which so many records are preserved both in ancient and modern history, together with the unanimous approbation of those authors, who are considered as masters in the art of war; all these circumstances sufficiently evince, that cavalry is not only useful, but indispensably necessary in war. Marshal Turenne was known to say — 

Avec une bonne cavalerie, on travaille l'armée de son ennemi par détail, with a body of good cavalry, one works or harnesses the army of one's enemy by detail; meaning, thereby, that the desultory and rapid movements of dragoons, if properly managed, are of a nature to destroy the best concerted plans of an adversary, by hanging upon his flanks, driving in his outposts, intercepting his convoys, and by taking advantage of every opening during the heat of an engagement. The Austrians had a memorable instance of the latter, when the French general Désaix, at the head of a body of horse, decided the fate of the battle of Marengo. In pursuits, the superiority of the cavalry is unquestionable.

Square, (Carrée, Fr.) A figure with right angles, and equal sides.

The Square. A particular formation into which troops are thrown on critical occasions; particularly to resist the charge of cavalry.

Solid Square, is a body of foot, where both ranks and files are equal. It was formerly held in great esteem; but when the prince of Nassau introduced the hollow square, this was soon neglected.

Hollow Square, is a body of foot drawn up, with an empty space in the center, for the colours, drums, and baggage, facing every way to resist the charge of the horse.

Oblong Square. A square which is not at right angles, but represents the figure of an oblong, whose sides are unequal. Thus as eight companies of equal numbers would form a perfect square, ten make an oblong.

Perfect Square. A square whose sides are equal and at right angles. The perfect square, in the formation of troops, seems best calculated for military movements and arrangements. — Battalions, for instance, which are composed of eight companies, with one hun-

5 R 2
dred rank and file in each, are equal to every species of disposition. It is upon this principle, we presume, that the French have distributed their infantry. British regiments, on the contrary, consist of ten companies, and are so composed that no square of this kind can be formed. This is manifestly a defect in our system. It is indeed remedied by the grenadier and light infantry companies being occasionally detached, or cast into separate battalions; so that the remaining companies, by being told off, are brought to eight equal parts.—Tacticians will perhaps agree with us, that it would be better to have seven companies flanked by a subdivided one of grenadiers, the whole being so equalized as to produce eight equal parts. In this case, the light companies should be formed into separate bodies of chasseurs or riflemen, after the manner of the French.

Shakespeare uses the word square to signify squadron; but it is now obsolete.

SQUARE Root. In geometry, the square root of any number is that which multiplied by itself, produces the square; thus 4 is the square root of 16.

SQUARE Number. In arithmetic, is when another number, called its root, can be found, which multiplied by itself, produces the square; thus 16 is the square number of 4, and 9 the square of 3.

SQUELETTE, Fr. Literally means a skeleton. It is used by the French, as by us, to signify the remnant, or incomplete state of a regiment, viz. La squelette d’un régiment, the skeleton of a regiment.

Squelette, Fr. Likewise means the skeleton state of a ship, or a ship upon the stocks, which has only her ribs and first timbers laid in. So that squelette, among the French, will apply either to the first organization or arrangement of the parts belonging to a work or establishment, before it is completed, or to the remnant of such a work or establishment, after it has been completed. In the first sense the word cadre, frame, outline, &c. bears the construction of squelette, among the French, as cadre d’un corps. When the expedition into Brittany was planned, there were several cadres of this description. They consisted of French noblemen and gentlemen who were to organize the Chouans, and to receive appointments according to their several ranks, &c. &c.

SQUIRE. An attendant on a warrior was formerly so called. See Armiger.

STABLE horse, Ind. That part of Tippoo Sultaun’s cavalry, which was best armed, accoutred, and most regularly disciplined.

STADIUM, (Stadion, Fr.) An ancient Greek long measure, containing 125 geometrical paces, or 625 Roman feet, corresponding to our furlong.—This word is formed from the Greek term, which signifies station. It is said that Hercules after running that distance at one breath, stood still. The Greeks measured all their distances by stadia. The Romans had, likewise, their stadia, derived from the Greek, by which they measured distances. The stadium at Rome contained 690 geometrical paces. Eight stadia make one Italian mile.

The Stadion, among the Greeks signified also a space of enclosed or open ground, (containing that measure,) where the public races were run.

STAFF, in military affairs, consists of a quarter-master general, adjutant-general, majors of brigade, aides-de-camp, &c. The staff properly exists only in time of war.—See Quarter-Master General, &c.

Regimental Staff, are the adjutant, quarter-master, chaplain, and surgeon, &c.

The Staff, on home service, consists in general of
One general commanding a district
One lieutenant-general.
One major-general.
One adjutant-general.
One quarter-master general.
One deputy-adjutant, and quarter-master general.
One engineer.
One assistant-adjutant, and quarter-master general.

The regulated number of aides-de-camp and brigade-majors.
One commissary general.
Deputy commissaries general, assistant commissaries general, according to circumstances.
One inspector general of hospitals.
One physician, surgeon and apothecary, mates.

The staff in India consists of a general staff, station staff, cantonment and garrison staff; and an hospital staff.

The staff in great Britain is comprehended under general staff, garrison staff, district staff, and staff belonging to the cavalry depot at Maidstone, and the general infantry one in the Isle of Wight. There is likewise an hospital staff. For an account of staffs in general, see Preface.

Staff belonging to the Army Depot, in the Isle of Wight.
One inspector-general.
One deputy do. do. do.
One assistant do. do.
One fort-major and quarter-master.
Four staff-captains.
One chief paymaster.
One deputy do. do.
One chaplain.
One principal medical officer.
One surgeon.
One assistant do. do.
One adjutant.
One assistant do. do.
One assistant quarter-master.

Fourteen inspecting field officers in England.

Four do. do. in Scotland.
Eight do. do. in Ireland.

Staff of the Army of Defence.
One inspector-general.
One deputy do. do. do.
One assistant do. do. do.
One agent general.

One deputy inspector general in Scotland.
One deputy inspector general in Ireland.

Foreign Depot at Lymington.
One commandant and inspecting field officer.

Cavalry Depot at Maidstone.
One commandant and inspecting field officer.

Staff of Command. See Battoon.

Hammer STALL. A piece of leather, which is made to cover the upper part of the lock belonging to a musquet. It is useful in wet weather.

Stamp Duties. Imposts laid upon paper that is used for legal or commercial purposes. Proceedings of courts-martial, whether copies or originals, are not chargeable with stamp-duties; not are the receipts given by officers for their respective pay or allowances.

STAND. The act of opposing; thus, troops that do not yield or give way are said to make a stand.

To STAND the enemy's fire: to remain, with steady firmness, in orderly array, without being discomposed by the shot, &c. of an opposing enemy. British troops are remarkable for their coolness on these occasions.

To STAND. To have an erect position. Every recruit should be taught to hold his body in such a manner, that he feels himself firm and steady upon whatever ground he may be placed for the purposes of exercise or parade. See Position without arms.

To STAND well under arms. To be so perfectly master of the firelock as not to be embarrassed, or to be rendered unsteady by its weight, but to be able to preserve a correct relative position of the body through all the changes of the manual and platoon, &c. and during the prescribed movements in parade and field exercises. See Position with arms.

To STAND at ease. To be allowed a certain indulgence with regard to bodily position, with or without arms. See Ease. It is likewise a word of command, as Stand at—Ease.

Stand fast. This term is frequently used as a caution to some particular part of a line, or column. In the first of the nineteen manoeuvres, for instance, the grenadiers are directed to stand fast, while the remaining companies march from their alignment to form close column behind them. When a battalion, drawn up in line, is to move forward in front of its original position from the right, left, or centre, the named division, subdivision, or section, stands fast, and the remaining ones, which have been wheeled backward into column, march towards the inward flank of the standing division, subdivision, or section. On the first of the moving bodies arriving at the inward pivot of the standing one, the latter receives the word march, and the former wheels into the ground. The rest successively do the same. By this method the leading division is spared the trouble of wheeling back and returning again to its original ground.

STANDARD
STANDARD, that which is the test or criterion of other things.

STANDARD. A measure by which men enlisted into his Majesty's service have the regulated height ascertained.

According to the Regulations and Orders published by authority, the standard for men, raised for the heavy cavalry, shall be five feet seven inches, and for the light cavalry and infantry five feet five inches; but no recruits are to be taken, even of those sizes, who exceed thirty-five years of age, or who are not stout and well made. Lads between 16 and 18 years of age, who are well limbed, and likely to grow, may be taken as low as five feet six inches for the heavy cavalry, and as low as five feet four inches for the light cavalry and infantry. In those regiments which are specially authorised to enlist boys, healthy lads, under 16 years of age, who are likely to grow, may be taken as low as five feet one inch. It will be collected, that this standard is for men enlisted during a war; when regiments are put upon a peace establishment, a higher standard is resorted to.

Thus by a letter, dated 28th January, 1802, it is directed, that the standard for the infantry of the line shall be five feet seven inches; that no man shall be enlisted who is above 25 years of age; but growing lads from 17 to 19 years of age, shall be taken as low as five feet five inches.

STANDARD, in war, a sort of banner or flag, borne as a signal for the joining together of the several troops belonging to the same body.

The standard is usually a piece of silk 1½ feet square, on which are embroidered the arms, device, or cypher, of the prince or colonel. It is fixed on a lance, eight or nine feet long, and carried in the center of the first rank of a squadron of horse, by the cornet.

STANDARDS belonging to the cavalry. Standards are posted in the following manner:

The King's, with the right squadron.
The second with the left; and the third with the center.

In advancing to the front on foot, the advanced standards and their serjeants must not slacken their pace, or deviate from right to left, as the lieutenant-colonel or leading officer may happen to do; but if he be in their way, they must call to him, because they alone regulate the march.

The standards must always be brought to the parade by a troop, viz. by the which has its private parade nearest the head-quarters. They must be accompanied by as many trumpeters as can conveniently assemble with that troop. Swords must be drawn, and the march sounded. The cornets parade, of course, with that troop to receive the standards. The standards are received by the regiment or squadron at open ranks, with swords drawn, officers saluting, and the march sounding by the remaining trumpeters. They must march off from head-quarters, and be lodged with the same form.

Royal-Standard, (Oriflamme, Fr.) A standard, carried when sovereigns accompanied their armies to battle.

Standard-Bearer, he who carries the standard; a cornet, ensign, &c.

Standard-Hill, a hill in England so called because William the Conqueror set up his standard on it, before he joined battle with Harold.

STANDING. Settled, established, not temporary.

STANDING-Army, (Armée sur pied, Fr.) An army which is quartered upon a country, and is liable to every species of duty, without any limitation being fixed to its service. The life and foot guards form a part of the standing army of Great Britain.—The militia, but not the volunteers, may be partially considered as such; the adjutant, non-commissioned officers and drummers, being in constant pay, and a third of the quota of men, together with all the officers, being called out once a year, to be exercised for 26 days.

STANDING. Rank; condition. It likewise signifies length of time. As such an officer is of very old standing in the army.

Before a subaltern can apply for a troop or company, he must have been two full years in the former capacity; and to be a field officer it is necessary, that the individual should have at least two years standing in the army; unless he has been two years captain of a troop or company, in which case, four years standing
a governor of a province, chiefly that of Holland. The author of the *Dictionnaire Militaire*, says, on this subject, that Stattholder was sometime back, (alluding to the period before the French invasion,) the name of the head of the Dutch Republic. This title or dignity had rank with that of sovereign princes, although the person invested with it, was subordinate to the United States, in the same manner as the Doge of Venice acted under the Senate. The French writer further adds, the orthography of this word is not right, although I have followed the *Dictionnaire de l'Academie Francoise.* It must both be written and pronounced Stattholder—Stadhoud. 

**STATIOUTÉRAT, Fr.** The dignity of the Stadtholder; when such was acknowledged in Holland.

**STATICS, (Statique, Fr.)** A branch of mathematics which considers weight or gravity, and the motion of bodies arising therefrom. Those who define mechanics to be the science of motion make statics a member thereof, viz. That part which considers the motions of bodies arising from gravity. Others again say, that statics should be the doctrine or theory of motion, and mechanics the application thereof to machines.

**STATION,** in geometry, a place pitched upon to make an observation, take an angle, or the like.

**STATION.** See Post.

**STATIONARIUS.** A sentinel; a garrison-soldier.

**STATORII Milites.** Stationary soldiers, or soldiers in garrison.

**STATISTICS.** According to the author of a late work, statistics are that comprehensive part of municipal philosophy, which states and defines the situation, strength, and resources of a nation. They constitute a kind of political abstract, by which the statesman may be enabled to calculate his finances, as well as guide the economy of his government; and they are equally useful in ascertaining the military resources of a country.

**STATIVA Castra.** Standing camps. The ancient Romans accustomed their troops to remain, occasionally under canvas, both in winter and summer; but these encampments were of short duration.
duration. At first they were only for a single night, and they were then named lodgments: but if they lasted several nights, they were called Stativa.

The winter camps were always better supplied with provisions, and war-like stores, than the summer ones. Whilst Rome was governed by Emperors, their armies were constantly in the field, or encamped upon the frontiers of the empire, both in peace and war. They were certainly less considerable in the first than in the latter instance, and they always remained in camp during the winter, as well as the summer months. Particular care was taken to have these camps well fortified, and abundantly provided with stores and provisions. This precaution was the more necessary, because, in those days, there were not strong places enough along the frontiers of the Roman empire, to prevent the incursions of the barbarians into the different provinces. By degrees, fortified camps grew into fortified castles and strong forts, and even into fortified towns; many of which took their names from the several legions that had been encamped upon the ground. Stativa likewise signifies, generally, quarters.

STATOR. One of the standing watch. It also signifies, among the ancient Romans, a serjeant, a messenger, or any person who was always attending about an officer, to be ready at command. The term, in some degree, corresponds with our orderly.

STATORES Pretorii. A certain description of soldiers among the ancient Romans, belonging to the Imperial guard, who always did duty at the entrance of the Pretorium, or general's pavilion.

STAVES, used in ammunition and other wagons or carts, are round and flat sticks between the sommers and side-pieces, also in common and scaling ladders.

STAYS, in truck carriages, are the irons which are fixed on one end under the fore axle-tree, and the other to the side-pieces, in the form of an S.

STECCADO, the lists, a place railed in for beholding a combat or duel. The term is Spanish.

STECCADO, in fortification, a sort of pale or fence which is raised before the trenches.

STEED, a horse either for state or war.

STEEL, particularly applied, is means weapon or armour.

STEELYARD, (Peseu, Fr.) A balance for weighing.

STEGANOGRAPHY, (Steganography, Fr.) the art of secret writing, or of writing in cyphers, known only to persons corresponding. It is much used in war.

STENOGRAPHY, (Stenography, Fr.) See Stereography.

STEP, (Pas, Fr.) progression by one removal of the foot. It likewise signifies pace.

To Step, to move forward or backward, by a single change of the place of the foot.

To Step out, to lengthen your pace.

To Step short, according to the Regulations, is to diminish or slacken your pace. On the word, step short, the foot advancing will finish its pace, and afterwards, each man will step as far as the ball of his toe, and no farther, until the word, ordinary step, or ordinary, be given, when the usual pace of 30 inches is to be taken. This step is useful when a momentary retarding of either a battalion in line, or of a division in column, shall be required. See Rules and Regulations, part I. page 11 and 12. Ditto, page 51, Sect. 40.

To Step out, according to the Regulations, is to lengthen the step to 3 inches, by leaping forward a little, but without altering the cadence. This step is necessary when a temporary exerition in line and to the front, is required; and is applied both to ordinary and quick time.

These phrases are frequently used in military movements, when it is found necessary to gain ground in front, or to give the rear of a column, &c. time to acquire its proper distance. The officer, who leads a head division, should be particularly attentive, when he is ordered to step out, or step short, especially in the different wheelings, not to lose the precise moment when either may be thought expedient; and in marching in open column, every successive officer should watch the seasonable moment, after a wheel, of preserving his relative distance.

To Step off, in a military sense, to
take a prescribed pace from a halted position, in ordinary or quick time, in conformity to some given word of command or signal.

Balancing Step, (Pas d'école, Fr.) a step so called from the body being balanced upon one leg, in order to render it firm and steady in military movements, &c. Men at the drill should be frequently exercised in this step. The manner in which it is executed is as follows:—

At the word march the left foot is advanced firmly, but without a jirk, the body is kept perfectly erect, the knee straight, the toe pointed out, the shoulders square to the front, and the whole weight of the body bearing on the right foot. Great care must be taken, that the foot is thrown straight forwards, and that the shoulders do not go with it. When the men have remained, in this position, just long enough to make them perfectly steady, the word Right must be given. Upon which the left foot is planted firm, the body quite steady, and the whole weight rests a plomb or perpendicularly upon the left foot; the right foot is, of course, advanced as the left foot was before, and so on; the feet being thrown forward, alternately, at the words Right, Left. The drill serjeant or corporal must see, that the toe of each man comes rather first to the ground, that he rests on the flat of the foot that is planted, and by no means on the heel, that both knees are straight, and that his arms are kept close to his side without constraint.

When a recruit has been rendered tolerably steady in this step, he must be made to stand on one leg, and move the other to front and rear gently; he must then bring that leg to the ground, and do the same with the other. He must be frequently practised in this until he becomes quite steady on his legs, and has acquired a free motion, from his hips, without working his body.

Deploy Step; Look Step, (Pas de manœuvre, Fr.) See Look.

The side or closing Step, (Pas de côté, ou Pas serré, Fr.) a step which is taken in order to gain ground to the right or left, without altering the front of the battalion, or of closing it to its center, whenever a chanun occurs in the line after it has wheeled from column, &c. According to the Regulations, this step is performed from the halt, in ordinary time, by the following words of command:—

Close to the Right—March, (Appuyez à la droite, Fr.)
Close to the Left—March, (Appuyez à la gauche, Fr.)

Back Step, (Pas en arrière, Fr.)—a step taken to the rear from any position without any change of aspect. According to the Regulations, the back step is performed in the ordinary time and length of pace, from the halt, on a given word of command. It will be generally recollected, that a few paces only of the back step can be necessary at a time.

Step Back, March, (En arrière, Marche, Fr.) a word of command which is given when one or more men are ordered to take the back step according to regulation.

Quick Step, (Pas accéléré, Fr.) a military step, consisting of 30 inches, (of which 108 are to be taken in a minute, making 270 feet in a minute) which constitutes what is technically called quick time in marching. According to the Regulations, the command quick—march being given with a pause between them, the word quick is to be considered as a caution, and the whole are to remain perfectly still and steady; on the word march, they step off with the left feet, keeping the body in the same posture, and the shoulders square to the front; the foot to be lifted off the ground, that it may clear any stones, or other impediments in the way, and to be thrown forward, and placed firm; the whole of the sole to touch the ground, and not the heel alone: the knees are not to be bent, neither are they to be stiffened, so as to occasion fatigue or constraint.—

These instructions can only be complied with by means of a sedulous attention not only in the instructor at the drill, but by a constant application of that solid principle which directs, that all movements of the legs should come from the haunches. The knees, indeed, must bend, and the fore parts of the feet must unavoidably be lifted, but both these natural actions may be done in so correct and quick a manner, that
they will scarcely be perceptible. The elasticity of the instep, if properly managed, will always give a firmness to the tread. The arms are to hang with ease down the outside of the thigh, and by no means to swing, backwards and forwards, like so many pendulums. A very small motion may indeed be occasionally permitted, to prevent constraint. The head is to be kept to the front, the body to be well up, and the utmost steadiness to be preserved. The quick step is the pace to be used in all filings of divisions from line into column, or from column into line; and by battalion columns of manoeuvre, when they change position, independently of each other. It may occasionally be used in the column of march of small bodies, when the route is smooth, or the ground unembarrassed, and no obstacles occur; but in the march in line of a considerable body, it is not to be required, and very seldom in a column of manoeuvre; otherwise fatigue must arise to the soldier, and more time will be lost by hurry, and inaccuracy (the natural consequence of hurry) than is attempted to be gained by quickness.—See General Rules and Regulations, part I.

Quickest Step. (Pas précipité, Fr.) a step measuring 30 inches, and of which 120, making 300 feet, may be taken in a minute.

This step is applied chiefly to the purpose of wheeling, and is the rate at which all bodies accomplish their wheels; the outward file stepping 33 inches, whether the wheel is from line into column, during the march in column, or from column into line. In this time also, and by this step, should divisions double, and move up, when they pass obstacles in line; or when in the column of march, the front of divisions is increased, or diminished.

To Step between. To interfere. To Step forth or forward. To take an active part in any thing. Thus, when the circle was formed, the grenadiers stepped forward to beg off their comrade, &c. The officers stepped forward, and remonstrated against their colonel.

Step is likewise figuratively used to signify promotion. As the next step from a lieutenantcy is a troop or company, and from that to a majority; except in the guards, who have the exclusive privilege of going over this intermediate rank, and stepping into a lieutenant-colonelcy at once.

To Step over, to rise above another. This term is generally used in a bad sense. As, young men of interest and connection frequently step over old soldiers.

Step (Echelon, Fr.) according to the Translator of Rules and Regulations for the field exercise and manoeuvres of the French Infantry, echelon means, in a figurative sense, what we understand by a step in military promotion. See Grades Militaires in the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, by A. T. Gaigne. We avail ourselves of this opportunity to recommend to the perusal of our military readers the above translation, which has been ably executed by John Macdonald, Esq. F. R. S. F. A. S.

STEPPING off to music. In stepping off to music, or to the tap of the drum, it will be recollected, that the word of command is the signal to lift up the left foot, and that it comes down, or is planted, the instant the tap is given, or the music completes its first note, so that the time must invariably be marked by the left foot, and not by the right; as has been practised by the guards and the artillery, until a recent regulation.

STÈRE, Fr. a measure for firewood, which has been adopted by the French since the revolution. The stère is equal to the cubic meter. It is used instead of the noe, and is about half of that measure. The Corde, in decimals, answers to 3.335 stères.

STEREOGRAPHY, (Stereographie, Fr.) the art of drawing the forms of solids upon a plane.

STEREOMETRY, (Stereometric, Fr.) the art of measuring, or that which teaches how to measure all sorts of solid bodies.

STEWARD, one who manages the affairs of others. In all well conducted messes belonging to military corps, certain officers are named to act as stewards, for some specific period. These act, conjointly, with the treasurer and pay-master for the good of the whole.

STICK, the same as Baton, an instrument of dignity, which is occasionally carried by persons and officers in high
high situations, particularly by such as are in waiting near the royal person.

Gold Stick, an officer of superior rank in the life guards so called, who is in immediate attendance upon the king's person. When his Majesty gives either of his regiments of life-guards to an officer, he presents him with the gold stick. The colonels of the two regiments wait alternately month and month. The one on duty is then called gold stick in waiting, and all orders relating to the life-guards are transmitted through him. During that month he commands the brigade, receives all reports, and communicates them to the king. This temporary command of the brigade does not, however, interfere with the promotions that may be going forward, as each colonel lays those of his own particular corps before his Majesty. Formerly the gold stick commanded all guards about his Majesty's person. On levees and drawing room days, he goes into the king's closet for the parole.

Silver Stick. The field-officer of the life-guards, when on duty, is so called. The silver-stick is in waiting for a week during which period all reports are made through him to the gold-stick, and orders from the gold-stick pass through him to the brigade. In the absence of the gold-stick on levees and drawing room days, he goes into the king's closet for the parole.

Stickler, a sidesman to fencers; or second to a duellist.

Stilet, Fr. See Stiletto.

Stiletto, a small dagger, with a round blade and sharp point.

Stinkpot, a firework made of offensive combustibles, which is used at sieges, &c. See Laboratory.

Stipend, (Salaire, Fr.) salary, hire, wages, pay.

Stipendiary, (Stipendiaire, Fr.) that serves a foreign power for pay. Hence, stipendiary troops.

Stipendium, wages, or pay for soldiers. This term was applied, among the ancient Romans, to the money which was paid, by way of subsistence, for military service, and which only took place in the year 347 of the Roman era. Until that period the Roman soldiers, or rather citizens, served voluntarily, and without pay; clothing and subsisting themselves until the close of the war, in which the Republic might be engaged. It was so, likewise, in the early days of Greece; among the Lacedemonians, the Athenians, and the Spartans, who never paid their soldiers except when the campaign was at a great distance from home. The pay of the foot soldier, among the Greeks and Romans, resembled, in some degree, the subsistence which is given to modern soldiers; being equally subject to deductions for arms, accoutrements, necessaries, &c. But the cavalry of the ancients was more amply supplied than that of the moderns in every respect, and better paid.

Stipendium. This word has also been used, among the ancient Romans, to signify a soldier that had served 40 years.

Stiratocracy, (Stiratocratie, Fr.) a government in which military power has the ascendency.

Stirrup, iron loops, suspended by straps, to each side of the saddle, in which the horseman sets his feet in mounting or riding.

Stoccoado, a push or thrust with a rapier.

Stole. See Order of the Stole.

Stock, the wooden part of a musquet or pistol.

Stock, (Col, Fr.) a part of an officer's dress, which consists generally of black silk or velvet, and is worn round the neck instead of a neckcloth. The soldier's stock is of black ribbed leather, and is part of his small mounting. Red stocks were formerly worn in the guards; they are still so in some Prussian regiments.

Stock Purse, (Masse, Fr.) a certain saving which is made in a corps, and which is applied to regimental purposes. In some corps this fund is so honestly managed, that, without encroaching upon the public, the most beneficial effects are produced: in others again, it is so mysteriously handled between commanding officers and paymasters, that it becomes a perpetual source of discontent and jealousy.

Stocks for building Ships. (Chantier, Fr.) Certain places, on the sides of rivers or up creeks, which are appropriated to the construction of vessels, &c.

Stomper, Fr. to sketch out a design, or to draw with colours that have been
been pounded into dust. Instead of the pencil or crayon, a roll of paper which is dipped into the coloured dust, serves to put on the different colours.

STONES, in military architecture, may be distinguished into two sorts; that is, into hard and soft: hard stone is that which is exposed to the open air, such as rocks, and which lies loose upon the surface of the earth: the soft stone is that which is found in quarries, and under ground. It is undoubtedly true that the hardest stones make the most durable works; but as there is seldom a sufficient quantity to build the whole fortification, the best serve in the facings of the building, in the foundations, and where the works are exposed to the violence of the waves.

The stones of some quarries are very soft, and easily worked, when first cut out; but when exposed for some time to the open air, become very hard and durable.

As there is undoubtedly a kind of sap in stones, as well as in timber, by which the same sort of stone, taken out of the same quarry, at one season, will moulder away in a few winters, but, when dug out in another season, will resist the weather for many ages; stones should always be dug in the spring, that they may have time to dry before the cold weather comes in; for the heat of the sun will extract the greatest part of the moisture, which otherwise expands in frosty weather, and causes the stone to splinter, although it be otherwise hard and good.

As stones lie in the quarries in horizontal beds or strata, (that is, they cleave in that direction) and have likewise a breaking vein, which is perpendicular to the former; both these directions must be observed in cleaving, as well as in raising them out of their beds. Stones that will not easily cleave must be blown up by gunpowder.

Marble, is of various sorts and colours; the most beautiful of which is exported from abroad. The marble found in England is mostly blackish, and so very hard and difficult to polish, that very little use is made of it, except to burn and make lime.

Fire-Stones come from Reygate, and serve chiefly for chimneys, hearths, ovens, furnaces, and stoves; being a dry, porous, gritty stone, which bears the heat without breaking: on account of this quality, it is called fire-stone.

Purbeck-Stone, is a hard, greyish stone, and serves chiefly for paving, coping of walls, and for all such other uses where strength is required, it being the most hard and durable stone, except the Plymouth marble. It is found on Purbeck island.

Rag-Stone, is of a bluish colour, and commonly used in paving: but there is a stone called Kentish rag, that is very useful in building: It splits very easily, and yet is very hard.

Free-Stone, more generally called Portland-stone: it is a fine whitish stone, without any veins. This stone is very soft when it comes out of the quarry, is easy to be worked, and becomes very hard in time. Hence, it is very fit for military works.

Alabaster, is a clear whitish stone, not unlike coarse marble. It is plentiful in some parts of Italy: but there is none to be found in England. It is to be had in great abundance in Scotland, and makes the very best lime.

Whin, or Aberdeen whin, is of a greyish colour, intermixed with veins, not unlike coarse marble. This stone is the fittest of any for military works: because it withstands the weather, and the violence of the waves, better than any stone found in England.

Russian Stone, commonly called Asbestos. Cloth, which is proof against fire, may be fabricated out of this stone, when decomposed. It is indigenous to Russia.

STOPPAGES, in a military sense, deductions from a soldier’s pay, the better to provide him with necessaries, &c. A soldier should never be put under a greater weekly stoppage from his pay, than what will afterwards leave him a sufficiency for messing. Since the abolition of arrears a regulation has taken place, by which soldiers are directed to be stopped one shilling and sixpence per week in the infantry, and to be accounted with on the 24th of every month. See Military Finance, pages 72 and 73.

STOPPAGE, for the subsistence of the Sick. In the Regulations for the better management of the sick in regimental hospitals, it is particularly laid down, under
under the head subsistence, page 16, that sufficient funds should be established for the support of the sick without any additional charge to government; and, at the same time, that the sick soldier should be provided with every reasonable comfort and indulgence that can be afforded. The sum of four shillings per week from the pay of each soldier will, under proper regulations, and with strict economy, be sufficient for this purpose; which sum is to be retained by the paymaster of the regiment.

The sick are to be furnished with bread made of the finest wheat flour, and fresh meat, perfectly good and wholesome.

That the greatest economy may be used in laying out the money for the sick, every article ought to be purchased by the surgeon, who is required to keep a book, in which he is to enter the amount of the weekly consumption of each man according to the diet table; and this book, with the diet table, is to be laid before the commanding officer and paymaster every week, to be examined and signed by each; and it is of the utmost importance to the welfare of his Majesty's service, that every commanding officer, and every regimental paymaster, should superintend the expenditure.

STOPPER, a piece of wood or cork, made to fit the bore of a musket barrel, which soldiers use in wet weather; and, on other occasions, when the piece is not loaded, to prevent moisture and dust from getting into the barrel.

STORE-KEEPER, in war-time, must take care of the stores in the magazines, such as the provisions, forage, &c. receive the same from contractors, and deliver them out to the troops. He has several clerks under him, appointed to the different departments, of provisions, hay, straw, oats, &c. In time of peace he has charge of all the king's stores, belonging both to land and sea-service.

STOREHOUSE. See Magazine.

Military STORES, are provisions, forage, arms, clothing, ammunition, &c. Officers, storekeepers, or commissaries, who are convicted of embezzling or misapplying any military stores, are to make good the damage, forfeit 100l.

and be cashiered.—See Mutiny Act, Sect. 65.

Medical STORES on board Transports. Certain articles of diet which are put on board each transport, are so called.—These are to be considered as intended solely for the use of the sick, or convalescents; they are to remain in the charge of the master of the transport, and only to be issued upon demand in writing, made by the surgeon from time to time as he shall judge proper; or, when there is no surgeon, upon demand of the commanding officer. And the surgeon or commanding officer is to give the master, at the end of the voyage, a certificate that his demands for the said medical stores have been made only upon proper occasions, and have not been expended for any other use, than that of the sick, or convalescent.

To STORM, (Donner·l'assaut, Fr.) in military matters, to make a violent assault on any fortified place, or works.

STORMING Party, a select body of men, consisting generally of the grenadiers, who first enter the breach, &c.

STRAGGLERS, men who wander from the line of march. It is the business of the rear guard to pick up all stragglers, &c.

STRAP, a narrow long slip of cloth or leather. It is directed, that every recruit shall, on his final approval, be provided with straps for his coat, the amount of which, namely 2s. 4d. is to be stopped out of his bounty.

STRAPONTIN, Fr. a sort of hammock which is used in hot countries, &c. See Hammock.

STRATAGEM, in war, any scheme or plan for the deceiving and surprising an army, or any body of men. See Surprise.

STRATAGEMS in war, (Stratagèmes de guerre, Fr.) certain feints which are resorted to by able generals, &c. to cover their real designs during the operations of a campaign. It is impossible to lay down any specific rules on this head, as every general, according to the capacity and activity of his mind, makes use of the various means and expedients which grow out of times, circumstances, and occasions. It has been asserted by some writers, that all sorts of stratagems, (even those which
are connected with treachery,) may be adopted for the accomplishment of any design. This maxim is, however, strongly combated against by those who have written upon the law of nations: Probity, in fact, and elevation of mind, (which are superior to the pitiful measures of treacherous affiliation or intercourse,) should always bear the ascendency in human actions. There are stratagems which may be practised and carried on, without the least deviation from honour and good faith.—Many distinguished generals have had recourse to these; but none ever succeeded so well as Hannibal. Wishing to cross the river Rhone, and being in want of almost every article, that was necessary, to effect the passage in the presence of an enemy who was diligently watching his motions, he caused him to imagine that it was his intention to keep the ground he occupied. He ordered large fires to be lighted up in different quarters of his camp, and directed some of his troops to shout and make loud noises, as if they were perfectly stationary. During this apparent state of inactivity, he broke up his camp, marched along the river side, and crossed it at a place where it was least expected he would make the attempt.

Among other good qualities, which are indispensably necessary in an able general, that of knowing how to conceal a projected march, and to anticipate the motion of an enemy, is not the least important.

The army under the command of the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, having laid siege to Brissack in 1639, the Imperialists went to the relief of that place. The Duke, on receiving intelligence of their approach, instantly marched against them, with a body of forces composed of Swedes and French allies. The Imperialists, who had advanced by rapid marches, had gained possession of an eminence, by means of which they would have enjoyed all the advantages of local superiority, had not the Count de Guébriant, who was then a lieutenant-general in the Swedish service, suggested a stratagem to dislodge the enemy. The plan was adopted, and it succeeded to the full extent of his design.

The drums and trumpets of the different corps were collected together, and stationed in a neighbouring wood so as to draw the enemy's force and attention from the quarter proposed to be carried. The Imperialists being naturally led to believe, from the novelty and concurrence of so many military instruments, that they were going to be attacked from that quarter, beat their arms, and left their position in complete order of battle. They had scarcely quitted the eminence, before the Duke of Saxe-Weimar appeared in the rear, took possession of the ground which they had so imprudently abandoned, and became master of all the advantages which his enemy would otherwise have enjoyed.—An interesting account of this ingenious manœuvre may be found in the History of Le Marchal de Guébriant.

Stratagems of this description have been frequently used by the French during the late war, particularly in Italy. Stratagems, in fact, constitute one of the principal branches of the art of war. They have been practised in ages by the most able generals, and have contributed, in a great degree, to their military reputation. Virgil, in his Aeneid, Book II. says:

Dolus an virtus, quis in hoste requirat.

The history of France abounds with instances, in which stratagems of every kind have been successfully practised. It seems the peculiar talent of the inhabitants of that country to derive advantages from well concerted feints, &c. in war, and to secure their victories more by science than by downright hardihood. Nevertheless, far be it from us to detract from the latter. Modern Frenchmen seem to have acquired, or to have had wakened in them, on shore, the courage and perseverance which are so remarkably conspicuous amongst us at sea. Perhaps it is out of the natural course of things, that they should ever reach the naval excellence by which this country is so singularly distinguished; and perhaps it is equally ordained, that we should never be the first in military knowledge. France and England unquestionably hold between them the destiny of Europe, and of the three other quarters of the globe: France, by the natural advantages of her continental position, added to a predilection for arms, which is manifest throughout her population; and England by its isolated situation,
situation, rendered, as it were, impregnable, by an innate courage, and unrivalled aptitude at sea. Time alone, and the experience of facts, must hereafter determine how far either nation will be benefited by a deviation from the primary advantages which nature furnishes to each, for the adoption of artificial means. For it must be acknowledged, that the true element, in which a Frenchman seems calculated to act, is on shore, or within the guardian range of his artillery and fire-arms; and that an Englishman, though far from being wholly out of his element on land service, is thoroughly himself at sea. From the increase of our foreign possessions, but most especially from the extent of our territories in India, and the armed state of Europe, it has been found expedient to enlarge the scale of our military establishments, in proportion to the exigencies of a very desultory service abroad, and a possible necessity at home for military operations. Without, therefore, entering into the policy of either country, we shall content ourselves with observing, that as we have an army, it behoves every efficient character belonging to that army, to obtain a thorough knowledge of his profession, and to study the nice shades of an art which, of all others, has principles that are fixed and immutable, under circumstances of the greatest apparent casualty. It has been wisely observed by a French writer, under the article of Stratagèmes de guerre, that a chief, who is defeated in a general action, will sometimes attribute his failure to fortune, although it be universally acknowledged, that chance or fortune has a very trilling share in pitched battles, while art and science regulate the different movements, and finally determine their issue. Whoever, therefore, suffers himself to be surprised by his enemy, cannot be said to stand wholly exculpated from ignorance or neglect, since it must have been in his power to have avoided the snare laid for him, by means of vigilant spies, and unremitting attention. This remark appears to us, not only to be generally correct, but it seems more immediately applicable to all generals that have secret service-money at command. The influence of that commodity, (upon which no embargo can be laid) will be felt in every garrison town, or sea-port; and those who have the management of the public purse, must be dull indeed, if they do not feel their way into the secret preparations of an enemy, before they hazard an attack against him.

Besides the different stratagems, which may be used by an able general, to bring about the overthrow of the whole or part of an army, by leading it into an ambuscade, there are various ones which may be practised against a fortified place. To effect the latter purpose, you may contrive to get soldiers, in disguise, through the gates at unguarded hours; to introduce them through subterraneous passages, or by any other means that may offer. Before any attempt of this sort is made, every part of the fortifications should be narrowly reconnoitred, and as much knowledge be obtained of the interior situation of the place as can be procured by means of good spies, or from deserters. You must, above all things, be well assured, that the garrison is relaxed in duty; that the different guards are negligently attended to; that the soldiers who compose them are in the habits of drinking or gaming; that their officers miss their rounds, or go them without system or regularity; that the gates are ill guarded, and the avenues to them ill watched; and that there are certain places, or entrances, which are not watched at all; for it is almost impossible to surprise any place, that has been regularly fortified, while the garrison does its duty.

If it should appear practicable to surprise a town, by taking advantage of the negligence of the sentries, &c. at some particular gate, previous means must be adopted to introduce some soldiers dressed like market women, or in the garb of some religious order. You may then contrive to get a wagon or cart, (seemingly loaded with hay or straw, but with soldiers concealed beneath it,) so placed in the entrance of the gate that it will serve as an obstacle when it may be found necessary to shut it. In order to do this effectually, let a pin be taken out, so that the wheel comes off, or the axle-tree gets broken. The instant this is done, the soldiers, who had entered the town in disguise, must join the drivers,
drivers, the men that have been concealed in the wagon will then leap out, and the whole must rush upon the port- guard. While this happens, the troops that have been placed in ambush round the fortifications, will advance with promptitude and firmness, and endeavour to get possession of the town before a sufficient force can be collected to repel the attack. In the year 1789 a rattle from Courtray took advantage of the carelessness of the Imperial troops, who were in garrison at Gand, in Flanders, and by seizing upon the gate and port- guard, brought about a temporary rebellion in the country. This, indeed, was done without stratagem; but the circumstance proves, that when the sentries of a fortified place are negligent in their duty, a surprise is always practicable. We are precluded, by the limits of our undertaking, from going more fully into this important branch of military science. Several treatises have been written on the subject. Among others one appeared in 1756, intituled, *Stratégies de guerre*, illustrating, from history, the various stratagems which had been practised by some of the ablest generals, during a long period of time, down to the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. It was published by M. Carlet de la Rosière; an officer in the French service, and acting engineer in the Isles of France and Bourbon. It contains much curious matter.

STRATAGEM and force united. Count Turpin, page 43, Vol. I. in his Essay on the Art of War, judiciously remarks, that when an enemy, superior in force, is in possession of a pass, from which he cannot be dissuaded but by art, stratagem and force should be blended together as often as possible. One man, the Greek general, set fire to a wood which was at the foot of a mountain in the enemy’s possession, and which he wanted to go over; the flames and smoke forced the enemy to abandon it, and leave the passage free for him.

STRATARIITHMETROMETRY. In war, the art of drawing up an army, or any part of it, in any given geometrical figure; and of expressing the number of men contained in such a figure, as they stand in order of battle, either at hand, or at any distance assigned.

STRATEGY, (Stratégie, Fr.) from the Greek *Strategos*, the art or science of military command. In a most excellent publication, entitled *Idée Raisonnée sur un Système Général de pour étudier la Science de la Guerre*, by Nockern de Schorn, we find the following explanation of this term; and as it does not exist in any of our English lexicographers, we presume the extract must be particularly gratifying to the intelligent officer. In page 198, *Trente Partie, Sixième Chapitre, Sixième Table Méthodique*, our author thus continues:—

"We are at length got to the sixth integral part of military knowledge, which is termed Strategie, or the art of knowing how to command, and how to conduct the different operations of war: the word is derived from the Greek Strategos, which signifies chief or general of the army. The term general or chief conveys the same meaning, indeed, that constitutes the word universal, and points out an officer of superior rank, whose mind is well stored with military theory, and who can practically lead into active service, all the different arms or component bodies belonging to war; such as cavalry, infantry, and artillery. This definition clearly points out the impropriety of confining the terms general, lieutenant-general, and major-general, to any particular body of armed men: for what is a general, whose skill consists in being able to manage a body of cavalry or of infantry only, without knowing how to conduct others? A general, whether he be commander in chief, or be acting in a subordinate capacity to him, ought to know cavalry, infantry, and artillery movements, and possess all the branches of military science.

Nor are these observations confined to the generals and superior officers of armies: subaltern-officers should be, more or less, versed in the science of knowing how to conduct men into action, and to combine the different operations of war; particularly so, if their natural ambition should lead them to aspire to the highest posts of military preferment.

Strategy, or the knowledge of commanding armies, may be divided into two parts; one comprehending the higher
higher, and the other embracing the lower branches of the art. The first comprehends all that a commander in chief, and all that his subordinate generals should be acquainted with; and the second, (which may also be called la petite guerre, being the diminutive of the first,) appertains to the staff, and to a certain proportion of subaltern officers.

To be adequate to a chief command, it is necessary that the person, so selected, should possess extraordinary talents, and not only be master of all the theory of war, but likewise know, from practice and experience, every species of military operation. He should in fact, to refer to one of our own articles, (vide Mind) be gifted with a military mind.

In order to obtain all that can be obtained by study, (for natural genius must supply a very large proportion,) the intelligent officer will first fix upon a distinct and clear idea of the part he means to investigate. From one idea he will gradually proceed to another; and when the whole system has thus been progressively touched upon, he will take an analytical view of the several component parts; examine them together; weigh their relative points, and then look into the different authors that have written upon this vast and complicated subject. He will peruse what relates to the first branch or la grande Strategie, in the following works:

1. Les Mémoires de Montecuculi.
2. L’Espirit de Folard.
3. Art de la Guerre, par le Maréchal de Puisegur.
5. L’Essai sur l’État de la Guerre, par Turpin.
7. Le Cours et le Traité de Tactique, par Joly de Mezeroy.
8. Théorie de la Guerre par le même.
10. L’Essai général de Tactique, par M. Guibert.

The best writings on what is called La Petite Strategie; or the inferior branches of the art of war, are


This work has been translated by Captain Otway.

2. Le Traité sur la Petite Guerre, par Grand Maison.
3. Le Partisan, par Jenney.
5. La Petite Guerre, par M. le Capt. Knock.
7. Le Chasseur à la guerre, ou du service des troupes légères.
8. Observations sur le Service de Cavalerie à la Guerre, par le Chevalier de Shônacken.

Although these celebrated writers ought to be considered by every young officer as the oracles of his profession, he must, nevertheless, guard his mind against that fatal persuasion, which might lead him into a belief, that nothing more is required than to peruse and to digest their rules and regulations. When he has made himself completely master of their thoughts, he must endeavour to identify himself, as it were, with the authors and the generals themselves. By this method he will probably hit upon some of those hidden truths in military science, from which many secondary ones are drawn; and in contemplating the commentaries, &c. of great generals, he will discover, that they knew well how to calculate dangers, to appreciate probabilities, and by occasionally deviating from ordinary rules and prescribed principles, how to move in untrodden paths, and to obtain signal advantages, where, to superficial minds, nothing but desperate hazard and destruction appeared.

STRATOGRAPHY, (Stratographie, Fr.) The description and detail of all that belongs to an army; of the dress, arms, &c. of the soldiers, and of the manner of encamping, &c. Vegetius has given the Stratography of the Romans.

STRATOR. Among the ancient Romans, Strator signified an officer, belonging to the army, whose duty was to take care of the military roads; to see that all obstacles to the ready movement
ment of troops, were taken away; to
level heights, throw bridges over rivers,
cut down woods, and to execute all
the orders which tended towards facili-
titating the march of an army.

STRAW. According to the regu-
lations, published by authority in 1799,
relative to the forage, &c. which troops
are to receive in the home encampments,
it is directed, that straw is to be allowed
at the rate of one truss of 36 pounds to
each pailasse for two men, being a full
bedding; at the expiration of sixteen
days to be refreshed with half a truss to
each pailasse; and at the expiration of
33 days to be removed, and a fresh bed-
ing of one truss is to be given, and so
on every succeeding period of sixteen
and thirty-two days.

For the sick in the hospital, the straw
is to be changed as often as it may be
deemed necessary.

Two trusses per troop or company
are to be allowed for batmen, or ser-
vants, not soldiers; and three trusses
per troop or company for the washer-
women, to be changed every sixteen
days, not having pailasses.

Thirty trusses of straw per troop, or
company, are allowed on first taking
the field for thatching the women's
huts.

Regiments, not having pailasses,
are allowed straw at the following
rates:

On taking the field, two trusses of 36
pounds each to every five men, at the
end of eight days to be refreshed by
one truss, and at the end of eight days
more to be refreshed again by the same
quantity. At the end of twenty-four
days the whole to be removed, and an
entire new bedding to be given, and
refreshed as before, viz. two trusses for
every five men.

Four pounds of straw are to be added
to the ration forage for the cavalry and
artillery horses only.

Six pounds of straw are to be al-
lowed to the general officers and staff,
in addition to the prescribed ration of
forage.

The straw which is allowed to ca-
vally regiments for the bedding of
their horses, is called long forage.

For STRAW, a word of command
to dismiss dragoons when they have
grounded their arms, so that they may
be ready on the first signal given. The
French say—à la Paille. See Paille.

STREAKS, are the iron bands on
the outside of the wheel to bind the
fellies strongly together.

STREAK' nails, are those driven
through the streaks into the fellies.

STREET. See ENCAMPMENT.

STREET-firing. See FIRING.

STRELITZ, a Russian word, whose
plural number is Strelitzy, derived from
Strelai, an arrow, in the same lan-
guage. An ancient militia, which was
formerly kept in pay among the Mus-
evites, both in time of peace and in
time of war, was so called. The men
who composed it always served on foot,
and were originally armed, as their
name indicates, with bows and arrows.
They afterwards received musquets or
firelocks, and laid aside the bow and
arrow. The rest of the Russian army,
which was only called together in cases
of emergency, retained the bows, ar-
rows, and lances; with which each
soldier armed himself according to his
own particular whim or notion.

In the remote periods of the Russian
empire, the Strelitzy were the only regu-
lar body of troops that formed any
part of the standing army of that
country. It consisted of twenty to
twenty-four thousand men, who en-
joyed a multiplicity of privileges and
immunities, and were quartered in one
of the suburbs of Moscow, which is
still called Strelitskaia Slaboda. From
the latitude allowed them, and the pe-
culiar indulgences which these soldiers
enjoyed, they might well be compared
to the Praetorian bands under the first
Roman emperors, and, in some degree,
to the Janizaries of Constantinople.
They frequently mutinied, like the lat-
ter, and interfered in the management
of public affairs. Their last revolt,
however, was fatal to them. It hap-
pened in 1698, during the absence of
the Czar Peter the First; who on his
return into Russia, broke the whole
corps, erased its name from the list of
military establishments, and put his
troops upon the same footing that those
of the rest of Europe were.

The established pay of a Strelitz was
seven rubles, and twelve comb and
bushels of corn, every year.

Corn, even in these days, is given as
a necessary
a necessary ration to a Russian soldier, which he bakes or roasts upon thin plates of iron, and then reduces to meal, making therewith a sort of dough, called Toloquena. Every man always carries a good portion of this subsistence about him, to which he adds a small crust of vinegar. By soaking this meal in water mixed with a little vinegar, he contrives to make a sort of soup or broth, which the Russians, who are fond of acids, find extremely palatable; and by giving it the consistency of dough, it serves for bread and meat. When the Russian soldier can procure a few greens, such as cubbage, &c. to mix with his toloquena, he makes a complete meal, which he calls Chety. A tcharachka, or small glass of brandy, makes up the measure of a full repast. It must be acknowledged, that where soldiers can be brought to satisfy the cravings of nature in this economical manner, great advantages must be derived, especially in long marches through an uncultivated, or desert country. We cannot, however, recommend its adoption, except in cases of urgent necessity, and on services where there might be a possibility of absolute want, from the destruction, or poverty, of a country into which an army marches. The fare itself is not calculated to add vigour and activity to the body, or to keep alive that promptitude and fire which are required in military operations.

STRENGTHIL. This word may be variously understood in military matters, viz.

Strength. Fortification; fortress; strong hold. It likewise signifies armament; power; force. In all returns which are made of corps, strength implies the number of men that are borne upon the establishment, in contradistinction to effective force, which means the number fit for service. Hence the strength of a battalion, troop, or company, &c.—The allowance for the repair of arms, &c. is issued according to the return which is made, not of the effective force, but of the established strength of a troop or company. This, however, must be considered as a trespass against public economy, and ought to be remedied on the solid principle, that they who neglect small errors, will soon fall into great faults.

STRICT, exact, severe, rigorous; the contrary to mild, indulgent. Hence a strict officer. It is sometimes used in a bad sense, to signify a petulant, troublesome commander.

To STRIKE. This word is variously used in military phraseology, viz.

To strike at. To attack; to endeavour to destroy, directly or indirectly.

To strike off. To erase; to blot out; as to strike off the list of the army. This can be done only by the king's order.

To strike a tent. In castration, to loosen the cords of a tent which has been regularly pitched, and to have it ready, in a few minutes, to throw upon a bat-horse, or baggage wagon.

To strike terror into an enemy. To cause alarm and apprehension in him; to make him dread the effects of superior skill and valour.

To strike a blow. To make some decisive effort.

To strike the colours. This is properly a naval term, but it may be applied to military matters on some occasions. Thus at the battle of Fontenoy, when the British had driven the French out of the field, Louis XV. who was upon an eminence in the neighbourhood with his guards, &c. ordered the royal standard to be struck, from a full persuasion that the day was lost.

STRIPE. Dr. Johnson calls a stripe a linear variation of colour. Regimental sword knots are directed to be made of crimson and gold in stripes.

STRUCTURE, (Structure, Fr.)—The manner in which any thing is built. Une edifice a belle structure. An edifice which is built in a handsome manner.

To STRUGGLE with or against; to make extraordinary exertions in direct contest with an enemy, or against superior forces.

STUC, Fr. Stucco. Plaster of Paris. STUCAEURS, Fr. The men employed at Stucco work.

STUCCO, a sort of fine white mortar or composition, which is made of lime mixed with pounded marble. It is used for the outward covering of all sorts of works, and when it is perfectly dry,
dry, it has the appearance of the finest polished stone.

SUB. A familiar abbreviation which is used in the British army to signify subaltern.

SUB-Brigadier, an officer in the horse-guards, who ranks as cornet.

Sub-Lieutenant, an officer in the royal regiment of artillery and fusiliers, where they have no ensigns; and is the same as second lieutenant.

SUBA, Ind. A province.

SUBADAR, Ind. The governor of a province. It likewise signifies a black officer, who ranks as captain in the company's troops; but ceases to have any command when an European officer is present.

SUBADARY, Ind. The appointment or office of a subadar.

SUBALTERNS, (Officiers subalternes, Fr.) Subaltern officers. This word is used among the French, as with us, to signify all officers of a certain inferior degree, viz. les subalternes, the subalterns.

All officers under the rank of major, technically considered, are subalterns; captains of troops and companies, in an effective battalion, under arms, are in a subaltern station, and subject to the word of command given by one person; hence subaltern,—in the same manner, that lieutenants, cornets and ensigns, are under the control of captains of troops or companies.

SUBARMALF, Fr. A thick garment or clothing, which was formerly used to secure the body from the hard and cold contact of armour.

SUBDIVISION, the parts distinguished by a second division. Thus a company divided forms two subdivisions. Whereas two companies added together make a grand division; except the flank companies, which constitute grand divisions of themselves.

SUBDUR, Ind. Chief.

SUBJECT, (Sujet, Fr.) One who lives under the dominion of another. It is only used in the first instance, as no one can be the subject of a secondary power, although he is bound to obey his orders. Thus soldiers are obliged to submit to the orders of a general, but they are not his subjects. The French make the same distinction.

SUBORDINATION. A perfect sub-

mission to the orders of superiors; a dependence which is regulated by the rights and duties of every military man from the soldier to the general. Subordination should shew the spirit of the chief in all the members; and this single idea, which is manifest to the dullest apprehension, suffices to shew its importance.—Without subordination it is impossible that a corps can support itself; that its motions can be directed, order established, or the service carried on. In effect, it is subordination that gives soul and harmony to the service: it adds strength to authority, and merit to obedience; and while it secures the efficacy of command, reflects honour upon its execution. It is subordination which prevents every disorder; and procures every advantage to an army.

SUBSIDE, Fr. See SUBSIDY.

SUBSIDIA. Among the ancient Romans, the subsidia consisted of troops, that formed a body of reserve, and remained in the rear, in order to support any part of the line that might give way. This corps was always composed of allies, or subsidiary soldiers. Their post was in the rear of the tri-rii; and until they were called into action, they sat upon the ground.

SUBSIARY Troops. Troops of one nation assisting those of another, for a given sum or subsidy.

SUBSIDY, a stipulated sum of money which one prince pays to another, with whom he has formed an alliance, for offensive or defensive purposes.

To SUBSIST, In a military sense, to give pay or allowance, &c. to soldiers; as a captain of the light company will subsist 20 men belonging to other companies, for so many days during the march. The French do not use the term in the same sense.

SUBSTANCIA des pièces, Fr. This term is used among the French to signify the pay or allowance which is given to the officer, bombardier, and men belonging to the train of artillery who serve the batteries.

SUBSTINCE, (Substance, Fr.) In a military sense this word may be divided into two sorts, viz. that species of subsistence which is found in the adjacent country: such as forage, and frequently corn that is distributed in parcels; and that which is provided at a distance.
a distance, and regularly supplied by means of a well conducted commissariat. The latter consists chiefly of meat, bread, beer, &c. To these may be added wood or coals, and straw; which are always wanted in an army. Every general will take proper precautions to have his men well supplied with these first necessities in life. A very sensible treatise has lately made its appearance in this country, respecting the system of a British commissariat staff in England; it is entitled the British Commissary.

Baron d'Espagnac has written more at large upon this important subject.—See Éléments Militaires, tom. i. page 102; and that writer's Suite de l'Éssai sur la Science de la Guerre, tom. i. page 246.

SUSTAINMENT likewise means pay or allowance.

SUBSTITUTE in the Militia. A person who voluntarily offers to serve in the room of another that has been chosen by ballot. But if afterwards he should himself be chosen by ballot, he is not exempted from serving again, as principals are, within certain restrictions. Substitutes may be provided for Quakers. Every substitute is liable to a penalty for not appearing to be sworn upon due notice being given; and every regularly enlisted soldier who shall offer to serve as a substitute in the militia, is liable to forfeit 10l. or to be imprisoned. Substitutes who desert are to serve the remainder of their term when taken.

SUBSTITUTION, Fr. an algebraical term used by the French, signifying to substitute in an equation any quantity in the room of another, which is equal to it, but which is differently expressed.

SUBTANGENT, in any curve, is the line which determines the intersection of the tangent in the axis prolonged.

SUBTENSE, (Soutendante, Fr.) a geometrical term signifying the base of an angle, that is to say, a straight line opposite to an angle, which is supposed to be drawn from the two extremes of the section that measures it. Likewise the chord of an arch; that which is extended under any thing.

SUBVERSION, (Subversion, Fr.) a state of total disorder and indiscipline; generally produced by a neglect of small faults at the beginning, and a gradual introduction of every sort of military insubordination.

SUBURBS, (Faubourgs, Fr.) buildings without the walls of a city; from the Latin Sub and Urbis.

SUCCESSION of rank, relative gradation according to the dates of commissions.

SUCCESSION of Colonels, a particular part of the official army list is so called. The dates of the several appointments are therein specified, together with the numbers and facings of the different regiments.

A Commission in Succession. A commission in which an individual has an inherent property from having purchased it, or raised men; or which, through interest, he is at liberty to sell to the best advantage, provided it does not go in the regiment; in which case no more than the king's regulation can be taken.

SUCOUR, in war. Assistance in men, stores, or ammunition.

SUD, Fr. This word is variously used by the French. It signifies, in sea language, the south wind, and the southern regions; and in an absolute sense, it means one of the four cardinal winds which blows from the south.—Hence le sud, the south wind; sud est, south east; sud ouest, south west.

SUFFISANTE, Fr. See Passerelle.

SUFFRAGES, Fr. Votes.

SUISSES, Fr. The Swiss soldiers who were in the pay of France previous to the 10th of August 1792, were generally so called. It was also a general term to signify stipendiary troops. Hence point d'argent, point de Suisses! which agrees with our cant phrase—No pay, no soldier.

SUIF, or SERIFS, Fr. This term signifies generally any regular collection and successive distribution of things.

This word was also used among the French to signify, that although an officer might be reduced or put upon half pay, he was, nevertheless, obliged to follow (être à la suite) of some given regiment, or remain stationed in some fortified place. Perhaps a regulation of this kind might be restored to with benefit
benefit to the service, as far as regards the British half-pay.

**Officiers à la Sutte**, Fr. supernumerary officers attached to a regiment, &c. during the monarchy of France, who were not required to do duty with it.

**SUIVRE**, Fr. to follow. The French say, *suivre la profession, le métier des armes*, to follow the profession or trade of arms; to embrace a military life.

**Suivez le chemin de la gloire**, Fr. to follow the path of glory.

**Sulphur**, or *brimstone*, a mineral very useful in making gunpowder and artificial fireworks.

**Sultan or Sultaun**, Ind. king. The title which was assumed by Tippoo Saib, chief of the Mysore country. Hence called Tippoo Sultaun. This term generally signifies the emperor of the Turks; but in that case it is proper to prefix the word great or grand; as most Mahometan princes, especially those of Tartary, assume the title of Sultan.

**Sultán Shirkí**, Ind. king of the East.

**Sultaunut**, Ind. the decorations or appendages annexed to royalty.

**Summary Arithmetic**, the art of finding the flowing from the fluxion.

**Summer-tree**, in architecture, a beam full of mortises for the joists to lie in.

**To Summon**, *(Sommer, Fr.)* to demand the surrender of a place. This is done either in writing, by beat of drum, or sound of trumpet: it also signifies to excite; to encourage; to call up. Thus our immortal poet exclaims:

> When the blast of war blows in our ears,

> Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood!

**Summons**, *(Sommation militaire, Fr.)* a call of authority; a citation to surrender any fortified place or body of men. In this case the governor is informed, that unless he yield before the assault is made, the inhabitants will be put to the sword, and their property given up to the plunder of the soldiers.

**Sumntcher, Ind.** a word, among others, which signifies Saturday.

**Sumooster, Ind.** the sea or main ocean.

**Sumpier Horse, (Sommier; cheval de Somme, Fr.)* a horse that carries necessary on a journey, the same as a BâІ-horse.

**Sun, Ind.** the year.

**Sunat, Ind.** did rupees, on which a discount is allowed. Hence *Sasa Rupees*.

**Sunebar, Ind.** another word for Saturday.

**Sunechur, Ind.** a word likewise meaning Saturday.

**Sunnud, Ind.** a charter, grant, or patent, from any man in authority. When it is given by the king, it obtains the appellation of *Firman*.

**Sunnud Dinanny, Ind.** a grant or instrument in writing, which entitles a person to hold land in India.

**Sunset.** See Retreat Beating.

**Sunset.** the time at which the evening gun fires, and the retreat is beat a camp, or quarters, &c. When troops are embarked on board transports, or any of his Majesty's ships, the men are ordered to parade at half an hour before sunset, quite clean as to their persons. See Regulations and Orders, page 178.

To SUP up, a term used in the British cavalry, to signify the last duty which is performed under the inspection of the quartermasters of troops when the horses are allowed to rest for the night.

**Superannuated, (Surannic, Fr.)* in a military sense, rendered unfit for service through old age. To be placed upon the superannuated list, is to be recommended to the board at Chelsea, for the purpose of being provided for on that establishment.

**Superficies, (Superfie, Fr.)* outline; exterior surface, extent without depth. The curved superficies are divided into two sorts, viz. convex and concave.

**Superintendent, (Surintendent, Fr.)* a person appointed to take charge of any particular district or department. Hence Military Superintendent.

**Superior, (Supérieur, Fr.)** that is above others in authority, dignity, power, strength, and knowledge. This term always implies some rank, title, or situation, by which one person is placed above another. In military life, as well as in every other branch of society,
rity, the individual who holds an in-
terior post or place, is bound to pay
due obedience and respect (as far as re-
gards the exercise of his duties or func-
tions), to his superior in rank. At all
times, indeed, the latter is entitled to
a certain degree of deference and at-
tention.

Superior Officer, (Officier supérieur,
Fr.) any officer of higher rank than
another, or who has priority in the
same rank, by the date of his com-
mission, &c.

Superiority, (Superiorité, Fr.)
pre-eminence, excellence above others.
Although men, in general, viewing
them abstractedly, and with regard to
legal rights, may be called, and indeed
are, equal; human nature is, neverthe-
less, so constituted, that, for the sake
of good order in civil, and good disci-
pline in military life, certain persons
must be selected out of the mass of
community, for the guidance and go-
vernment of others. Hence, the origin
of intelligent leaders. The subsequent
perversion of the principle into weak
and ignorant chiefs, who have filled the
posts of honour that ought to be occu-
pied by merit only, on no other ground
than that of hereditary claim, or pros-
tituted patronage, has frequently pro-
duced the melancholy consequences of
abrupt usurpation, or revolutionary do-
mom, in the midst of anarchy and
blood. We wish the limits, or the na-
ture of this publication, would permit
us to select what has appeared on this
chapter. We shall, however, remain
satisfied with recommending, to the pe-
rusal of those in power, the following
passage out of the Life of Gustavus
Adolphus (vide page 7, Essay on the
Military State, &c. Vol. I.) After stat-
ing the laudable methods which were
pursued by that able king, in the for-
mation of his troops, his ingenious tran-
lator thus concludes:—Hence it hap-
pened, that the loss of the command-
ing officers, in some sharp engagements,
rarely discomposed a Swedish regiment
(a thing frequent enough in other ar-
mies); for half the corps was just as
capable to take the command as those
who had given them laws. There were
but two means of advancement, seni-
ority (which was sometimes superseded)
and merit. Birth, quality, and court
friends, availed nothing; so that the
world can hardly expect to see such
another army but very seldom; an army
formed by a monarch equally brave,
moral, and religious; and nursed by
him for twenty years, with all the care
that a parent educates a single child.
The same plan was observed, more or
less, by his generals, till the conclusion
of the peace of Westphalia; and this
body of troops, from the year 1612 to
1628, had hardly ever tasted a single
month's repose. The regulations, or-
der, and discipline, of Julius Cæsar,
can bear no comparison with the cor-
rect meal enations, harmonious adjust-
ment, and religious decency, of Gus-
tavus." It is not difficult to conclude,
that the ground-work of this excellent
military superstructure, was superiority
in talents, and not mere seniority, or
rank in life.

Supernumerary, (Surnumé-
raire, Fr.) beyond a fixed or stated
number. In a strict military sense it
means the officers and non-commission-
ed officers that are attached to a regi-
ment or battalion, for the purpose of
supplying the places of such as fall in
action, and for the better management
of the rear ranks when the front is ad-
vancing, or engaged.

Supernumerary officers and non-com-
missioned officers must always divide
their ground equally in the rear of the
division they belong to, and pay the
strictest attention to the orders which are
issued for its exercise, or movement.

If an officer is killed or wounded in
action, the supernumerary officer of the
division takes the command, and so on
to the quarter-master and serjeants, &c.

To Supersede, (Remplacer, Fr.)
See To Respite.

To be Superseeded, (Etre rem-
placé, Fr.) Both these terms are used,
by the French, in the same military
sense that we adopt them, viz. to be
deprived of rank and pay for some of-
fence, and to have another put in one's
stead.

Suppléant, Fr. a substitute;
any person named to do the functions
of another.

Supplement, addition; augmenta-
tion, in case of deficiency.

Supplement, Fr. additional allow-
anee, or gratification money, given by
a Sove-
Sovereign to his officers, over and above their regular subsistence.

Supplement of an arch. In geometry or trigonometry, the number of degrees which it wants of being an entire semicircle; as complement signifies what an arch wants of being a quadrant.

Supplement d'un angle, Fr. supplement of an angle. The number of degrees which are wanting in an angle to constitute or make up two angles.

Supplement, Fr. a certain pecuniary allowance, over and above the ordinary pay or subsistence, which was given by the king to officers belonging to the old French service.

Supplementaire, (Supplément-
SUPPLEMENTARY, § taire, Fr.) additional; such as fills up what is wanting.

Supplementary Militia. See Militia.

Supply, relief of want; making up of deficiencies. A fresh supply of troops, ammunition, &c.

To Supply, to make up deficiencies; to aid; to assist; to relieve with something wanted. To fill any room made vacant. Thus covering serjeants supply the places of officers when they step out of the ranks, or are killed in action.

To Support, to aid; to assist; it likewise signifies to preserve unimpaired, viz. to support the ancient character of the corps.

Support, Fr. support. This term is used to mark any particular work by which another, that is on a larger scale, is defended and secured.

Well Supported, well aided; well assisted. It likewise signifies well kept up, as a well supported fire from the batteries, a well supported fire of musquetry.

Sur, upon, against. It is often used in the latter sense by the French, as Marcher sur une place, to march against a place.

Surapan, Ind. an honorary dress, which is given to an inferior by a superior.

Surarbitre, Fr. an umpire.

Surplombier, Fr. to slope.

Surat Haul, Ind. a state or representation of the case.

Surbate, (Surbature, Fr.) a bruise under a horse's foot, which is often occasioned by the loss of a shoe, and by his travelling too long in that state.

Suringle, (Surfaire, Fr.) a girl with which the saddle, or any other burden, is bound upon a horse.

Surety, bondsman; one that gives security for another; one that is bound for another. Every paymaster in the British service is obliged to find sureties, who bind themselves in given sums, for the security of monies entrusted to him by government.

Surface, in fortification, is the part of the side which is terminated by the flank prolonged, and the angle of the nearest bastion: the double of the line with the curtain is equal to the exterior side.

Surgeon, (Chirurgien, Fr.) a staff officer, who is chief of the medical department in each regiment, or hospital, &c.

Surgeon-General, the first or senior surgeon of the army.

Particular instructions to the regimental surgeons of the line:—

Each regimental surgeon of the line, when provided with a chest of medicines, is required half yearly to make a return to the inspector of regimental hospitals, (under cover to the secretary at war), of the medicines used by him during the preceding six months, and what remain; and this return must be accompanied by an affidavit taken before a magistrate, that none of the medicines have, to his knowledge, been converted to private purposes, or applied to any use but that of the regiment, or some other military service; for which he must produce the special orders of the commanding officer, or of the inspector of regimental hospitals.

Should a regiment of the line be placed in an unhealthy situation; or, from any prevailing disease, should the surgeon's stock of a particular medicine be exhausted before the next yearly supply becomes due, he is to apply to the inspector of regimental hospitals, (under cover to the secretary at war) for a fresh supply; the existence of such cause for the extraordinary consumption of the medicines to be certified by the commanding officer.

If a medical officer of the line desires to use a medicine not in the dispensary,
tory, he must procure it at his own expense.

Whenever wine is necessary for the sick of a regiment of the line, a return of the consumption thereof is to be made weekly to the inspector of regimental hospitals.

The medical and hospital expenses of regiments of the line, and of their respective detachments, are to be inserted in the public accounts of the respective corps.

Every regimental surgeon is to make a report to the inspector of regimental hospitals, of the situation, size, rent, &c. of the hospital he proposes to hire; and, unless on very pressing emergencies, no engagement is to be entered into without the permission of that officer, to whom is to be transmitted half-yearly, viz. June 24th, and Dec. 24th, an abstract of the regimental hospital contingent expenses, approved by the commanding officer of the regiment, accompanied with regular vouchers signed and certified by the paymaster.

When a soldier is punished, it is the duty of the regimental surgeon to attend at the execution of the sentence, and to see that the life of the culprit is not endangered by excessive rigour. He is, in fact, paramount to the commanding officer on this occasion, and ought to interfere whenever his judgment dictates. If any commanding officer should be hardy enough to continue the chastisement, in spite of the surgeon's interposition, the responsibility will then rest with him.

Assistant Surgeon, the person who acts immediately under the regimental surgeon. In the Regulations for improving the situation of regimental surgeons and mates, which took place in 1796, it is expressed, that surgeons' mates in future are to be stiled Assistant Surgeons, and to be appointed by commission from his Majesty, or by generals authorized by him. For further particulars respecting surgeons and assistant surgeons, see Military Finance.

Veterinary Surgeon. See Veterinary.

Subintendant des Fortifications, Fr. a place of great trust and considerable importance during the old French government. It was his duty to submit plans of places that were to be fortified, or of others that wanted repairing; to give in estimates of the expenses that would attend the works; and to state to the directors the degrees of skill and activity, which he had discovered in the different engineers who acted under him. He likewise communicated with the king on every weighty branch of ordnance. His allowance was fifty thousand livres per annum, out of which he gave six thousand livres, or 250l. to a first clerk, who received the like sum from the king for under clerks and stationery.

Subintendant général des poudres et saltpêtres de France, Fr. superintendant-general of the powder and saltpetre magazines of France. An appointment in the old French artillery, which was created in 1634, and paid the Paulette.

SURMENER, Fr. to founder; a term in the French manège, signifying to over-ride or over-work a horse. Hence, un cheval surmené, a jaded horse, or one so spoilt by too much work.

Les SURPENTES, Fr. the slings or straps used in the artillery.

SURPRENDRE la garnison d'une Place, Fr. to surprise the garrison of a fortified place.

To SURPRIZE, (Surprendre, Fr.) in war, to fall on an enemy unexpectedly, in marching through narrow and difficult passes, when one part has passed, so as not easily to come to the succour of the other; as in the passage of rivers, woods, enclosures, &c. A place is surprized by drums, casemates, or the issues of rivers or canals; by encumbering the bridge or gate, by waggons meeting and stopping each other; sending soldiers into the place, under pretence of being deserters, who, on entering, surprise the guard; being sustained by troops in ambush near the place, to whom they give entrance, and thereby seize it. Soldiers, dressed like peasants, merchants, Jews, priests, or women, are sometimes employed for this purpose. The enemy sometimes sends in his soldiers, as if they were yours coming from the hospitals, &c. They also dress their soldiers in your regimentals, who, presenting themselves at your gate as such, are immediately admitted, seize the guard, and become masters.
masters of the place. Sometimes houses are set on fire, and whilst the garrison comes out to extinguish it, troops who lay in ambush march in, and surprize the place. Officers, commanding guards at the principal gates, are lured out under various pretences; matters being so contrived, that a party may seize the gate in coming in with them. Sometimes an alarm is given at one side of the garrison, whilst you entersecretly at the other, which at that time is too often neglected.

**Surprizes, (Surprises, Fr.)** in a military sense, may apply either to those measures which are adopted by one army in the field to surprize another, or to those which are followed in the attack of fortified places.—The French make a distinction between *Surprises de Campagne*, and *Surprises des Places*; or the surprizes which are practised against an army in the field, and those which are executed against fortified towns or places. What has been said under the article *Stratagems of War*, will equally apply to the latter system.

When it is found expedient to attempt a surprize in the field, a sufficient number of men must be collected, for the purpose, not only of advancing with confidence against the enemy, but of being able to make good a retreat, should he prove stronger than was suspected. The troops that are selected for this duty, should be remarkable for their fidelity, and be able to undergo the greatest fatigue. Intelligent and faithful guides must be distributed among the different troops and companies, in order to keep up the continuity of the march, and to put those of the rear in the right paths, should they have deviated from the direct route, or line of march.

If the detachment or corps, that is entrusted with the secret expedition or surprize, be marched out of an entrenched camp, proper precautions must be taken, to prevent any intercourse between the enemy and persons employed to send, or give, intelligence. To do this effectually, the instant the rear guard has left the camp, the gates must be shut, and the strictest orders be issued to prevent spies, or deserters, from stealing out. Small parties of dragoons and rulemen must likewise be sent for-ward to scour the roads, and to pick up stragglers. Care is taken to have it understood by the people of the country, that these parties are detached, for no other purpose than to escort some wagons, which are expected for the use of the army, to parley, or, apparently, to execute some business that can neither create jealousy, nor give uneasiness.

About an hour after, it must be proclaimed, in and about the camp and adjacent country, that no officer, soldier, sutler, or inhabitant of the villages, &c. shall, on any account, go more than one quarter of a league from the army. Small scouring parties, with the Provost Marshal's field patrols, must be distributed beyond these limits, in order to pick up stragglers, and to search their persons lest they should be the bearers of letters, &c. A great number of small ambuscades, must be laid along the leading avenues between the enemy's camp and your own. If, notwithstanding all these precautions, you should learn, that the enemy has gained some information respecting your movement, a report must be instantly spread to make him imagine, that you have some other design in contemplation.

If, during the night, or in the course of the day, small reconnoitring parties, belonging to the enemy, should be discovered upon the road, or about it, one half of your patrol or scouring detachment, must be placed in ambush along one side of the road, in order to take them in the rear, whilst the other half attacks them in front, and by thus surrounding them, prevents any intelligence from being carried to the enemy.

When such parties consist of a regular advanced detachment from the enemy's forces, that challenges you on your approach, your out-scouts must instantly give the name of the prince or general against whose troops you are marching, or make them imagine, that you are returning from some secret expedition which had been undertaken in his favour, or that you came out of a neighbouring state which is in alliance with him. As you draw near, proper measures must be adopted to get upon its flanks; so as ultimately to surround the whole guard, and to prevent any ino-
information from being forwarded to
the main body of the enemy. This
operation cannot fail of success, if you
act with promptitude; and most espe-
cially, if you can get possession of
the enemy's watchword, or counter-
sign.

Such are the leading precautions to
be observed at the first outset of an
army, whose design is to surprize its
enemy.—But these are not all. A per-
fected knowledge of his position must
have been likewise acquired; correct
descriptions of all the posts and sta-
tions, local as well as artificial advan-
tages, must likewise have been given
in, with a specific account of the
bridges, fords, &c. the state of his
provisions, and of the general's head-
quaters.

If it be your design to surprize any
strong holds, or particular posts, to fail
suddenly upon some detached general's
command, or to carry the head quarters
themselves, you must be made thor-
oughly acquainted with all the intrica-
cies of ground about them, with the
number of men which may be opposed
against you; and, when you have
gained the necessary information re-
specting these matters, particularly the
latter, you must assemble a body of
active and zealous troops, whose num-
ber shall be one-third at least greater
than that of the enemy, to execute your
plan.

When your project has been com-
pleted, you must call your men together.
For in all expeditions of this sort, desul-
tory operations are unavoidably neces-
sary, and the troops employed upon
them, must be dispersed. Should any
be found absent at the roll-calling of
the different companies or detachments,
it may reasonably be presumed, that
they are engaged in pillaging the place
they entered. In which case, you must
set fire to the houses, if you cannot
withdraw the free-booters by any other
method.—Strict orders should be given
out, that no soldier, or follower of the
army shall move before the detach-
ment returns to the main body, after
having effected the surprize, or remain
behind when it marches off. It fre-
quently happens, that a few irregular
soldiers, &c. will avail themselves of
the confusion of the moment, to con-
cel the property that may have fallen
into the hands of the detachment, and
thereby to avoid sharing it with their
comrades. Patroles must be sent out
of the camp, and be posted along the
road or roads, that lead to the place
which has been surprized, and strict in-
juctions to stop all stragglers; and the
quarter and rear guards of the camp
itself must see, that none enter before
the detachment is regularly marched in.

When any are found guilty of this un-
military practice, they must not only
be stripped of their booty, but they
must also be severely punished, for the
sake of example. If there should not
be a sufficient number of wagons to
bring off the wounded, the cavalry must
dismount, and the wounded be put
upon their horses. But if it be found
expedient to make use of the horse,
you must then convey the disabled in
the best manner you can, by taking all
the horses, &c. which may have been
found in the place you have surprized.

After a surprize has been accom-
plished, the troops, employed upon that
service, must, if possible, be marched
back to head-quarters, by a different
road to the one they took in advancing
against the enemy. For it would be
extremely impolitic to expose them,
even though their number were a third
greater than that of the enemy, to a
second action; under the manifest dis-
advantages of being fatigued with the
march, and the attack they had just
made, and of being encumbered with the
booty, &c. of the place they had
surprized. Their retreat must be ef-
tected through the shortest way back.
But if there should be the least ground
to apprehend, that any attempt might
be made by the enemy to cut them off,
the first movement must be upon the
same road they cause; and when night
approaches, the troops must be sud-
denly countermarched, in order to take
a different road, and to avoid any am-
bush that might be laid by the enemy.

Under these circumstances, every
measure must be embraced to deceive
the enemy. Some prisoners may be
suffered to escape, before the troops
have been countermarched, in order to
give false information; some mules or
horses may be left on the road, and
small parties of drummers, &c. be de-
tached.
tached forward to keep beating along the first road, as if the whole body were marching that way.—Fires may also be lighted by patrols sent forward for the purpose. Among other means, which may be resorted to, to induce the enemy to believe that the original line of march has been continued, that of sending horses and men forward to mislead them by their footsteps is not the worst imagined.

It is more than probable, that if the retreat be made during the night, and through an enclosed or intersected country, the enemy will scarcely run the risk of pursuing, lest ambuscades should be formed to surprize him on his march.

If, notwithstanding all your precautions, the enemy should get intelligence of what has happened, and in consequence thereof he should have time to collect his forces together in order to attack you in your retreat; under these circumstances, a position must be taken that is best suited to the kind of troops you have with you, and to their effective number.

If there be a ford, a bridge, or a defile, near to the ground you have taken up, which the enemy must unavoidably pass, the greatest expedition must be made to get beyond the obstacle, so as to have it securely in your rear. Should the obstacle be upon either of your flanks, a detachment must be posted there to keep the enemy in check, while your main body continues on its march. If you cannot conveniently send forward your booty, for fear of weakening your forces, it must be placed in such a manner, as not to be in the way when you find it necessary to engage the enemy.

As soon as the enemy approaches, the whole body must be halted, and the proper dispositions be made for battle. The guard that is entrusted with the care of the prisoners, must instantly strip them of their swords, bayonets, and of every offensive weapon, (supposing them to have had permission to wear them,) and must order them to sit down, threatening to shoot, or cut down the first man that should presume to stir. On this account, the men who compose the guard, should always be ready to do their duty upon the least symptom of irregularity. A small cavalry detachment is usually employed upon this service, as it would not be in the power of the infantry to act with so much promptitude and activity. Before the troops are ranged in order of battle, directions must be given for every soldier to take off his knapsack, or haversack; for if the men were allowed to retain this load of baggage and booty, it would not be in their power to act.

History furnishes us with various instances, in which fortified places, strong holds, and gates, have been surprized. There are others again in which surprizes have been practiced with success by means of spies, and of secret intercourse with one or more of the party against whom you are engaged. In 1707, several Miquelets disguised themselves as peasants, entered Balvastro, and remained concealed in the houses of some of the inhabitants, who supplied them with arms to enable them to attack the gate of Monsons, in order to co-operate with a detachment which was advancing towards that quarter for the purpose of surprizing the place. But they did not succeed; for two regiments, which lay in the town, to guard the hospitals and magazines belonging to the army, instantly flew to arms, marched against the detachment, and forced them to retreat. Had the latter been superior in force, it is more than probable, that the stratagem, used by the Miquelets, and seconded by the treachery of the inhabitants, would have amply succeeded.—In 1580 Count Egmont surprized Courtray, by ordering a number of determined good soldiers to get into the town à la débandade, and to remain concealed in the houses of the Roman Catholics.—See Stratagèmes de guerre, Page 164, &c. &c.

For various interesting particulars which regard the article we have been cursorily discussing, we refer our reader to La Suite de l'Essai sur la science de la guerre, tom. iii. page 259; and tom. iv. page 97. Likewise Les Œuvres Militaires, tom. ii. p. 69; and to the Stratagèmes de guerre, page 173.

To prevent a surprize. Turpin in his Art of War observes, that it is not sufficient for the security of the quarters, that they are well distributed, that the guards
guards of horse are posted on the outside, and guards of foot on the inside, and that patrols also are added to them; detachments must likewise be sent out in advance of the guards, in order to make discoveries.

A quarter should never be imagined to be totally secure, whilst, there are only guards before it; it would not be difficult for the enemy to come close up to them, particularly if the country is enclosed, either during the day or night; and if it is an open country, in the night time only.

Detachments, in advance of the quarters, are absolutely necessary, even when there are guards; they should be increased, according to the number of the troops, and in proportion to the extent of country to be guarded.

These detachments should march separately in the front, and they should occupy as much country as possible upon the flanks; they must march upon the roads leading to the enemy. In the day time, they must scour the hedges, thicket, and woods, the villages, the hollows, and every sort of place that may serve for an ambuscade: in the night time, they must draw near the quarter, and remain at the distance of at least four hundred paces, and even further, if the country is open.

In the night, detachments must march very leisurely, not advancing, but crossing each other; and beside the word given out in orders, they will have another particular one to recognize each other. Every now and then, they must stop and listen, in order to discover, whether they can hear anything. The officers commanding the detachments, should avoid fighting till the last extremity; they should constantly bear in mind, that the sole purpose of their being ordered to advance, is to preserve the quarters from a surprise.

These detachments should not continue out above six or eight hours, and consequently should never dismount. If there are any hussars in the quarters, they should be employed in these detachments preferably to any other troops, as they are better calculated to scour a country than cavalry, or even dragoons: their horses being more in wind, and less liable to be fatigued. It is, besides, the sort of war which is natural to hussars.

As soon as these detachments are returned, others should be sent out for the same purpose; as the quarters should never be uncovered in front. If these detachments hear any thing in the night, the commanding officer should send to discover what it is, and must afterwards convince himself of the truth of it; if it should be occasioned by troops, he will directly send an hussar to the commanding officer of one of the guards, if there are any in the front of the quarters; but if not, then to the commandant of the first quarter, who will apprise the general. He must conceal himself in some place, from whence, without being discovered, he will with greater ease be able to form a judgment of what is marching towards him; and when he shall be more confirmed that they are enemies, he will send a second hussar to give notice to the first post, who will inform the general; and will always continue to observe their motions by marching either on their flank, or before them. See page 36, &c. of Turpin's Art of War, vol. II.

For some very sensible observations respecting surprizes, see Hints to Non-Commissioned Officers on Actual Service, compiled and translated by Colonel Sontag, page 68.

To SURRENDER, (Rendre, Fr.) to give up a town, post, or other fortification, agreeably to articles, &c.

To SURRENDER, (Se Rendre, Fr.) to lay down your arms, and give yourself up as prisoner of war.

SURRENDER, (Reddition, Fr.) the act of giving up; as the surrender of a town or garrison.

To SURROUND, in fortification, to invest. In tactics, to outflank and cut off the means of retreating.

SURROUNDED, inclosed; invested.

A town is said to be surrounded when its principal outlets are blocked up; and an army, when its flanks are turned, and its retreat out off.

SUR-SOLID, the fourth multiplication, or power, of any number whatever taken as the root.

SURTOUT, Fr. This term is used by the French, to express the elevation of the parapet, and of the rampart, which is made at all the angles of a fortified town or place, in order to protect the garrison from outblades and ricochet firings.
SURVEILLANCE, Fr. inspection; superintendence; the act of watching. The substantive is new among the French, and comes from Surveiller, to watch.

SURVEY. A survey is an examination of any place or stores, &c. to ascertain their fitness for the purposes of war, &c.

SURVEYING, in military mathematics, the art or act of measuring lands; that is, of taking the dimensions of any tract of ground, laying down the same in a map or drawing, and finding the content or area thereof.

Surveying, called also geodesia, is a very ancient art; it is even held to have been the first, or primitive, part of geometry, and that which gave occasion to, and laid the foundation of, all the rest.

Surveying consists of three parts: the first is the taking of the necessary measures, and making the most necessary observations, on the ground itself; the second is, the laying down of these measures and observations on paper; and the third, the finding the area, or quantity, of ground there laid down. The first is what we properly call surveying; the second we call plotting, protracting, or mapping; and the third casting up.

The first, again, consists of two parts, viz. the making of observations for the angles, and the taking of measures for the distances. The former of these is performed by some one or other of the following instruments, viz. the theodolite, circumferenter, semi-circle, plain table, or compass. The latter is performed by means either of the chain, or perambulator.

The second branch of surveying is performed by means of the protractor, and plotting scale. The third, by reducing the several divisions, inclosures, &c. into triangles, squares, trapeziums, paralelograms, &c. but especially triangles; and finding the areas or contents of these several figures. See Love’s Geodesia; and Wyld’s Practical Surveyor.

SURVEYOR of the Ordnance. See ORNANCE.

SUBANDE, Fr. the iron band or plate which covers the trunnion belonging to a piece or ordnance, or to a mortar, when either is fixed upon a carriage.

SUSCITER, Fr. to excite; to encourage persons to rise. This frequently happens between neighbours, princes.

SUSPECT, Fr. A term adopted by the modern French, to signify a person suspected of being an enemy or indifferent to the cause of the Revolution.—Hence, Classe des Suspects. The list of the suspected.—Réputé respect, Fr. Looked upon as a suspected person.

To SUSPEND, (suspendre, Fr.) is a military sense to delay, to protract. Hence to suspend hostilities. It is likewise used to express the act of approving an officer of rank and pay, in consequence of some offence. This sometimes happens by the sentence of a general court-martial, or by the summary order of his Majesty through the commander in chief. In both cases, it is usual for the commanding officer of the regiment to report him to the general of the district, by whom he is then reported to the commander in chief through the adjutant-general. He is then directed, by letter to the commanding officer of the regiment, to be suspended agreeably to the nature of the transgression. In a trifling case, he is only suspended from pay, and is suspended accordingly upon the next muster roll, for the government of the regimental agent. But when the offence is aggravated by palpable neglect, or obstinacy in not sending a satisfactory reason for his absence, (which can only be done by vouchers from the Medical Board, &c.) he is suspended from both rank and pay. So that to be suspended is either partially or generally to be deprived of the advantages of a military appointment.

To SUSPEND hostilities, to cease attacking one another.

SUSPENSION of Arms, a short truce which contending parties agree on, in order to bury their dead, without danger, or molestation; to wait for succours; or to receive instructions from a superior authority.

Suspension, as a military punishment, was probably intended to operate as pecuniary fine does in that of the common law; but (to use Mr. Sullivan’s
livian's words, in his Treatise on Martial Law) it can neither be considered as deprivation, or degradation. It does not divest an officer of his military character, though it puts him under a temporary incapacity to exercise the duties of his station: he still possesses his rank, though he does not reap any immediate advantage from it. In fact, may be looked upon, and considered, as borrowed from the ecclesiastical system of jurisdiction, which admitted suspension as a minor excommunication.

One stubborn difficulty, however, seems to present itself from suspension, and that is the article of pay and allowance. For if an officer shall have been suspended from the exercise of the authority annexed to his rank, and to have the pay of his allowance also suspended, he certainly seems warranted to plead such suspension in bar to the proceedings of a court-martial; there being always an implied contract, between a soldier and his employer, that in consideration of certain pay and advantages granted by the one, the other shall submit to military discipline; and the obligation being mutual, when one fails in the performance of his part, he frees the other from the observance of his; therefore, when the pay, and other advantages, are suspended by the employer, the subjection to military discipline would seem also suspended. But this difficulty is easily removed, from the circumstances of the officer so suspended, still holding his commission; and from his submitting himself to the punishment which hath been inflicted on his transgression. The latitude of this principle hath even been seen to go farther, and under the sanction of such authority, that (since his Majesty hath been graciously pleased to direct, in cases of doubt, members of a court-martial shall be guided by their consciences, the best of their understandings, and the custom of war in the like cases) it may be said to establish a precedent, which may with safety be appealed to. We here allude to the trial of Lord George Sackville, who, at the time he was put upon the judgment of a general court-martial, had (so dear are the honour and reputation of a soldier) neither military employ nor commission under his Majesty; and yet he was deemed entitled to an awful and solemn investigation of his conduct; application, indeed, having been previously made in his name, and he having declared himself willing to abide by the decision of the court. In a word, then, it may, without risking too much, be asserted, that an officer under suspension, may be considered strictly amenable to martial law for any trespass, or transgression, he shall commit. The same writer observes, in a preceding page, that suspension is a specific punishment for a specific crime; but it is a punishment which does not free a man from his military obligations. On the contrary, he is still considered as in the service; he holds his commission, and at the expiration of the term of suspension, becomes a perfect man again. If, therefore, during the continuance of this chastisement, he should attempt to go over to the enemy, to desert, or hold reasonable correspondence, he certainly is, in such cases, to be dealt with according to martial law.—Pages 86, 87, and 88, Thoughts on Martial Law.

The late Mr. Tytler, deputy judge advocate of North Britain, who has published an Essay on Military Law, quotes the case of Lord George Sackville, when he treats of officers under suspension; and agrees in every point with the author just referred to. Suspension, he observes, though it has the effect of depriving an officer, for the time, of his rank and pay, and putting a stop to the ordinary discharge of his military duties, does not void his commission, annihilate the military character, or dissolve that connection which exists between him and the sovereign, of whom he is a servant. He retains his commission, and is, at all times, liable to a call to duty, which would take off the suspension. See Essay on Military Law, pages 131, 132.

Suspension of parliamentary privilege. This can only be considered, in a military point of view, as affecting such officers, who, being members of parliament, are entrusted with any specific appointment in the army, and thereby make themselves liable to the Mutiny Act, or Articles of War. We have had an instance, during the late war, of a militia colonel, (who was a member of the house of commons) having been put in arrest, tried before a general court-martial, cashiered in consequence
consequence of gross offences and misdemeanours, and afterwards expelled the house, in consequence of military delinquency. We do not hesitate to say, from the character of the culprit, that if the privilege of parliament could have been taken advantage of, it would have been by him.—Mr. Tytler, however, does not speak so positively as we could wish on this important question; for important it certainly is, when we reflect, that there is scarcely a general of a district, or colonel of a militia corps, but might avail himself of this privilege; since the majority of them are members of parliament. It is, indeed, within the personal knowledge and recollection of the compiler of this dictionary, that all the field officers and one captain of a company, in a militia regiment, belonged to the Lords or Commons.

Mr. Tytler, page 129 and 130, writes in the following manner; "It has been questioned, whether the privilege of parliament prevents any officer, who is a member of either house of parliament, from being put under arrest by his general, or tried by a court-martial. This is a subject of difficult discussion. If the privileges of parliament were to be considered only in the light of immunities, or benefits, personal to the individual who claims them, it might, with some reason, be argued, that a member of parliament, by the acceptance of a military commission, subjects himself, in all respects, to the operation of the military law, and renounces his privilege of freedom from personal arrest; as every person is competent to renounce a benefit granted in favour of himself. But the privileges of parliament belong to the parliament as a body, and their dignity and independence, being interested in maintaining them inviolate, it would thence seem to follow, that no individual member has a right to renounce any of those privileges, without consent of the whole body of which he is a part. General utility, however, demands, that the ordinary course of justice should not be impeded in the prosecution of crimes; and therefore it is an understood point of law, that the privilege of parliament does not protect from arrests in cases of treason, felony, or breach of the peace. With respect to military crimes, the political expediency demands, that the course of justice should not be obstructed: but as the law has not expressly warranted the suspension of parliamentary privilege, in such cases, the safest course seems to be, that previously to the arrest of any member, in order to try him for a military crime, notice should be given to the house of which he is a member, with a request, that, for the sake of public justice, they should consent to renounce the privilege in that instance, in so far as the body of parliament is concerned; as the individual member is understood to have renounced it for himself, by the acceptance of a military commission."

The method which is here proposed, though perfectly consonant to the usual proceedings in civil cases, and full of deference to the legislative body of the country, would be attended with innumerable inconveniences in military matters. The service would be exposed to perpetual interruptions, most especially as it would be necessary to make a motion in parliament, every time it should be found expedient to put a privileged officer in arrest. The learned advocate besides, did not probably recollect, that the most active period of military service in England, except in cases of actual invasion, or insurrection, occurs at a time when parliament is not sitting: so that the very object, for which he contends, would be lost by the course of justice being considerably impeded. It must be manifest to every thinking man, that military service is of such prompt imperious nature, as not to bear the most trifling suspension, or interruption, in the exercise of its duties. Though, in one sense, the military be subject to the civil power, according to the principles of the constitution, in every other it ought to be paramount to extraneous authority; and one simple question would shew the impolicy not to say the absurdity of such an interruption. A member of parliament, who claims his privilege whilst he is an officer, is, in fact, like the man who would, but cannot, serve two masters at once.

To SUSTAIN. To sustain is to aid, succour, or support, any body of men in action, or defence.

SUTLER and Victualler may be considered synonimous terms as far as they
they relate to military matters; most especially when an army lies encamped, or rather takes the field. A sutler may be considered as one who follows the camp; and sells all sorts of provisions to the soldiers. There are also sutlers in garrison towns, who serve the soldiers, and are subject to military regulations.

Among the French, according to the present establishment of their army, a sutler is a soldier or inferior officer, who is authorised to follow head-quarters, and to be constantly with the corps to which he is attached. He is permitted to sell the necessaries of life to the soldiers, and, under certain restrictions, to deal in wines and spirituous liquors.

The sutlers are usually chosen from the regiments to which they belong, and are subordinate to the quarter-masters, after they have been appointed by the regimental committee, or council of administration. They receive a licence enabling them to sell and buy, which licence must be approved of by the chief of the état major or staff of the division, in which the corps is stationed, or under which it acts.

The sutlers, attending head-quarters, are licensed by the quarter-master general. In order to distinguish them from adventitious travellers or pedlars, &c. it is wisely recommended by Paul Thibault, (author of a treatise upon the duties of an état major, or general staff), that they should have a particular number, which is to be engraved upon a tin plate, and constantly worn by them, as a mark of their being licensed by the quarter-master general.

When an army moves, the sutlers accompany the baggage. As many irregularities must naturally grow out of this necessary evil, the conduct of sutlers ought, at all times, to be narrowly watched, and severe penalties to be announced, in general orders, for every instance of unlawful depredation among the inhabitants, or of disorder in their booths. It is the duty of the piquet, at night, to be particularly watchful on this ground.

SUTURE. A manner of sewing or stitching, particularly of stitching wounds.

SWALLOWS-tail. In fortification, as out-work, differing from a single

tenaille, as its sides are not parallel, like those of a tenaille; but if prolonged, would meet and form an angle on the middle of the curtain; and its head, or front, composed of faces, forming a re-entering angle. This work is extraordinarily well flanked, and defended by the works of the place, which discover all the length of its long sides, &c.

SWAMMIES, Ind. Pagan gods or idols.

SWAMP. See Marsh.

SWAY, the swing or sweep of a weapon. Likewise power, as military sway.

SWEEP-bar, of a wagon, is that which is fixed on the hind part of the fore guide, and passes under the hind pole, which slides upon it.

SWEEPING. A word which is peculiarly attached to one of the sections, or clauses, in the Articles of War, namely, the 24th. Hence Sweeping Clause.

Sweeping Clause or Section. This comprehensive clause states, that all crimes, not capital, and all disorders and neglects, which officers and soldiers may be guilty of, to the prejudice of good order and military discipline, though not specified in any of the foregoing rules and articles, are to be taken cognizance of by a general, or regimental, court-martial, according to the nature and degree of the offence, and to be punished at their discretion.

This wisely imagined clause serves as a check to the pultry tricks and subterfuges, which are sometimes resorted to by men who are not thoroughly soldiers. It frequently happens, even among officers, that the service is hurt and embarrassed by the ingenuity of evasive characters, who think they are safe, provided they do not glaringly transgress specific rules and regulations. Another advantage is likewise derived from this clause: It enables officers, at a court-martial, in cases where the offence is manifestly felt but cannot be brought under any specific article, to do justice to the service, by punishing the delinquent under as indisputable clause.

SWIMMING. In addition to what we have offered under the article Nata-

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tion,
tion, the following authenticated facts cannot be deemed superfluous.

In 1757, (when General Keith retreated out of Bohemia), among the Austrian irregulars, or fri-corps, which incommode the movements of our troops in their march, there was a party of Croats, who (with more courage than prudence, putting their arms in three small boats) threw themselves into the Elbe, near Ister, and swam across that river, in order to intercept a small body of Prussians who were escorting the baggage. The Life of Gustavus Adolphus, Vol. II. page 204.

Flavius Vegetius, lib. I. cap. 10. De Re Miliari, speaks in the following terms respecting the necessity of having soldiers regularly taught to swim.—

*Natandi usum, est accius mensibus, omnibus equitibus debet tyro condiscere; non enim pontibus semper fluminia transcurrar, sed, et sedens et insequens, natural cogitare frequentare exercitum. Sope repentinum imbrivas, vel nives, solent eundarem torrentes, et ignorantia nos soluti ab hoste, sed etiam ab ipsis aquis, discrimen incurrat: ideoque Romanis veteres, quos tot bella et continuata periculo, ad omnem recte militar is erudierunt armem, Campum Maritimum, vicinum Tyberi delegavunt: in quo juventus, post exercitium armorum, sudorem, pulseremque dixeret, ac lassitudinem cursus, natandis labor deponeret. Non solum autem pedites sed et equites, ipsoque equo, ad natandum exercer e percommodum est, ne quid imperitis, cum necessitas incumbat, avniat. Page 10, Editio Lugduni Batavorum.*

"Every young man ought to be practised in the art of swimming, during the summer months; for there are not always bridges ready to cross rivers upon; but an army, whether stationary or moving, is often under the necessity of swimming. Sudden inundations frequently happen, through a heavy fall of rain or snow; and a want of knowledge in swimming, not only exposes the ignorant man to imminent danger from the enemy, but also from the waters themselves. On this account, the old Romans (who, from the experience of so many wars, and such continued dangers, had become perfect masters of the military art) had their field of Mars near the banks of the river Tiber; where the youth of the Capital, after having been practised with arms, might wash off the sweat and dust, and get relieved from their fatigue by the exercise of swimming. It is not only proper and advantageous that foot soldiers, but also that the cavalry, and the horses themselves, should be taught to swim, lest, in cases of necessity, something hazardous should happen to the inexpert."

In addition to this established authority, we think it right to give the following particulars out of a small tract lately published, and attributed to the celebrated Dr. Franklin.

"1. That though the legs, arms, and head, of a human body, being solid parts, are specifically something heavier than fresh water, yet the trunk, particularly the upper part, from its hollowness, is so much lighter than water, so that the whole of the body, taken together, is too light to sink wholly under water, but some part will remain above, until the lungs become filled with water; which happens from drawing water into them instead of air, when a person, in the fright, attempts breathing while the mouth and nostrils are under water.

"2. That the legs and arms are specifically lighter than salt-water, and will be supported by it, so that a human body would not sink in salt-water, though the lungs were filled as above, but from the greater specific gravity of the head.

"3. That therefore a person throwing himself on his back in salt-water, and extending his arms, may easily be so as to keep his mouth and nostrils free for breathing; and, by a small motion of his hands, may prevent turning, if he should perceive any tendency to it.

"4. That in fresh water, if a man throws himself on his back, near the surface, he cannot long continue in that situation, but by proper action of his hands, on the water. If he uses no such action, the legs and lower part of the body will gradually sink till he comes into an upright position, in which he will continue suspended, the hollow of the breast keeping the head uppermost.

"5. But if in this erect position, the head is kept upright above the shoulders,
orders, as when we stand on the ground, the immersion will, by the weight of that part of the head that is out of water, reach above the mouth and nostrils, perhaps a little above the eyes, so that a man cannot long remain suspended in water with his head in that position.

4. The body continuing suspended as before, and upright, if the head be leaned quite back, so that the face looks upwards, all the back part of the head being then under water, and its weight consequently in a great measure supported by it, the face will remain above water quite free for breathing, will rise an inch higher every inspiration, and sink as much every expiration, but never so low as that the water may come over the mouth.

7. If therefore a person, unacquainted with swimming, and falling accidentally into the water, could have presence of mind sufficient to avoid struggling and plunging, and to let the body take this natural position, he might continue long safe from drowning, till perhaps help would come. For as to the clothes, their additional weight while immersed is very inconsiderable, the water supporting it; though when he comes out of the water, he would find them very heavy indeed.

But, as I said before, I would not advise you, or any one, to depend on having this presence of mind on such an occasion, but learn fairly to swim; as I wish all men were taught to do in their youth; they would, on many occasions, be the safer for having that skill, and, on many more, the happier, as free from painful apprehensions of danger; to say nothing of the enjoyment in so delightful and wholesome an exercise. Soldiers particularly should, methinks, all be taught to swim; it might be of frequent use either in surprising an enemy, or saving themselves. And if I had now boys to educate, I should prefer those schools (other things being equal) where an opportunity was afforded, for acquiring so advantageous an art, which, once learnt, is never forgotten.

To SWINDLE, (escroquer, Fr.) a can word, signifying to cheat; to impose upon the credulity of mankind, and thereby defraud the unwary, by false pretences, fictitious assumptions, &c. This criminal and unmanly practice often times proves successful under the garb of a military dress and character, and sometimes under that of holy orders. The records of Bow-street are filled with pseudo-majors, captains, parasos, &c.

SWINDLER, (Escroc, Fr.) a sharper; a cheat. This word is evidently taken from the German Schwindler, which, we presume, comes from Schwindel, giddiness of thought; giddy pate. See J. J. Eschenburg’s English and German Dictionary, part II. page 197. With us, however, it signifies a person who is more than thoughtless or giddy. We affix to the term the character of premeditated imposition; so that a swindler comes under the criminal code, and may be prosecuted accordingly. Swindlers almost always assume a military name. Perhaps the army might, in some degree, be rescued from these pretenders, were it ordered, that no officer shall appear with any military badge unless he be regimentally dressed; and that when so dressed, he shall have the number of his regiment marked upon the button of his hat, &c.

SWING-tree of a wagon. The bar placed across the foreguide, to which the traces are fastened.

SWIPE, (Bascule, Fr.) an engine which is used to draw up water; also that part of a drawbridge on which it is swung; it likewise serves to throw grenades.

SWIVEL, (Pierrier, Fr.) a small piece of ordnance which turns on a pivot or swivel.

SWIVES, (Tourniquets de fer, Fr.) commonly called Loop and Swivel, and Guard and Swivel; two iron rings attached to a musquet, through which the sling passes.

SWOARD, a weapon used either in cutting, or thrusting. The usual weapon of fights hand to hand. It also signifies, figuratively, destruction by war; as by fire and sword; à feu et à sang, Fr.

Broad Sword, an original weapon of Scotland: it is sometimes called a Back Sword, as having but one edge: it is basket-handled, and three feet two inches long.

Regula.
Regulation Sword, (Epée d'ordonnance, Fr.) a sword which is ordered to be worn by officers throughout the British service. The price of such a sword, with a spring shell and embossed blade, amounts to three guineas.

The sword, which is worn by British officers, may be properly called a long cut and thrust.—It is a manifest imitation of the Austrian sword, and has been introduced this war. It is not, however, so conveniently used by us as it is by the Austrians.—The latter have it girted round their waists, so that it hangs, without any embarrassment to the wearer, close to the left hip or thigh; whereas with us, it is suspended in an awkward diagonal manner from a cross belt over the loins, and is scarcely visible in front, except occasionally, when it is drawn, or gets between the officer's legs, and sometimes trips him up, when off duty. We could exemplify our ideas upon this subject by various known occurrences, such as the sword being suspended so much out of the grasp of the wearer, that his right hand has appeared to run after the hilt, which has as constantly evaded its reach by the left side bearing it off, in proportion as the right turned towards it: by officers being reduced to the necessity of applying to their serjeants, &c. to draw their swords; but it is not our wish to turn any regulation into ridicule.—It is, however, our duty, and the duty of all men who write for the public, to point out practical inconveniences, &c. Perhaps it may not be thought superfluous on this occasion to remark, that the sword ought not to be considered as a mere weapon of offence or defence in an officer's hand; for unless that officer should be singly engaged, which scarcely ever happens upon service, the very notion of personal safety will take his mind off the superior duty of attending to his men. Officers, in fact, should always bear in mind, that they are cardinal points which direct others. Their whole attention should consequently be paid to their men, and not the slightest idea must interfere with respect to themselves. We are therefore convinced, with due deference to the superior judgment of others, that the swords of infantry officers, and of the staff in general, should be of the small sword kind, sufficiently long to dress the leading files, &c. and extremely portable. Setting aside this suggestion, we shall not be contradicted when we say, that every officer ought to know the use of his sword. Perhaps it may not be thought extravagant to propose a limited imitation of what was so generally practised in France. We mean the appointment of a fencing-master, or draysman, for every company of grenadiers in the service, who should be armed with sabres, or good cut and thrust. With respect to the officers of the British army, common sense dictates the propriety of their being skilled in the art of fencing.

Position of the Sword at Open Order. When an officer stands or marches (slow time), in front of his company, &c. the position of the sword is diagonal across the chest. At close order, or when the officer is on the flank of his company, &c. (and marches quick time) the hilt is close to the right thigh, and the blade in the hollow of the right shoulder. When mounted, he carries it diagonally across the bridle hand.

When troops or squadrons of cavalry advance:—In the walk, the sword is carried with the blade resting on the right arm; in the trot and gallop, the right hand must be steadied on the right thigh, the point of the sword rather inclining forward; and in the charge, the hand is lifted, and the sword is carried rather forward, and crossways in front of the head, with the edge outwards.

Sword-bearer, (Porte épée, Fr.) one who wears a sword. It also signifies a public officer.

Sword-belt, (Boudrier, Fr.) a belt made of leather, that hangs over the right shoulder of an officer, by which his sword is suspended on the left side. When the sword is suspended from a belt round the waist, the French use the word Ceinturon.

Sword-cutter, (Fourbisseur, Fr.) one who makes swords.

Sworded, girt with a sword.

Sword-knot, (Neud d'Epée, Fr.) a riband tied to the hilt of a sword.

Sword-knot, according to the regulation; This knot is made of crimson and gold, and is now sold for ten shil-
lings and sixpence. The sash and sword-knot together amount to 2l. 1o. 6d.

Sword-Law, (La Loi du plus Fort, Fr.) When a thing is enforced, without due regard being paid to established rules and regulations, it is said to be carried by Sword-law, or by the will of the strongest.

SWORDSMAN, (Homme d'épée, Fr.) This word was formerly used to signify a soldier, a fighting man. But at present it generally means a person versed in the art of fencing. Hence, a good swordsman. The French use the terms Bretêcheur and Bretêtailleur. The former is more immediately applicable to a man who wears a sword and piques himself upon the exercise of it; the latter means a person who frequents fencing schools, and often exercises himself in that art.

Sword-player, a gladiator; one who fences publicly.

SYCOPHANT, a dirty, mean, groveling creature, that sometimes finds its way into the army, and gets to the ear of a superior officer, for the purpose of underminding the good opinion, which honest valour and open manhood may have obtained.

SYEF, Ind. a long sword.

SYEFUL Mulk, Ind. the sword of the kingdom.

SYMBOL, in a military sense, badge. Every regiment in the British service has its badge.

SYMBOLE, Fr. The French make use of this word in the same sense that they apply Enseigne. Symbole means with them, in a military sense, what badge does with us.

SYMMETRY, (Symmétrie, Fr.) a word derived from the Greek. True symmetry consists in a due proportion, or in the relation of equality in the height, length, and breadth of the parts, which are required to make a beautiful whole, or in an uniformity of the parts with respect to the whole.

SYMPATHETIC Ink, (Encre Sympathique, Fr.) a sort of ink which is used by diplomatic persons, &c. for the purpose of carrying on a secret correspondence.

SYRTES, or sables mouvans, Fr.—quick-sands.

SYSTEM, (Système, Fr.) a scheme which reduces many things to regular dependence, or co-operation. This word is frequently applied to some particular mode of drilling and exercising men to fit them for manoeuvres and evolutions. Hence the Prussian system, the Austrian system, &c. The Rules and Regulations, which have been compiled and published by authority during the present war, and consist almost wholly of extracts from Salder, who wrote upon Prussian tactics, constitute the military system of Great Britain, with respect to order and discipline. Although we seem, in this instance, to stand indebted to a foreign power for an entire change of manoeuvres and evolutions, common justice to the British character demands, that we should mention a circumstance which is not generally recollected, but which we have from too good authority to leave unnoticed. We have heard it confidently asserted, that the system which Frederick the Great of Prussia brought into universal notice, was that which was practised by the British troops under the Duke of Marlborough; and that the Germans, with whom we were in alliance, adopted most of their manoeuvres from us. We give the fact as stated to us from the best authority.

Military System, specific rules and regulations for the government of an army in the field, or in quarters, &c.

SYSTEMS, (Systèmes, Fr.) in fortification, a particular arrangement or disposition of the different parts which compose the circumference of a town or fortified place, according to the original idea or invention of an engineer. The systems best known under this head, and most followed, are those of Vauban, Coehorn, De Ville, Pagan, &c. See Fortification.
a subterraneous arrangement in mining; so called from its resemblance to that letter. See Te, Fr.
TABAC, Fr. tobacco. During the monarchy of France there was a specific allowance made of tobacco to the cavalry and infantry, when they were in camp, quarters, or garrison. They were likewise supplied by the captains of troops or companies, with a certain quantity of this valuable leaf, whilst on the march from one province, or quarter, to another. We wish the same practice prevailed in this country, especially when soldiers are encamped at the close of the year, lie thick in barracks, or do prison duty.
TABARD, cotte d'armes, Fr. a TABEL, a small drum. Sec. Tabour.
TABARD, cotte d'armes, Fr. a TABEL, a short jacket without sleeves. TABEL, a small drum. Sec. Tabour.
TABLE. In military affairs, a kind of register to set down the dimensions of carriages for guns, mortars, &c. also for the practice of artillery, charges of mines, &c.
TABLE, in literature, an index, a repertory, at the beginning, or end, of a book, to direct the reader to any passage in it.
Crowned Table, in architecture, one which is covered with a cornice, and in which is cut a basso relievo; or a piece of black marble incrustated for an inscription.
Razed Table, in architecture, an embossment in a frontispiece for the putting an inscription, or other ornament in sculpture.
Rusticated Table, in architecture, one which is picked, whose surface appears rough, as in grottos.
The Round Table, a table to distinguish military merit, which was first invented by King Arthur, who succeeded his father, Uther Pendragon, King of the Britons, who was brother to Aurelius Ambrosius, and third son of Constantine. Arthur was the 11th King of England, from the departure of the Romans, and was crowned about the year 516.
Having expelled the Saxons out of England, conquered Norway, Scotland, and the greatest part of France, (where at Paris he was crowned) this monarch returned to his native country, and lived in so great renown, that many Princes and Knights came from all parts to the court, to give proof of their valor in the exercise of arms. Upon this he erected a fraternity of knights, which consisted of twenty-four, of whom he was the chief; and for the avoiding controversies about precedence, he caused a round table to be made, from which they were denominated Knights of the Round Table. This table, according to tradition, hangs up in the castle at Winchester, where they used to meet. The time of their meeting was at Whitsam-tide.
Table des officiers généraux et principaux, Fr. mess or table as directed to be kept for the general and other superior officers of the old French army. During the monarchy of France, the principal officers in the king's service were so handsomely provided for, that they were enabled to keep a respectable table, not only for themselves, but likewise for the accommodation of several officers, to whose finances it proved extremely beneficial. It is here proper to remark, that certain allowances were made to general officers for this express purpose; and in other instances it was always understood, that a proportion of the officers, under their command, should invariably have access to their table. This practice, indeed, prevails in the British service, but not universally; neither is it incumbent upon the generals of districts, &c. to provide a table. No allowance is made to them on that head; but it is usually expected, and with the exception of a very few instances, the custom is general. The old French regulation expressed,
pressed, that all general officers, to whom allowances were made for that specific purpose, should keep table ouverte, or open table, for the convenience of such officers as stood in need of accommodation, and who might repair to it without waiting for a daily invitation, or being exposed to the galling caprice of ostentatious folly.

It has been observed by a French writer, that the custom of keeping an open table was peculiarly congenial to the character of the nation; and so little was there a necessity of enjoining it, that a regulation came out, limiting the expenses of the general officers, and strictly forbidding them to use sumptuous utensils, or to give rich repasts. It was specifically stated, by order of his Majesty, that no officer, whilst with the army, should have any other vessels or utensils in silver, besides spoons, forks, and goblets; and that all general officers, or such as kept open table, should confine themselves to soup, plain boiled and roasted meat, with vegetables, and one or two side dishes of ragout, &c. But they were not, on any account, to have high seasoned messes, &c. Their desert was to consist of cheese, stewed pears or fruit in season, without confectionary, sugared biscuits, &c. The whole to be served up in common plates and dishes. Porcelain, china, and crystal vessels, &c. were strictly forbidden. These restrictions grew out of two very rational principles, viz. to prevent unnecessary expense, and consequent embarrassment, and to give those, who kept open tables, a facility and convenience in asking guests to them. If any general, or other superior officer, &c. presumed to act contrary to this regulation, and the transgression reached the king’s ear, he was ordered to quit the army, and to remain in a garrison town during the campaign. The only military table which is regulated in Great Britain, is at the Horse Guards; and that is charged in the extraordinaries of the army. We have already suggested the idea of extending the principle of messing, at the public expense, beyond the limits of the palace. Good order and discipline are intimately connected with a system of messing. This truth holds good with respect to the soldier, and a regulation is the consequence of its propriety. With regard to the officers, it is well known, that in corps where they do not mess, perpetual bickerings among themselves, and occasional obstacles to the service, occur. We refer our readers to the 6th edition of the Regimental Companion for a full discussion of this important subject.

The French regulation took place on the 1st of April 1705, and was again renewed, with additional clauses, on the 20th of January, 1741, on the 1st of December, 1746, on the 17th of February 1753, and on the 9th of March 1757. The curious are referred to a French publication, intitled, Éléments Militaires.

Before the abolition of the French monarchy, it was usual for officers belonging to the line in that service, to mess together according to their several ranks; the colonel excepted, who had a private table to which he occasionally invited the officers of the corps. A regular roster was kept for this purpose. The lieutenant-colonel and major uniformly messed with the captains; and the different tables were generally composed of eight or ten officers, of the same rank. The lieutenants dined together; so did the sub-lieutenants; each paying towards the mess in proportion to the receipt of daily subsistence. When an officer, of independent income or private fortune, wished to fare better than those of his own immediate rank, he was at liberty to join the upper table, or mess. This method of messing was certainly preferable to the mode adopted amongst us. But a method still more preferable than either might be devised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table de capitaine de vaisseau, Fr.</th>
<th>a mess, or table which was regularly provided at the king’s expense, for the superior officers who served on board.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table d’hotel, Fr.</strong> an ordinary.</td>
<td><strong>Tenir Table ouverte, Fr.</strong> to keep open house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Table en saillie, Fr.</strong> in architecture, a table which juts out of the facing of a wall, or of a pedestal.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Table fouillée, Fr.</strong> that which instead of being salient is indented: it is commonly adorned with a border.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Table d’attente, Fr.</strong> See Rusticated Table.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Table de marbre, Fr.</strong> a marble table.</td>
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ble. During the monarchy of France, there were two courts, or jurisdictions, which were called *Tables de Marbre*, or marble tables; one was that of the constable, and the Maréchaussée, or police, of France; and the other that which gave directions for the general clearing of the forests, and the purifying of stagnant waters. They are so called from the meeting being held round a large marble table.

**Table de réunion**, Fr. an ordinary, or table, to which persons of different nations and situations in life are admitted. Thus a table, or mess, where the officers of different corps dine together, may be called a *Table de réunion*. Under this description may also be placed the table which is kept, at the expence of the public, for the mounted, and dismounted, officers of his Majesty's life, and foot, guards.

**TABLEAU, Fr.** A description, a catalogue. It likewise signifies a chimney-piece.

**TABLETTE, Fr.** A flat thin stone, which is used to cover the outside of a wall belonging to a terrace, or the border of a basin, &c.

**TABLIER, Fr.** Apron. It likewise signifies an outside cover made for ornament, or to prevent any thing from being damaged by the weather. In the old French army the kettle-drums had two of these aprons or covers; one made of damask or satin, on which were embroidered the arms of the king, or of the general to whom they belonged, and the other of black leather. It is also called *Tablier de Tambalos*.

**Tablier de pont levé, Fr.** That part of a draw-bridge, which is raised for the purpose of shutting a gate, and to prevent access to it, and upon which persons pass when the bridge is let down.

**TABLIQUINS, Fr.** A word used in the artillery. The thick boards or planks that constitute the platform upon which cannon is mounted in battery.

**TABOUR, TABOURET, TABOURINE, TABRET,** A small drum, beat with one stick, to accompany a pipe. It wasa significantly used in war.

**TABULE Triompheaux, public records among the ancient Romans, which were deposited in the capitol at Rome, by the several generals, &c. who had made triumphant entries. These records were written in a sort of prose; verse, having neither measure nor cadence. The following one was exhibited by Acilius Glabrio—Præsides fugat, proterns maximas legiones: he pours or rushes upon; he puts to flight; he overthrows the greatest legions.

**TACHE, Fr.** Properly means job, or a regular rate for labour. Workmen are thus hired and paid by the day, or by the lump.

**TACHE also means province, or business, in a general acceptance of the term—as, Ce n'est pas la tâche d'un officier de terre de donner un Dictionnaire des termes de la marine. It is not the province, or business, of a land-officer, to publish a dictionary, or vocabulary, of sea terms.—See *Discours préliminaire* of the new French Military Dictionary.

**TACKLE, the weapon, or arrow, shot from a bow, was so called by the ancient Welsh.**

**TACKLES are more particularly used for small ropes running in pulleys, the better to manage all kinds of ordnance. See Gin.**

**TACTICS, a word derived from the Greek, signifying order. Tactics consist of a knowledge of order, disposition, and formation, according to the exigency of circumstances, in warlike operations. These dispositions are severally made, or one disposition follows another, by means of manoeuvres and evolutions. Hence the necessity of paying the greatest attention to the first principles of military art; and hence the absurdity and ignorance of some men, who would pass for great and able tacticians, without having grounded themselves in the elements of their profession. As well might a person assume the character of a complete mathematician, under a total ignorance of the first rules.**

**General tactics are a combination, or union, of first orders, out of which others grow, of a more extensive and complicated nature, to suit the particular kind of contest, or battle, which
to be given, or supported. Let it however, be inferred from this, that evolutions and tactics are one and the same. They are closely connected, but there is still a discernible difference between them.

Tactics (or as the French say, La tactique, tactical art) may be comprehended under order and disposition; resolution is the movement which is made, and eventually leads to order. The higher branches of tactics, or la grande tactique, should be thoroughly understood by all general officers; but it is sufficient for inferior officers and soldiers to be acquainted with evolutions. Not that the latter are beneath the notice of general officers, but that having already acquired a knowledge of them, they ought to direct their attention more immediately to the former; carefully retaining, at the same time, a clear apprehension of every species of military detail, and thereby obviating the many inconveniences and embarrassments, which occur from orders being awkwardly expressed by the general, and of course ill understood by the inferior officer. It may be laid down, as a certain rule, that unless a general officer make himself acquainted with particular movements and dispositions, and preserve the necessary recollections, it is morally impossible for him to be clear and correct in his general arrangements. Of all mechanical operations, founded upon given principles, the art of war is certainly the most compendious, the most enlarged, and the most capable of improvement. Almost every other science and art are comprehended in it; and it should be the subject matter, the chief study, and the ultimate object of a general's reflections. He must not be satisfied with a limited conception of its various branches; he should go deeply into all its parts, be aware of its manifold changes, and know how to adapt movements and positions to circumstances and places.

It will be of little use to a general to have formed vast projects, if, when they are to be executed, there should be a deficiency of ground; if the general movements of the army should be embarrassed by the irregularity of some particular corps, by their overlapping each other, &c. and if through the tardiness of a manœuvre, an enemy should have time to render his plan abortive by a more prompt evolution. A good general must be aware of all these contingencies, by making himself thoroughly master of tactics.

The Prussian tactics, under Frederic the Great, had for their principal object to concentrate forces, and to attack the chief points of an enemy, not at one and the same time, but one after another; whereas the tactics which have been uniformly pursued by the French, since the commencement of their revolution, have been founded upon this principle:—To attack all points with divided forces, at one and the same time. We thus see, that the principles of extension have been as much followed by the latter, as those of compression were studiously adhered to by the former.

Tactics of Europe. The following observations respecting the Tactics of Europe, which we extract from a book entitled the Elementary Principles of Tactics, page 127, may not be uninteresting to our military readers.

In the time of the Romans, the Gauls, and other nations on the continent, fought in the phalanx order; it is this order which still prevails through all Europe, except that it is deficient in the advantages and utility which Polybius ascribes to it, and is injured and disgraced, by defects unknown in the ancient phalanx.

In Turenne's days, troops were arranged 8 deep, both in France and Germany. Thirty years after, in the time of Puysegur, the ranks were reduced to 5; in the last Flanders war 4; and immediately after to 3.

This part of the progression from 8 to 3 being known, we easily conceive how the nes of the phalanx had been diminished from 16 to 8 in the ages preceding Turenne. It is to be presumed, that this depth was considered as superfluous, and it was judged necessary to curtail it, in order to extend the front. However, the motion is of very little consequence, since we are now reduced to three ranks; let us therefore endeavour to find out what qualities of the phalanx have been preserved.
served, and what might have been added thereto.

To shew that we have preserved the defects of the phalanx in Europe, I suppose two bodies of troops, one of eight thousand men, ranged as a phalanx, sixteen deep; the other a regiment of three battalions, consisting only of fifteen hundred men, drawn up in three lines, after the same manner. Those two bodies shall be perfectly equal and alike in extent of front, and shall differ in nothing but in the depth of their files; the inconveniences and defects, therefore, occasioned by the length of the fronts are equal in both troops, though their numbers are very different; hence it follows, that, in Europe, the essential defects of the phalanx are preserved and its advantages lost.

Let the files of this body of eight thousand, be afterwards divided, and let it be reduced to three in depth, its front will then be found five times more extensive, and its depth five times less; we may, therefore, conclude, that the defects of the phalanx are evidently multiplied in the discipline of Europe, at the expense of its advantages, which consisted in the depth of its files.

The progress which has taken place in the artillery, has contributed greatly to this revolution. As cannon multiplied, it was necessary to avoid its effects; and the only method of avoiding, or at least of lessening them, was doubtless to diminish the depth of the files.

The musket, likewise, has a great share in the alteration; the halberd was entirely laid aside for the bayonet: and in order to have no fire unemployed, it was thought necessary to put it in the power of every soldier to make use of his fire-arms.

Those are, I think, the two principal causes of the little solidity, or depth given to our battalions.

We have now seen, that the defects of the phalanx were multiplied in the European discipline, and its advantages and perfections infinitely diminished. Our regulations are, therefore, much inferior to the phalanx, and have nothing but the single effect of fire-arms to counter-balance all its advantages. The effect, however, of fire-arms is an artificial power, and does not ordinarily belong to the manner of disciplining troops, the sole aim of which should be to employ men's natural action. It is man, therefore, and use this fire, which is to be considered as the principal agent; and from here we may, I think, infer that this method is very much inferior to the phalanx, and still more to the Roman arrangement, which so far surpassed those of Greece.

The light troops of both these people were much heavier than our battalions and had more power and solidity for shock, or conflict. However, the Roman discipline, notwithstanding its superiority, is not calculated for or times; because, as we are obliged to engage at a distance, ours, by its cannon, would destroy the Greek order of battle in a very short time, as would be exposed to a loss much less considerable itself, supposing even the artillery was equal on both sides; we should then, in order to perfect our arrangements, endeavour to procure the all the advantageous qualities of its legonary regulations, as the only means of giving them the superiority.

Many people are of opinion, that we imitate the Romans, and that we give battle according to their system, because our troops are drawn up in lines some of which are full, and others vacant. But I have proved, that three battalions have the same front, and the same inconveniences that eight thousand men ranged in the phalanx order. Our lines are formed by brigades, regiments or battalions, and the distance of one corps to the other is equal to the front of one of those corps; so that those lines, both full and vacant, are composed of detachments equal in front and in defects; each has a phalanx of six, eight, or twelve thousand men. Our orders of battle consequently can be no more, at most, than a kind of medium between those of Greece and Rome.

Maritime Tactics, or maneuvres, of at sea, like those practised on land may be considered under two heads. The first contains what the French term historique or detail, in which are included the orders and signals directed to be observed by fleets going into action;
tion; together with a specific account of the different manœuvres which have been executed in the principal engagements. The second comprehends a knowledge of the rates of ships, and of the method of constructing them.

The vessels of the ancients made their way by means of sails and oars. The rows of oars were proportioned to the different sizes, from what was called annus-ranum, which was the smallest, and had only one row: to the quinquærami, which had five rows.

The particular method in which these ships were constructed, as well as of the arrangements that were made within, in order that a sufficient number of rowers might be commodiously placed to work them, is not perfectly known to the moderns; nor have the ancients left us documents sufficiently clear and accurate on that head.

With respect to naval tactics, or the art of fighting at sea, it is confessedly less ancient than tactics on shore, or what is generally called land service. Mankind were accustomed to contend for the possession of territory long before they determined on, or even dreamed of, making the sea a theatre of war and bloodshed.

Setting aside the many fabulous accounts which are extant concerning naval tactics, we shall remain satisfied with what has been transmitted to us by the Roman writers of the fifth and sixth century of that republic. We shall there find specific details of the different manoeuvres which were practised at sea during the Punic war. In those times, naval armaments began to be regularly fitted out; ships of different forms and sizes were constructed, and certain offensive and defensive machines, that served as a species of artillery, were placed upon them. They had already been drawn out according to system: (being divided into certain proportions which were then called divisions, but are now named squadrons;) and the persons who commanded them, exerted all their skill and genius to gain advantages over their enemies, by opportunely getting to windward, by seizing the favourable occurrence of the side, or by mooring in advantageous situations.

At the battle of Actium, Augustus finding himself inferior to Mark Anthony in the number of his ships, had the sagacity to draw up his line of battle along the entrance of the gulph of Ambracia, and thereby to make up for his deficiency. This naval manœuvre, as well as that of getting to windward of the enemy, in order to bear down upon him with more certainty and effect, exists to the present day.

We act precisely upon the same principles in both cases, by which the ancients were governed, with the additional advantage, in fighting to windward, of covering the enemy's line with smoke from the discharge of ordnance and firearms. The French call this being in possession of the closest line—Occuper la ligne de plus près.

In those times, ships were boarded much sooner than they are at present. Most engagements at sea are now determined by cannon shot. Among the ancients, when two ships endeavoured to board each other, the rowers drew in their oars, to prevent them from being broken in the shock.

The manœuvre which was practised on this occasion, was for the ship that got to windward of its adversary, to run upon its side, with the prow, which being armed with a long sharp piece of iron, made so deep an impression in it, that the ship thus attacked, generally sunk. The voyages which were afterwards made on the ocean, rendered it necessary to construct ships that carried more sail, and were double decked; and since the invention of gunpowder, tiers of guns have been substituted in the room of rows of oars.

On the decline and fall of the Roman empire, the Saracens got the ascendancy in naval tactics. They took advantage of this superiority, and extended their conquests on all sides. The whole extent of coast, belonging to the Mediterranean, together with the ancient islands, fell under their dominion. Mankind are indebted to them for considerable improvements in naval tactics.

It was only under Charlemagne, that the Europeans can be said to have paid any great attention to their navy. That monarch kept up a regular intercourse with the Caliphs of the East; and having just grounds to apprehend an inva-
sion from the Normans, he constructed vessels for the defence of his coasts.

During the reign of the first French kings, belonging to the third race, naval tactics were little attended to, on account of the small extent of maritime coast which France possessed at that period. It was only in the days of Louis the Younger, and of Louis surnamed the Saint, that we discover any traces of a considerable fleet; especially during the crusades.

Under Charles the Vth, and his successor Charles the VIth, the French got possession of several sea-ports, and had the command of a long line of coast. Yet neither they nor the English, with whom they were frequently at war, had, at that period, any thing like the fleets which are fitted out now.

The discovery of America by Columbus, and the more lucrative possession of the East Indies, induced the principal states of Europe to increase their naval establishments, for the purpose of settling colonies, and of bringing home, without the danger of molestation, or piracy, the wealth and produce of the Eastern and Western Worlds.

The French marine was far from being contemptible under Francis the first; but it grew into considerable reputation during the administration of Cardinal Richelieu in the reign of Louis the XIII; and continued so until the battle of La Hogue, which was so gloriously won by the English, under William III. From that epoch it began to decline; while the English on the other hand, not only kept up the reputation they had acquired under Cromwell and his predecessors, but rendered themselves so thoroughly skilled in naval tactics, that they have remained masters of the sea to this day. In corroboration of what we have advanced, we refer our readers to a very interesting work, lately published, entitled the *History of Maritime Events*, by Captain Schomberg, of the Royal Navy.

**TACTIQUE, Fr.** Tactics, art of marshalling an army.

**TACTIQUE Maritime, Fr.** Naval tactics, or sea manoeuvres, &c. See **NAVAL TACTICS**.

**Tactiques, Fr.** Tacticians. A name which was formerly given, in Persia and Greece, to those persons who taught the military art. See **Science of War**.

**TAGBEERE, Ind.** Dismission.

**TAIGAU, Ind.** A sabre.

**TAIL of the trenchers, the place where the besiegers begin to break ground, and cover themselves from the fire of the place, in advancing the lines of approach.**

**TAILLE du soldat, Fr.** The size, height, and stature most proper for a soldier.

**TAILLER, Fr.** To cut.—Tailler en pieces; to cut to pieces.

**TAILLOR, Fr.** Trencher. It likewise signifies in architecture a square piece of stone, or wood, which is placed above the capital.

**TAILLE, Fr.** To silence; se taire, to hold one's tongue. The French say, Faire taire le canon des ennemis, to silence the enemy's cannon.

**To TAKE.** This verb, as Dr. Johnson observes, like prendre in French, is used with endless multiplicity of relations. Its uses are so numerous, that they cannot easily be exemplified; and its inferences, to the words governed by it, so general and lax, that they can hardly be explained by any successful terms. But commonly that is hardest to explain which least wants explication. We shall content ourselves with giving a few general terms, in which the verb take is used with respect to military matters.

**To TAKE.** To make prisoner.

**To TAKE advantage of.** To avail oneself of any peculiar event, or opening, whereby an enemy may be overcome, viz.—He took advantage of the de-baucheries which were daily committed in the enemy's camp, to surprise the army.

**To TAKE ground to the right or left.** To extend a line towards either of those directions.

**To TAKE up quarters.** To occupy locally; to go into cantonments, barracks, &c. To become stationary for more or less time.

**To TAKE up the gauntlet.** The correlative to throw down the gauntlet.—To accept a challenge.

**To TAKE up arms.** To embody and troop together for offensive, or defensive purposes. We likewise say, to take arms.
To take down. To minute; to commit to paper what is spoken or given orally. Hence to take down his words.

To take the field. To encamp. It likewise means generally to move with troops in military order.

To take in. A low phrase, signifying to cheat, to gull. Officers, especially the junior classes, are frequently taken in by usurers and money-lenders, and sometimes by what are called old soldiers.

To take oath. To swear.

To take up. To seize; to catch; to arrest; as to take up a deserter.

To take on. An expression in familiar use among soldiers that have enlisted for a limited period, to signify an extension of service by taking a fresh bounty.

To take. To adopt any particular formation:

Rear ranks take open order; Words of Rear ranks take close order; command which are used in the British service. For the manner in which they are executed, see order.

To take cognizance. To investigate with judicial authority.

TALC, (Tale, Fr.) Isingslass. In natural history, a shining, squamous, fissile species of stone, easily separable into thin laminae, or scales.

There are two kinds of tale, viz. the white tale of Venice, and the red tale of Muscovy.

Tale. Information; disclosure of any thing secret.

Tale, Ind. An Indian coin equal to six shillings and eight pence.

Talebearer, one who officiously gives ill-judged, or malignant, intelligence. With respect to the interior economy of military life, a talebearer is the most dangerous creature that could insinuate itself among honourable men; and however acceptable domestic information may sometimes seem to narrow minds, it will be found, even by those who countenance the thing, that such means of getting at the private sentiments of others, not only defeat their own ends, but ultimately destroy every species of regimental harmony. The only way to secure a corps from this insidious evil, is for commanding officers to treat those with contempt, who would endeavour to obtain their countenance by such base and unofficer-like conduct; for it is a known axiom, that if there were no listeners, there would be no reporters.

TALENT. Quality; disposition; natural endowment; an aptitude to things.

Count Turpin, in his Essay on the Art of War, makes the following distinction between genius and talent:—Talent remains hidden for want of occasions to shew itself; genius breaks through all obstacles; genius alone is the contriver, talent only the workman.

Talent of persuasion, the faculty of influencing; the act of gaining, or attempting the passions.

We find a remarkable instance of this faculty in the conduct of Julius Caesar, when he not only quelled the mutiny of one of his best legions, but also made the deepest impression on their minds.

When the mutineers appeared in his presence, they were so struck with the awe and respect which his victories inspired, that even the boldest among them could not utter a single word. Then Caesar, mounting his tribunal, exhorted them to speak, and lay their complaints before him. Hereupon they took courage, and begged him to discharge them, alledging their age, their wounds, and their long service. As Caesar was entering on a new war, they expected he would have courted them, and, with large presents, enticed them to follow him. They were therefore thunder-struck, when he answered, without showing the least surprize or concern, "Your demand is just; I do discharge you, and you may be gone." Caesar, perceiving the consternation and surprize these words occasioned among them, after having kept silence for some time, added—"I do not, however, design to rob you of your rewards; these I will give you, when I shall have triumphed over the rest of my enemies. At these words, they crowded round his tribunal, begging, that since he intended to reward them, he would suffer them to deserve the promised remunence with further services. But Caesar, without seeming to take notice of their demand
demand—Go, fellow citizens, said he, return to your houses and families.

The word, fellow citizens, instead of fellow soldiers, was like a clap of thunder in their ears. They all cried out that they were soldiers; that they had not accepted of their discharge; and that they would follow him into Africa. But Caesar, pretending to despise both their offers and their submissions, turned his back upon them, and came down from his tribunal: then the legionaries, throwing themselves at his feet, conjured him rather to inflict such punishments upon them as their insolvency deserved, than to disband them in so shameful a manner. He continued, however, inflexible for a considerable time; but at length, pretending to be overcome by the importunities of his friends, he ascended the tribunal once more, and, addressing himself to them, told them, That the revolt surprised him the more, because it came from a legion, which he had always distinguished above the rest; that, nevertheless, he could not prevail upon himself to punish those, whom he had once so tenderly loved; that, on his return from Africa, he would give them the rewards he had promised, and lands too for their subsistence; but that he would not by any means suffer them to attend him in the expedition he was now undertaking, in order to convince him, that he could conquer without them. This speech made so deep an impression on their minds, that, with tears in their eyes, they begged he would rather decimate them, than debar them from sharing with him the glory of his victories. We will follow you as volunteers, they all cried out with one voice, if you refuse to admit us in the number of your legions. These words, which were manifestly spoken from a true sense of their crime, and a sincere repentance, touched Caesar: he could no longer dissemble; but, stilling them again, fellow soldiers, he not only freely forswore them, but declared, that they should share with him both the glory and advantages of all his victories. See Appian, Hist. Liv. Dio.

TALUT, Fr. This word is sometimes written Talut. For its significance see Fortification.

TALUTER, Fr. To give a slope to any thing in fortification.

TAMBOUR, in fortification, is a kind of work formed of palisades, or pieces of wood, 10 feet long, and 6 inches thick, planted close together, and driven 2 or 3 feet into the ground; so that when finished, it may have the appearance of a square redoubt cast in two. Loopholes are made 6 feet from the ground, and 3 feet asunder, about 3 inches long, 2 inches wide within, and 6 without. Behind is a scaffold 2 feet high, for the soldiers to stand upon. They are frequently made in the place of
of arms of the covert-way, at the salient angles, in the gorges, half-moons, and ravelins, &c. 

TAMBOURS, in fortifications, are also solid pieces of earth which are made in that part of the covert-way that is joined to the parapet, and lies close to the traverses, being only 3 feet distant from them. They serve to prevent the covert-way from being enfiladed, and obstruct the enemy's view towards the traverses. When tambours are made in the covert-way, they answer the same purposes that works en crenellière would.

Tambours likewise means, in fortifications, a single or isolated traverse, which serves to close up that part of the covert-way where a communication might have been made in the glacis for the purpose of going to some detached work.

TAMBOUR also signifies, both in French and English, a little box of timber-work covered with a cieling, within side the porch of certain churches, both to prevent the view of persons passing by, and to keep off the wind, &c. by means of folding doors. In many instances it is the same as porch.

TAMBOUR, Fr. See DRUM.

Marcher TAMBOURS battants et drapeaux flottants, to march with drums beating and colours flying.

TAMBOUR, Fr. See DRUMMER. We frequently use the word drum in the same sense that the French do, viz. to signify drummer. We likewise say file for sizer; as, one drum and file to each company.

TAMBOUR Major, Fr. drum-major.

Batteries de TAMBOUR, Fr. the different beats of the drum. The principal beats among the French are—La générale, the general; L'assemblée, the assembly; Le dernier, the last beat; Le drapeau, the troop; Aux chaps, to the field; La marche, the march; La diane, the reveillé; L'alarme, to arms, or the alarm; La chamade, the parley; L'appel, the roll or call; La fascine ou brèque, the workman's call. Le ban et la rétraite.

Aux chaps, ou le premier, is beat when any particular corps of infantry is ordered to march; but if the order should extend to a whole army, it is then called La générale, the general. We do not make this distinction in our service, but we omit the Premier, or first beat, when one regiment, detachment, or company, marches out of a camp or garrison where there are other troops.

Le second, ou l'assemblée, is to give notice that the colours are to be sent for.

La marche is beat when troops march off their parade.

Battre la charge, ou battre la guerre, to beat the charge, or the point of war. This occurs when troops advance against an enemy. Battre la rétraite is to beat the retreat, to cease firing, or to withdraw after the battle. It is likewise used in garrisons to warn soldiers to retire to their quarters.

Battre la fricassée, to beat the long roll.—A beat which is practised to call soldiers suddenly together.

Battre la Diane, to beat the reveillé. This is done in a camp or garrison at break of day. When an army besieges a town, the reveillé is confined to those troops belonging to the infantry that have mounted guard, particularly in the trenches; and it is then followed by the discharge of those pieces of ordnance which had ceased firing on account of the darkness of the night, that prevented their being properly pointed against the enemy's works.

TAMBOUR de basque, Fr. a tabor.

TAMBOUR battant, Fr. drums beating.

Sortir TAMBOUR battant, enseignes déployées, Fr. to go out drums beating and colours flying.

TAMBOUR, in architecture, a term applied to the Corinthian and composite capitals, as bearing some resemblance to a drum, which the French call TAMBOUR.

TAMBOUR likewise denotes a round course of stone, several wheretof form the shaft of a column not so high as a diameter.

Un TAMBOURIN, Fr. a timbrel.

TAMBOURINE, a drum, somewhat resembling the tabour, but played in our military bands without either stick or pipe.

TAMIS, Fr. a sieve.

TAMIONS, or TOMPIONS, of ders to put into the
the mouth of the guns, howitzers, and mortars, in travelling, to prevent the dust or wet from getting in. They are fastened round the muzzle of the guns, &c. by leather collars.

They are sometimes used to put into the chambers of mortars, over the powder, when the chamber is not full.

TAMPIONS, in sea-service artillery, are the iron bottoms to which the grape-shot are fixed; the dimensions of which are as follow, viz. 

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<tr>
<td>42-pounders</td>
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TAMPON, Fr. a wooden peg or instrument which is used to plug up cartridges, petards, &c. a stopper.

TAMPONS, Fr. in mason-work, are wooden pegs by which beams and boards for floors are fastened together.

TAMPIONS, Fr. flat pieces of iron, copper, or wood, which are used by the French on board their men of war, to stop up holes that are made by cannon-balls during a naval engagement.

TAMPONS de Canon, Fr. the apron made of cork or lead, which is put over the vent of any piece of ordnance.

TANGENT, (Tungente, Fr.) in trigonometry, is a right line raised perpendicularly on the extreme of the diameter, and continued to a point, where it is cut by a secant, that is, by a line drawn from the center, through the extremity of the arch, whereby it is the tangent.

TANK, Ind. a pond or pool of water; a reservoir to preserve the water that falls in the rainy season.

TANNADAR, Ind. a commander of a small fort.

TAP, a gentle blow, as a tap of the drum.

TAPABORD, Fr. a sort of cap or slouched hat made in the English fashion which the French sailors wear. Its sides hang over the shoulders, and shield them from rain in wet weather.

It likewise signifies a riding-cap, a master.

La TAPE, le TAPON, ou TAM- PON, Fr. the tampion.

TAPER ou TAMPONNER un Ca non, Fr. to put in the tampion; es taper un Canon, Fr. to take out the tampion.

TAPE-caul, Fr. that part of a swamp or swinging gate, which serves to raise and let down a draw-bridge.

TAPE-cul, Fr. a falling gate.

En TAPINOIS, Fr. slyly, secretly.

& TAPIR, Fr. to lie squat.

TAPIS, Fr. This word literally means carpet, and is used by the French in a figurative sense, viz.

Amuser le Tapis, Fr. to trifle.

Mettre une affaire sur le Tapis, Fr. to open any particular transaction, to move a business.

TAPPEE, Ind. an express.

TAPROBANE, Ind. the ancient name for the island of Ceylon. It is derived from tapoo, an island; and bay, a ferry.

TAP-TOO, § See DRUM.

TAT-TOO, §

TAR, a kind of liquid pitch used in the composition of some sorts of fire-works.

TARANTHE, Fr. a thick iron peg which is used to turn the screw in a press.

TARAU, Fr. an instrument which is used in making the nut of a screw. It is a round piece of steel with a spiral shape.

TARAUDER, Fr. to make a hole like that which is effected by the operation of the Tarau.

TARD-venus, ou Malandrin, Fr. late-comers, or banditti: a body of men who formerly collected together in France, without any order, or authority, from the king, or government, and who were commanded by a chief of their own selection. These troops or companies first made their appearance in 1860. They were professed plunderers, that did a great deal of mischief in France, until they made inroads into Italy. The author of the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire humorously concludes this article by observing, that the term trop-tôt-venus, or persons coming too soon, would have been more suitable
suitable to the occupation of these
freebooters.

TARE, Fr. a word adopted by the
French from the English term tar.

TAREAU, Fr. a screw-tap.

TAR, Fr. It is generally pro-
nounced Targue, from whence is de-
rivered the figurative expression se tar-
guer, to plume one’s self, or to be self-
sufficient. Le poltron se targue du
courage de son père, the coward plumes
himself upon the courage of his father.

—See TARGET.

TARGE, Fr. a weapon of defence.

See PAVOIS.

TARGET, a sort of shield, being
originally made of leather, wrought
out of the back of an ox’s hide. They
were much used by the Scotch.

TARGET, is also a mark for the arti-
illery, &c., to fire at in their practice.

TARGET, a mark set up at certain
distances, to be fired at with musquet
and ball. The mark is sometimes
made in the form of a man, and of the
same size; and sometimes in a circular
form, on which are concentrick circles,
to determine the distance from the cen-
tre; the point aimed at. The distance of
the target, from the firing station, is
generally about a hundred yards, and,
for security, it is placed at the bottom
of a hill, or a large mound of earth
is raised, or faggots are piled up to
such a length or height, as is deemed
sufficient to stop all the stray balls. In
flat countries the latter securities are
absolutely necessary; but in many
places nature points out its glens and
recesses, where the target may be
placed without any aid from art, and
on the sea side no security is wanting.
In many places, an old chalk pit an-
swers the same purpose. According to
the skill of those who fire in a flat
country, the mound behind the target
may be made of different dimensions;
and instead of a large mound, which it
is often inconvenient to raise behind
the target, a few small mounds, or
piles of faggots, may be raised between
the firing station and a small target
mound, which shall answer the same
purpose. Thus, suppose the distance
between the target mound and the
firing station to be a hundred yards,
and the target mound to be twenty feet
wide, and twelve feet high, two po-
sitions may be taken, one ten yards,
the other thirty yards, from the firing
station; and at each two mounds should
be raised, between which, if the ball
passes low enough, it will be stopped
by the target mound; and if the piece
was raised too high, the ball will be
stopped by a cross bar of earth, or fag-
gots, over the mounds, at one or other
of the two positions. The width of
the aperture, at the second position, or
the position distant thirty yards from
the firing station, may be thus taken
by the eye. The target is supposed to
be fixed in the middle of the target
mound, the person standing directly
opposite at the firing station, fixes two
rods, or straight lines, meeting in a
point at the height of his eye, and
making such an angle, that, looking
along each line, he just sees the extre-
mitv of the target-mound. In these
lines, at the distance of thirty yards,
two upright poles are fixed, and the
space between these poles is the open-
ing, through which, if the ball goes, it
will be stopped by the target-mound.
A line being drawn between the two
upright poles, and extended on each
side, to the distance of six or eight feet
from each, an upright pole is fixed; and
if a ball were fired through the space,
between either of the first fixed, and
the adjacent poles, it would not hit the
mound, but go wide of it. This space
is, therefore, to be filled up with earth
or faggots, to intercept the stray balls;
and over them is to be thrown a bar, to
intercept the balls that would otherwise
go over the mound. The height of this
bar from the ground, is found by point-
ing a gun to the top of the target-
mound, whilst a cross pole is raised or
lowered, till it meets the eye; and over
the bar at this height, is to be raised, a
mound of earth, or faggots, three, or
four, feet in height. A ball now direct-
ed for the target, might either pass
through this aperture, or be caught by
the mounds and cross bar, or go wide
of the one, and over the other. At the
distance of ten yards, from the firing
station, two poles are erected, in a
straight line from the eye to the out-
ward extremity of each mound, at the
second position; and there two mounds
are raised like the former, and cross
them a bar is thrown, whose height is
5'2
found by pointing a gun to the top of the earth, over the cross bar at the second position; and upon this bar at the first position, is raised earth or faggots, to the height of three, or four, feet. It is manifest, that a ball directed to the target will, if not taken with an aim that must be corrected by a stander by, in a raw recruit, either pass through the aperture, or be stopped by its mounds. If it pass through this aperture, it must pass through the aperture at the second position, or be stopped by its mounds: and if it passes through this latter aperture, it must either be stopped by the ground, or by the target-mound. To prevent any ill accident from the ball bounding from the ground, dung may be raised to the height of a foot in two places, which will effectually prevent mischief. The respective heights of the target, and the other mounds, as also their widths, and the widths of the apertures, and of the bars over them, and the distances of the target and the other mounds, may be ascertained accurately by trigonometry. At several places on the continent, it is customary for the inhabitants to meet, on the Sunday afternoon, to practise firing at a target; and the practice gives a steadiness which would be found very useful in the regular army. By an easy contrivance, the target is made movable, either advancing from the target-mound, or passing by it, that the eye may be accustomed to a moving object. This is done by a rope, fixed to each side of the target, and which goes round two pulleys, and is drawn by a person behind the target-mound; and when it is made to advance, or retreat, the target is put on wheels, and the ropes going round two pulleys on posts, between the second position, and the target-mound, are drawn by the man behind the target-mound, to make it advance; and for the retreat, two other ropes are fixed behind it, by which it is drawn back by the person behind the target-mound. When it is an object to save the lead, a sheet of lead is suspended behind the target, which the balls perforate; and their motion being retarded by the vibrating lead, is deadened by a brick wall instead of earth behind, and the balls fall to the ground. We are indebted for this article, to the ingenious author of a Treatise on the Principles of Algebra, and of several other useful publications.

TARIES, Fr. Auger, wimble-gimlet. The French make a distinction with respect to the gender of this word. When they express a large sized auger or wimble, they say, Un gros tarier, making it masculine, and when they mean a small sized one, they say, Une petite tarière, making it feminine.

TARIF, Fr. likewise signifies a miner's tool with which he bores into the earth. It is used to force a light match into the chamber of a cannon, and to make it explode.

TARPAULINGS, are made of strong canvas, thoroughly tarred, and cut into different sizes, according to their several uses in the field; such as to cover the powder-wagons and tumbrel (carrying ammunition) from rain: each field-piece has likewise one to secure the ammunition-boxes.

To be TARRED. A cant word used among the guards to signify the punishment which privates undergo among themselves, when they have been tried and sentenced by their own comrades. It is the same as being scabbarded or booted; with this exception, that the guards chastise with their cross-belts, whereas the cavalry and infantry of the line use their boots and scabbards.

TARTARES, Fr. a word used in the French army, to distinguish officers' servants and bat-men from the soldiers that serve in the ranks. Tartare likewise means a grooms.

TARTARS, (Tartares, Fr.) Asians, whose principal arms are the bow and arrow, and sabre or pike. Some few have firelocks and pistols.

Calmic Tartars, a free people inhabiting the borders of the Caspian Sea, and the banks of the river Volga. They are under the immediate protection of Russia, and in consideration of the security they enjoy, they are obliged to serve, when called upon. They consist of wandering hordes, live in tents, and are armed with bows and arrows. Some have rifle guns, with one or two pistols. But they are extremely cruel, and worse disciplined than the Cossacks.

TARTE, Fr. Bogs.

TAS, Fr. A heap. When the works of a fortification are lined with turf and fascines, &c. small beds of earth are previously
previously prepared and laid one over another, till the necessary thickness is obtained; when completed it is called Tas de gazon ou de placage; a heap of turf or a placage, which see.—Tas is likewise used in a sense of contempt to signify a crowd.—Un tas de fainéans; a heap, or crowd of parasites.

Un Tas de mensonges. A heap of lies.

Tas de charge, Fr. An arch made in a particular manner. It is generally found in gothic buildings.

TASA, Ind. A kind of drum, formed from a hemisphere of copper, hollowed out and covered with goatskin. It is hung before from the shoulders, and beat with two rattans.

TASSEAU, Fr. A small anvil. It likewise signifies a bracket.

TASSES. Armour for the thighs, so called.

TASSETTE, Fr. All those parts of an iron armour which are under the cuirass, and serve to cover the thighs of an armed man.

TATTA, Ind. A bamboo frame, which encloses an herb called jawassee. Frames of this sort are made to put to the different openings of a room; by throwing water against them, the hottest wind, in passing through, becomes cool.

TAUGOUR, Fr. A small lever which is used for various purposes.

TAUPINS, Francis Taupins, Fr. A name which was formerly given to a body of free archers, or Francis archers, in France. This body, consisting chiefly of countrymen and rustics, were probably so called from taupe, a mole; of which there are great quantities in the fields. Taupin likewise signifies swarthily.

TAX. A tribute, or duty rated on land, &c.

TAX upon property or income Tax. A tribute required from all persons, civil as well as military, of the tenth part of their incomes, if they exceed 60l. per annum.

This tax is peculiarly burdensome to British officers, as may be seen by the following extract out of the regimental companion.

The lowest tradesman in Great Britain has raised the prices of all the commodities he sells, in proportion to the influx of money, and the increased value of the several necessaries of life. By so doing, he is enabled to meet the exigencies of government, without materially breaking into the capital upon which he began trade. But this is not the case of a British officer. The subaltern alone excepted, (and on him the tax does not press so heavily) every commissioned officer in the army receives the same pay which was given in the reign of Queen Anne; when all the articles of life could be bought for two-thirds less than they cost now. So that an individual, who laid out in those days any given sum for a company, could live upon his pay with considerable ease; whereas, in these days, he can scarcely procure the necessaries of life. We therefore, humbly conceive, that before the legislature, or government, interposed with the army on this head, some steps should have been taken, to put military men upon the same ground, that their fellow subjects stand. Their pay ought to have been increased in proportion to the rise of the several commodities of life; and if the exigencies of the state be such, that persons of all descriptions must contribute, let those at least, who make the greatest sacrifices, be entitled to common justice. For we still maintain—without running the hazard of being contradicted—that to tax one class of the community, without considering its relative situation as to others, is a hardship, if not unjust, bordering upon injustice. Even generally considered, it is peculiarly partial; for it operates upon British officers in two uncommon ways. They pay, as we have already observed, not only as much as their fellow subjects, out of a property which is two-thirds less in value, (on account of the increased prices of the articles of life, and from the stationary condition of their own resources,) than it was in the reign of Queen Anne; but they are also taxed again in the additional charge which is made by every tradesman to bear him, in some degree, harmless of the impost. See also British Pay.

TAX on the use of hair powder, or powder Tax. A contribution which is exacted from the public, and to which all officers in the army, subalterns excepted, are liable. The volunteer corps
are exempted, from the private to the colonel inclusive.

TCHIAROTCHEKA. A small measure of brandy, which the Russian soldier takes with his toloqueno on service.

TE, Fr. a term used among miners to express a figure which greatly resembles the letter T, and which consists of a certain arrangement and disposition of the furnaces, chambers, or lodgments that are made under any particular part of a fortification, in order to blow it up. The Té has four lodgments; the double Té has eight; and the triple Té has twelve.

TEBET, a sort of hatchet which the Turks use in war. It hangs suspended on one side of the saddle.

TECHNICAL, (Technique, Fr.) All terms, or words which have been invented for the purpose of expressing particular arts, are called technical.

Mots Techniques, Fr. Technical words.

TE DEUM, as far as it concerns military matters, is a holy hymn sung in thanksgiving for any victory obtained.

TEEP, Ind. a contract or note of hand.

TEFTERDA Effendi. The commissary general is so called among the Turks.

TEINT, (Teinte, Fr.) In painting, an artificial or compound colour, or the several colours which are used in a picture, considered as more or less, high or bright, or deep or thin, or weakened, &c. to give the proper relief, or softness, or distance, &c. of several objects.

Teint, which is used to draw a plan, Teint d'ont se servent pour lever un plan, Fr. Teint, in general acceptation of the word, means any shade that is given to an object which is raised from the canvas, paper, &c. and placed in perspective.

TELAMONES, a term used in ancient architecture, to express the figures of men supporting entablatures, and other projectures.

TELEGRAPH, a machine by which any combination of letters, or words, may be made known in fine weather, to a person within sight of it, by means of a telescope. It is made in England with three upright beams, and three cross parallel beams, which divide the space between the four outside beams into six compartments, to each of which is a shutter, opened, or shut, by means of a string and pulley. Use of this machine is a room provided with telescopes, in which the observer, sitting at a table, can, by drawing the strings, open, or shut, any shutter, to pleasure. The letters of the alphabet are expressed according to agreement, each by a certain position of the shutters, and the other positions serve for any signal which has been previously determined upon. At proper distances, machines of this kind are erected, and in each, the observer is to keep a watchful eye on the two, between which it is, and upon the signal given by either, to take notice. Suppose it to be marked by shutting all the shutters, he draws all the strings, by which his shutter is all closed, and waits till the observer at the next telegraph has done the same! He now observes, with the telescope, the new position of the shutters at the first telegraph, which he repeats, and writes it down in a book, waiting also till the second telegraph has done the same. In the same manner, every new position, made by the first, is repeated by the middle and last telegraph, and so on by as many telegraphs as there may be between the first and last station. The time required to convey intelligence, in this manner, may easily be calculated if it is done by letters; each letter is made by moving one, or more ropes, and according to the number of letters and words, for there is a mark for the end of each word, the larger will be the time of making the signals; but this is so short a time, that in five minutes, intelligence may be conveyed from Deal to London, a distance of upwards of seventy miles. Numbers may be made with great ease; that a position is given, denoting, that the following positions represent numbers, and then there are nine positions determined on for the nine figures, and one for the cipher; and any number may now be represented in the same manner, as with the figures in writing. The first position stands for a figure in the place of units, the second for
figure in the place of tens, the third or a figure in the place of hundreds, and so on. Thus supposing it had been agreed upon, that the first, third, fourth and sixth shutters being open, should mean the enemy has landed, and the three first open represent Romney. Then it would require eleven positions to say: The enemy has landed forty thousand men at Romney, which would be known at London in ten minutes, and every movement of the enemy’s troops would be known in London, within five minutes after it was made, till the enemy had taken possession of the nearest telegraph. Telegraphs may be made portable for the use of armies, and instead of frames, posts with balls will answer the same objects. Also a sash window with six panes of glass, may serve the same purpose, a piece of pasteboard being adapted to each pane; and such is the facility of corresponding by signals, that in case of invasion, by means only of steeples and houses, with a few flags and pasteboard, every movement of an enemy may be known over the whole kingdom, within six hours after it has been made.

Marine Telegraph, an invention of Capt. Sir Home Popham, of the royal navy, has been used with great benefit by him at different times, and by many others. When Admiral Dickson commanded the North Sea fleet, during the late war, and was lying off Elsinour, Sir Home Popham was stationed off Copenhagen with the Romney man of war. To facilitate the conveyance of intelligence, the latter invented a set of flags to be used as a sea telegraph; and although the distance between these places is at least six miles, yet it was conveyed in five minutes. He afterwards practised it while commanding in the Red Sea, and brought it to great perfection. On his return from thence to Calcutta, he printed at the Company’s press there, a small volume, entitled "A Marine Vocabulary; or, Telegraphic signals." In April 1805, he returned to England, and submitted his plan to several of the first naval characters, who approved highly of it, and deemed that it might be of the most essential service in the royal navy. This induced him to reprint his work with great additions and improvements.

It is divided into three parts, the second and third not being in the original work. The two first parts consist of a thousand words alphabetically arranged, and the third of as many sentences, also arranged alphabetically from a leading word. The first number of the first part begins with 26; the preceding 25 comprise the letters of the alphabet, from A to Z, and numbers from 1 to 25. Flags are made to represent these.

The words, in the first part, are those mostly made use of in conversation and writing. The second part begins with 1026, and consists of words next useful to those in the first, or which have been forgot. The third part begins with 2026, and is made up of short sentences, applicable to military, or general, conversation. These are intended to save the use of many signals; as by one flag a whole message may be conveyed.

It has been already mentioned, that flags represent the alphabet and figures.

There are also the following flags made use of:—A cypher flag, a substitute flag, a preparative flag, and flags to distinguish a message finished, understood, not understood, or message to be answered, and a numerical pendant. A flag hoisted alone, or under another, represents units; when two flags are hoisted, the upper represents tens; when three are hoisted, the uppermost is to represent hundreds, the next tens, and the lowest units. The thousands are denoted by balls or pennants, as may appear most likely to be seen, inferior or superior; superior 1000, inferior 2000; as for example:—

No. 1026—Aback.

No. 2026—Shall I leave off action?

When the substitute flag is hoisted under other flags, it is to represent the same figure as the flag immediately above it.—For example: to represent the number 33, the substitute flag must be placed under that representing 3. When the cypher is put under other flags, it represents the cypher; as under 3, it stands for 30.

Words, not in the vocabulary, may be spelt by the numerical alphabet from 1 to 25.. When it is necessary to express
express numbers in a message, the numerical pennant must be hoisted with the signal. When it is inconvenient to hoist three flags, and a pennant at the same place, the two upper may be at one place, and the two others at another; taking places progressively, as follows: first, main; second, fore; third, mizen; fourth, gaff; fifth, ensign-staff.

In cases of doubt, a ship is to repeat the signal instead of the answering pennant; or when any particular number in a message is not understood, it is expressed by hoisting the numerical pennant, with the word, or sentence, beginning from the first word. For example: if it was the fourth word, when the message was finished, the numerical pennant (4) must be hoisted by the ship not understanding. The ship making signal is then to repeat that word; and if not then comprehended, to change it for one nearest and synonymous. When the cypher flag is hoisted singly, it is to annul the signal made, or making.

Sir Home Popham's marine telegraph does not in any degree interfere with the signals established by the Lords of the Admiralty, for the use of his Majesty's navy. The marine telegraph is used by the ships of the honourable East India Company.

TELESCOPE, (Telescope, Fr.) An optical instrument, composed of lenses, by means of which remote objects appear as if high at hand. The telescope was invented by Galilei.

TELINGY, Ind. A word used upon the Coromandel coast to signify Sepoy.

To TELL off. A term used in military formations, to designate the relative proportions of any given body of men. Thus a battalion may be told off into wings, grand divisions, divisions or companies, subdivisions or sections. It is the peculiar duty of every adjutant and serjeant-major to be particularly expert at telling off. Squadrons of horse are told off by half squadrons, 4 divisions, 8 sub-divisions, ranks by threes, and files right and left.

TÉMÉRAIRE, Fr. Rash; heedless of danger. *Un homme téméraire, a rash man.* A French author observes under this word, (after having said the French were naturally rash) that courage is not always an inanimate, or even a companion of rashness; and the latter too often exceeds the bounds of sober discipline. There are, however, occasions and moments, in which a soldier may be rash; particularly: a storming party, and when he means a breach.

TÉMIN, Fr. a witness. It likewise signifies the second in a duel.

A piece of tinder (is also so called) which corresponds in size and preparation, with that which a miner lays in the saucisson. By means of this duplicate, he can ascertain the moment of explosion.

TÉMOINS, Fr. In civil and military architecture, are pieces of earth standing as marks or witnesses in the foyers or places which the workmen emptying, that they may know exactly how many cubical fathoms of earth have been carried.

TEMPER. A state of steel or other metal, that best suits it for the use to which it is to be applied.—Thus, the blade of a sword should be so tempered as to admit of considerable flexure without breaking, yet so elastic as to return to its shape, on the pressure being removed.

To TEMPER. In a military sense, to form metals to a proper degree of hardness.

TEMPEST, (Tempête, Fr.) According to Dr. Johnson, the utmost violence of the wind: the names by which the wind is called according to the gradual increase of its force seem to be: a breeze; a gale; a gust; a storm; a tempest.

TEMPLAR, (Templier, Fr.) See Military Orders.

TENABLE, (Tenable, Fr.) such as may be maintained against opposition; such as may be held against attacks.

TENAILLE, Fr. (This word literally means shears.) A military evolution which was performed in the times of the ancients. In page 206 of Observations on the Military Art, we have the following account of it:—

A phalanx, attacked by a lance or triangular wedge, bent its right and left forward by a half-quarter conversion, each wing on their common center; and when
when they found themselves opposite the sides of the enemy's arrangement, they marched on their own side, right before them; by which means they both enclosed and attacked the enemy together, at the same time, while the head was engaged and at blows with the center of the phalans that had kept its ground. Such is the description authors have left us of the design and effects of this manœuvre.

The tenaille had considerable advantage over the triangular wedge; but, according to the Chevalier Folard, it was not equally efficacious against the column. The latter could alter the direction of its march, and fall upon one of the wings, whether in motion or not, or detach the section of the tail, or rear, to take its wings in flank, while it was occupied in making the quarter conversion. The column and tenaille were formed for acting against each other, and could only be victorious over one another by the superior abilities of their commander. I fancy, however, the column was always exposed to less danger than the tenaille, for the latter could not pursue the column without changing its order; whereas the column must destroy, and, in a manner, annihilate the tenaille, in case it could once break it.

The tenaille is unquestionably an excellent manœuvre, and strictly conformable to a very wise maxim, which directs us to multiply our strength and efforts as much as possible against one point. We sometimes, indeed, make use of it in war without being sensible of its advantages. This, however, does not hinder the manœuvre from being well performed; for the nature of the ground not being level like a sheet of paper, the commander in ranging his troops, according to the advantages of the situation, does not form a perfect tenaille, such as may be drawn or sketched out, but one of an irregular kind, which produces the same effects; and this is what should be sought on all occasions.

Tenailles, in fortification, are low works made in the ditch before the curtains. There are three sorts: viz. the first are the faces of the bastions produced till they meet, but much lower; the second have faces, flanks, and a curtain; and the third have only faces and flanks.

Single Tenaille, (Tenaille simple, Fr.) is a work whose front is advanced towards the country, having two faces, forming a re-entering angle: its two long sides terminate on the counterscarp, opposite to the angle of the shoulder.

Double Tenaille, (Tenaille double, or flanquée, Fr.) is a work whose front, having 4 faces, forms 2 re-entering, and 3 salient angles: its long sides are likewise parallel, and terminate on the counterscarp, opposite to the angle of the shoulder. Both the single and double tenailles have this fault, viz. that they are not flanked or defended at the re-entering angle, because the height of the parapet hinders the soldiers from discovering before that angle. Therefore tenailles should only be made when there is not room enough to make hornworks. The ramparts, parapets, ditches, covert-way, and glacis of tenailles, are the same with other out-works.

Tenaille of a place, is what is comprehended between the points of two neighbouring bastions; as the faces, flank, and curtains. Hence it is said, the enemy attacked the whole tenaille of a place, when they made two attacks on the faces of the two bastions.

Tenailles, Fr. pincers, nippers, tenails.
Tenailleter, Fr. to tear off the flesh with red hot pincers. This punishment existed in civilized Europe, until a year or two before the French revolution.

Tenailleton, Fr. This is sometimes called, among the French, grande lunette. It is a work composed of two parts, each of which covers the faces of the half-moon; in whose front the tenaille is constructed.

Un Tenailleton, Fr. a little tenaille.

See Fortification.

Tendelet, Fr. an awning; such as is used on board of ship, and over carriages, in hot countries.

Tendre, Fr. to stretch; to spread. This word has various significations in the French language. In military matters, it is common to say,

Tendre un piege a quelqu'un, Fr. to lay a snare for any body.

Tendre une marquise, une tente, Fr. to pitch a marquise, a tent.

Tenir, Fr. to hold, to keep, &c.
tente, which is appropriated for the sick. It sometimes happens, that when a contagious disorder breaks out in a camp, or in barracks, the persons infected are removed from the hospital and lodged in a tent, which is pitched for that purpose, in the neighbourhood. It is usual for the commanding officer of the regiment to order one or more sentries to be furnished to the regimental hospital, and the same to the hospital tent, which sentries are directed to permit no person to enter but those concerned in the hospital, or belonging to the staff, and officers of the regiment. They are to be particularly careful in preventing bribery, or any thing improper from being carried into the hospital; nor are they to permit any patient to go out (to the necessary excepted) without a ticket of leave from the attending surgeon. See pages 29 and 21 of Regulations for the better Management of the Sick.

Laboratory Tent, in artillery, a large tent which is sometimes carried to the field for the convenience of fire-workers and bombardiers. The weight complete, with poles, pins, &c. 3 cwt 24 lbs. length of ridge pole 18 feet, length of poles 14½ feet.

Tent bedstead, a small portable bedstead, so contrived as to correspond with the shape of an officer's tent.

Tent-pins, pieces of wood, which are indented at the top, and made sharp at the bottom, to keep the cords of a tent or marquee firm to the earth. There are four large ones which serve for the weather cords.

Tent-poles, the poles upon which a tent or marquee is supported.

Tent-walls. See WALL.

Tent likewise means lint to put in a wound.

TENTED, having tents pitched on it. Hence the tented field.

TENTORIA, the tents or pavilions under which the ancient Roman soldiers, and, indeed, the shepherds of Italy were accustomed to lie. The first tents were made out of the branches of trees; these were improved into covers made of the skins of wild beasts, and kept together by means of cords. When the Romans wished to express a distinction between a soldier's and a shepherd's tents, they said of the former sub pellius esse, to be under skins; in the
the same manner that we say, to be under canvas. During the winter months, the Roman tents were made of wood.

Tergiducteur, Fr. from the Latin tergildo, the bringer up of a rear file of soldiers, or Surr-file.

Military Terms. (Termes de guerre, Fr.) certain technical expressions, which, either directly or indirectly, ought to be used by every military man, when he writes upon his profession, or when he relates the events of war.

Ternir, Fr. to tarnish; to soil. Ternir sa reputation, Fr. to tarnish one's reputation.

Ternan, Fr. a scythe with a handle to it, which the Turks use in war.

Terrain, Fr. This word is sometimes written terrain, and signifies, generally, any space or extent of ground.

Gagner du Terrain peu-à-peu, Fr. to gain ground little by little.

Perdre du Terrain, Fr. to lose ground.

Ménager son Terrain, Fr. to make the most of your ground. It is likewise used in a figurative sense, viz. Un homme est fort quand il est sur son terrain, Fr. A man always speaks with great confidence when he is thoroughly master of the subject.

Terrain du camp, Fr. the ground within the lines of encampment.

Lever le Terrain, Fr. to reconnoitre, to take a survey of ground.

Chicaner le Terrain, Fr. to dispute the ground; to fight it inch by inch.

Tenir un grand Terrain, Fr. to take up much ground.

Terrasse. See Mortar.

Terrass, { (Terrasse, Fr.) a platform; a bank of TERRACE, } earth; an open raised walk in a garden, &c. Among the ancients a bank of this sort answered the purpose of an epaulement in modern fortification. This bank was raised behind in such a manner, that it surrounded the fosse, and served as a cover for the archers, who poured in showers of darts, while the exterior defences of a fortified town or place, were insulted at all points. The terrasses also answered the same end, in those days, that trenches and contravallations do in these times. A terrass likewise signified, in former times, a sort of cavalier, which was carried to a great height, in order to overlook and command the walls of a town. These terrasses were constructed by means of mantelets, which stood very high, for the purpose of covering the working parties from the arrows, &c. of the besieged: Alexander the Great had frequent recourse to these terrasses when he attacked a town.

Contre-Terrasse, Fr. a terrace, or platform, that is raised above another.

Terrasser, Fr. to throw down; to rout completely.

Terrassier, Fr. This word is used among the French not only to signify the person who undertakes to see heaps of earth removed, &c. for any specific purpose, but likewise the man who actually carries it.

Terre, Fr. earth, ground.

La Terre, Fr. the earth; the ground.

Outrages de Terre, Fr. works which are thrown up with earth. This does not, however, imply, that nothing but earth is used; since palisades, traverses, chevaux de frises, &c. may also form part of the defence.

A Terre, Fr. on the earth or ground.

Etre genou à Terre, Fr. to kneel.

Genou à Terre, Fr. kneel; a word of command used in the French service.

Terre-Plein, Fr. See Fortification.

Terrer, (se Terrer, Fr.) to hide under ground. The French say, des gens de guerre se sont bien terrés; meaning thereby, that they had thrown up entrenchments with earth, so as to be covered from the enemy's fire. Terrer une aritifice, to cover the head of any fire-work with earth.

Terres-Amendés, Fr. earths that have been used in the cleansing of salt-petre. Salt-petre-men call these earths Terres riunies.

Terreur, Fr. fear; apprehension.

Repandre la Terreur, Fr. to spread terror; to cause dismay. Jeter la terreur parmi les ennemis, to throw terror amongst the enemies. A French author has made a very just distinction between causing fear and apprehension to exist in an adversary's army, and occasioning terror and dismay, among the inhabitants of a country, through which troops
troops are obliged to march. Marshal Saxe was particularly cautious on this head; so much so, that he was always well received by the inhabitants of every place, where he had made war. This cannot be said of all conquerors or generals.

**Terreur** panique, Fr. See **Panic**.

**Tertiate**, in gunnery, is to examine the thickness of the metal of a piece of artillery, in order to judge of its strength. This is usually done with a pair of calliper compasses.

**Tertiating**, a piece of ordnance, is to find whether it has its due thickness at the vent, trunnions, and neck; if the trunnions and neck are in their due order, and the chase straight, &c.

**Tertre**, Fr. a small rising ground that stands unconnected with any other.

**Tessera**, See **Signum Militare**.

**Tesserae** Militares, military watchwords or countersigns. Among the ancient Romans the military watchword, or countersign, was passed in the following manner:

One soldier was selected throughout ten legions, and was called tesserarius, the bringer, or the giver, of a watchword. It was the duty of this man to wait, at sunset, upon the tribune of the guard, from whom he received, written upon a small wooden tablet, certain orders which had been issued by the general. This tablet, besides the watchword, contained also some specific order from head quarters. As soon as the Tesserarius had received the orders from the tribune, he immediately repaired to his legion, and delivered the tablet to the commanding officer, in the presence of witnesses. This officer transmitted it to the next in command, after having inserted the particulars in his own orderly books; and as each centurion (when he sent to the tribune for orders) was obliged to transmit the tablet, containing the watchword, after sunset, the latter, by referring to the minutes, (which he kept of every part of the army), easily ascertained every omission or neglect of orders; and if the person, so offending, affected to deny his having seen the tablet, the witnesses were examined, as to the delivering of it by the Tesserarius.

**Tessons**, Fr. potsherds.

**Testament**, Fr. will, testament.

**Testament Militaire**, Fr. among the French, a will which is made in the presence of two witnesses only, by word of mouth, and is not committed to paper.

**Testimony**, verbal declaration, given upon oath or honour, before any court martial. The testimony of a witness should neither be influenced nor interrupted, and the precise words used by him should be written down in the proceedings without any alteration.

**Testudo**, in the military art of the ancients, was a kind of cover or screen, which the soldiers of each company made themselves of their bucklers, by holding them up over their heads, and standing close to each other. This expedient served to shelter them from darts, stoues, &c. thrown upon them, especially those from above, when they went to the assault.

**Testudo**, was also a kind of large wooden tower, which moved on several wheels, and was covered with bullocks' hides: it served to shelter the soldiers when they approached the walls to mix them, or to batter them with rams.

**Tete**, Fr. head.

**Tete du Camp**, Fr. the head of the camp, or the front ground which looks towards the country; also that part of a camp which lies contiguous to the enemy, and where the troops bivouac.

**Tete de la Sappe**, Fr. head of the sap.

**Tete de Chevalement**, Fr. a cross beam which lies upon two stays, and supports any part of a wall, &c. whilst it is in repair.

**Faire (ou tenir) Tete à quelqu'un**, Fr. to oppose a person; to keep him at bay.

**Avoir quelqu'un en Tete**, Fr. to have any person opposed to one, viz. Turc au vent en tête Montecucculi; Turc was opposed by Montecucculi.

**Tete basse**, Fr. headlong. Se précipiter sur son ennemi tête basse; to plunge headlong into the thickest of the enemy; to run into danger without the least fear or apprehension.

**A la Tete**, Fr. at the head of.

**A la Tete des troupes**, Fr. as the head of a body of armed men.

**Tete d'une armée**, Fr. the head of an army. This consists of the troops which
which are furthest advanced towards the enemy, or on any given point of direction.

Montrer une Tète, Fr. This phrase is used among the French to signify any particular direction that an army takes.

Tête de tranchée, Fr. that part of a trench which is closest to a fortified town or place.

Tête de Maure, Fr. a sort of grenade which is thrown out of a piece of ordnance.

Tête d’un ouvrage à corne, à couronne, Fr. that part of a horn, or crown-work, which looks towards the country.

Tête d’un ouvrage, d’une armée, qui assiège une ville, Fr. that part of a fortified work, or proportion of an army, which looks towards the country, and is connected with the line of contravallation.

Avoir la Tête de tout, Fr. to be the most advanced.

Tête de pont, Fr. that part of a bridge which is on the enemy’s side.

When the bridge is fortified on both sides, the French say, les deux têtes de pont.

Tête de Port, Fr. This word means literally a hog’s head. It is used to denote a military arrangement of the triangular kind. Those mentioned under the term wedge, were composed of ranks, greater one than another, in a regular progression from the incisive angle to the base. The tête de port was formed of small bodies ranged in lines in the same sense, and in the same progression as the ranks in the preceding wedges; that is to say, a small body (probably square) was placed at the head, another of the same size was posted behind it, having two others, one on its right, the other on its left, both extending the full length of their front beyond the wings of the first. Behind those three, five others were ranged in the same order, and so on successively until all were placed.

This arrangement is equal to the former (viz. that of the wedge) with regard to defects; as to advantages, it has but one only, which will never be of weight enough to gain it any degree of reputation; it is this, that being composed of small bodies, each having its leader or commander, all the different parts are more or less capable of defence, should they be attacked at the time they are forming or dividing; and if the enemy attempted to form the Tenaillle, they might detach some of those small bodies to interrupt their motions, or to attack them in flank.—See Observations on the Military Art, page 205.

Têtes, Fr. in the plural number, are the same as men or lives, viz. La prise d’une place a coût bien des têtes, the reduction or taking of a place has cost many lives or men.

TÉTHER, (Entrave, Fr.) a string by which horses are held from pasturing too wide. We say figuratively, to go the length of one’s tether; to speak or act with as much freedom as circumstances will admit. An officer, who has any certain powers vested in him, should be particularly cautious bow he makes use of them.

TETRAEDRON, (Tétraèdre, Fr.) in geometry, one of the five regular bodies. It is a pyramid which is terminated by four equilateral triangles, that are equal to each other; in the same manner that the tetragon is a rectangular figure of four equal sides, which has four right angles.

TETRAGONAL, square, having equal sides and angles.

TETRARCH, a Roman governor of the fourth part of a province.

TEUTONIC, (Teutonique, Fr.) See Orders.

TEVEEL, Ind. The treasury.

TEVEELDAR, Ind. The treasurer.

THANE. An ancient military title of honour, now obsolete.

To THANK. In military matters, to make honourable mention of a person or persons, for having behaved gallantly in an action, or otherwise rendered a public service.

To be THANKED. To receive a public testimony of good conduct. Officers, &c. are generally thanked in public orders.

THANKS. Public acknowledgments for gallant actions.

Vote of Thanks. It has been customary, in all civilized countries, for the legislature to pay a public tribute of applause to those warriors, who have fought their country’s battles with succ...
cess, and have otherwise distinguished themselves by particular feats of gallantry and good conduct. The French, during the progress of their revolution, have had frequent recourse to this mode of adding new zeal and fresh courage to their armies, and of expressing national gratitude. It has been the good fortune of this country, to have experienced occasions of testifying a higher sense of its obligations to the navy, than can be found in the history of any people. From the commencement of the war in 1793, until the cessation of hostilities, every session of parliament has had its records marked by the brightest maritime operations; and although the exertions of our land forces have not been equally brilliant in all instances, yet there are none in which the innate bravery of the men has lost one spark of its wonted fire and impetuosity. We may say, (without the hazard of contradiction, and in direct defiance of those flippant characters who feel gratified in every apparent degradation of our national character) that whenever the British forces have acted as one army, without the alloy of foreign auxiliaries, their native spirit has, like sterling ore, stood the most searching ordeal. Without looking for proofs of this assertion in the different pages of history, that are so copiously marked by them, we shall content ourselves with the following extract from the vote of thanks which has unanimously passed both houses of parliament, in testimony of the gallant behaviour of the British troops in Egypt:

"Copy of the Vote of Thanks from the House of Lords, to Major-General, now Lord Hutchinson, &c.

Resolved, Nemine Dissentiente,

That the thanks of this house be given to the honourable Major-General John Hely Hutchinson, second in command, Major-Generals Eyre Coote, John Francis Craddock, the honourable George James Ludlow, John Moore, Richard Earl of Cavan, the honourable Edward Finch, Brigadier-Generals John Stuart, the honourable John Hope, John Doyle, Hildebrande Oakes and Robert Lawson, and to the several officers who served in the army under the command of the late Sir Ralph Abercromby, knight of the most honourable order of the Bath, for their splendid and heroic exertions in effecting a landing on the coast of Egypt, in spite of local difficulties, and in the face of a powerful and well prepared enemy, and in all their subsequent operations, particularly in resisting with signal success the desperate attack made upon them on the 21st of March, 1801, and achieving the brilliant and important victory obtained on that memorable day.

Resolved, Nemine Dissentiente,

That this house doth highly approve of, and acknowledge the distinguished regularity, discipline, coolness, and valour displayed by the non-commissioned officers and private soldiers of the army, serving under the command of the late Lieutenant-General Sir Ralph Abercromby, knight of the most honourable order of the Bath, in the memorable and brilliant operations in Egypt, and that the same be signified to them by the commanders of the several corps, who are desired to thank them for their distinguished and exemplary conduct."

The surrender of Alexandria, and the consequent evacuation of Egypt by the French forces, (who in spite of their veteran knowledge and persevering resistance, were obliged to yield to troops, certainly less experienced and less inveterate to war,) sufficiently prove the accuracy of our remark, and the justness of the tribute, which both houses have paid to national spirit and good discipline.

THANLACHES, Fr. Weapons which were used among the Gauls or ancient French, of an offensive and defensive nature. The former were made in the shape of halberts or pikes, and the latter were a sort of small round shields.

THEATRE of War. Any extent of country in which war is carried on may be so called. The French say Théâtre de la Guerre. It signifies the same with us as Seat of War. According to Turpin, page 21, in his Essay on the Art of War, there are but three sorts of countries which may become the theatre of war; an open country divided by rivers, a woody, or a mountainous one. The dispositions for a march must of course
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THE
on the other side, the arms of the Arch-Duchy of Austria, with the motto Fortitudo. The knights wear, on the breast, in a button-hole of the coat or waistcoat, a similar but smaller cross, pendant from a ribbon, of two fingers breadth, and of the same colours.

This order is not purely honorary. A certain allowance is given to every individual belonging to it as an augmentation to his pay. Twenty grand crosses are entitled to an annual pension of fifteen hundred florins each; one hundred knights to an annual pension of six hundred florins each; and another hundred knights to an annual pension of four hundred florins: several allowances are to be enjoyed from the day of their reception into the order. The remaining members of the order are provided for as the vacancies occur, and succeed in rotation.

The privileges and honours, which are attached to this order, are very considerable. The persons admitted are not only knights by the fact of their admission, but they may, upon application for the same, obtain the rank of baron.

In the statutes of the Imperial Order, it is particularly expressed, that, in imitation of the rule observed with respect to the Order of the Golden Fleece, (namely, that the ensigns of no other order can be worn therewith,) the ensign of the Imperial military order of Maria Theresa, may be worn at the same time, and together with the Golden Fleece, with this exception, that no order of knighthood of a foreign power can, or shall be worn with the military order of Maria Theresa.

The following letter was transmitted from Vienna, on the 7th of November, 1800, respecting the very flattering manner with which this order had been conferred by the Emperor of Germany, upon those officers of the 15th Light Dragoons, who had distinguished themselves in the action of Villers en couché, near Cambrai, on the 24th of April, 1794.

Sir,

I have received from his Excellency Baron Thugut, eight crosses of the Order of Maria Theresa, which the Emperor has been pleased to confer on your-

self and seven other officers undersigned, of the 15th regiment of Light Dragoons, who distinguished themselves in a most gallant action, near Villers en Couché, on the 24th of April, 1794.

His Imperial Majesty had already testified the high sense he entertained of the brilliant and important service, which the regiment performed on that occasion, by presenting the officers engaged with a medal, struck for the purpose of commemorating that distinguished action, and affording to those who achieved it, a lasting testimony of his approbation and gratitude. It was deemed, at that time, worthy of the cross of Maria Theresa; but at that period, a doubt was entertained, whether this order could be conferred on foreigners: that difficulty being now removed, his Imperial Majesty awards himself, with pleasure, of the occasion to evince his high esteem for the regiment, as well as his regard for the individuals, by investing with this distinguished order of merit, gentlemen who have proved themselves so worthy to wear it.

In transmitting to you, Sir, these crosses, to be distributed to the officers for whom they are destined; I cannot omit the opportunity of expressing the satisfaction I have experienced, from the share which my situation here has afforded me, in a transaction, which, while it does honour to the liberality of his Imperial Majesty, and throws so much lustre on the corps, and on those who are immediately concerned, reflects, at the same time, credit on the country to which they belong.

(Signed)  

Mixna.  

His Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at the Court of Vienna.  

Lt. Col. William Aylett,  
15th Light Dragoons.

The several officers entitled to the order received the crosses, &c. free of all expense from the Court of Vienna: and they have since been regularly notified in the British Gazette, after having paid the following fees:

A. B. late of the 15th Regiment of Light  
Dragoons.  

May 29.  

To fees due to the register of the college of arms for recording.
ing his Majesty’s royal licence and permission that A.B. of the 15th regiment of light dragoons, may accept the Imperial military order of Maria Theresa, and bear the insignia of knight of the said military order, conferred upon him by his Imperial Majesty Francis II, Emperor of Germany, for his share of the signal services rendered by detachment of the 15th regiment of light dragoons, near Villars en Couché, on the 24th April 1794.

Ditto for recording the documents of his Imperial Majesty conferring the said military order of Maria Theresa, upon A.B. 10 0 0
Earl Marshall’s fee thereon 3 6 8
Usual fee to Garter, king at arms, for passing the business 5 5 0
Fee for the royal sign manual at the Duke of Portland’s office 11 7 6
Insertion in the Gazette 1 1 0
Contingent expenses 2 2 0

Total £ 39 8 2

THERMES, Fr. Small barges or boats in which persons formerly bathed.

THERMOMETER, (Thermomètre, Fr.) An instrument for measuring the heat of the air, or of any body.

THERMOSCOPE, (Thermoscope, Fr.) An instrument by which the degrees of heat are discovered; a thermometer.

THIEF, any person that robs another. The character of a thief is of so foul a cast in a military life, that the least imputation of dishonesty incapacitates either officer or soldier from remaining in the service.

Soldier’s THIGH. A well-known part of the human frame which takes its peculiar military application from the notorious poverty of army men in general. Hence Soldier’s Thigh figuratively means an empty purse, or, speaking familiarly, a pair of breeches that sit close and look smooth, because the pockets have nothing in them.

THILL. The shafts of a wagon; hence the horse which goes between the shafts is called the thill-horse, or thiller.

To THIN, (Eclaircir, Fr.) To make less numerous. As to thin the ranks by a heavy discharge of ordnance and fire-arms.

THIRTEENER. A shilling is so called in Ireland; thirteen pence of that country’s currency being only equal to twelve pence English.

THREE DEEP. Soldiers drawn up in three ranks, consisting of front, center, and rear, are said to be three deep. It is the fundamental order of the infantry, in which they should always form and act at close order, and for which all their operations and movements are calculated.

THREES. A term used in the tellings off in squadron.

Ranks by THREES. Each half squadron told off by threes. See Cavalry Regulations, page 2.

To THROW. To force any thing from one place to another; thus artilliers say to throw a shot or shell, or so many shot or shells were thrown.

THRUST, (Botte, Fr.) Hostile attack with any pointed weapon, as in fencing. When one party makes a push with his sword to wound his adversary with the point, it is called a thrust.

To THRUST-home. (Tirer à fond, Fr.) A term used in fencing. This thrust is used after any parade of tierce, or of half-circle, when the adversary does not throw in a reposte, or is late in doing it.

To THRUST carte, (Tirer carte, Fr.) The thrust in carte is made after a close disengage, or disengagement.

To THRUST tierce, (Tirer tierce, Fr.) This thrust differs from the thrust in carte over the arm, only by the position of the hand, which must be reversed; and it is never used in attacks.

To THRUST seconde, (Tirer seconde, Fr.) The thrust in seconde is commonly done on the following occasion; having parried in tierce, if you perceive that your adversary keeps his sword heavy against your’s, disengage dexterously under the lift, reversing the nails downwards, and make your thrust on the flank; taking care that your arm
arm be in a perfect opposition, and that your head is inside the thrust.

THUMBSTALL. (Couvre-platine, Fr.)
A piece of leather which every careful soldier carries with him to secure the lock of his musquet from moisture.

THUNDERING-legion. This legion is said to have saved the whole army, then ready to perish from thirst, by procuring, by their prayers, a very plentiful shower thereon, and at the same time, a furious storm of hail, mixed with lightning and thunderbolts, on the enemy.

This is the account commonly given by ecclesiastical historians, and the whole history is engraved in bass-reliefs on the Antonine column. See Fulminante.

TIDEGATE. See Sluice-gate.

TIERCE, a thrust in fencing, delivered at the outside of the body over the arm.

TILE, (Tuile, Fr.) in military build-

TYLE, (Tiling, a sort of thin, factitious, luminaled brick, used on the roofs of houses; or more properly a kind of clayey earth, kneaded and moulded of a just thickness, dried and burnt in a kiln, like a brick, and used in the covering and paving of different kinds of military and other buildings. The best brick earth should only be made into tiles.

The tiles for all sorts of uses may now be comprised under 7 heads, viz. 1. The plain tile, for covering of houses, which is flat and thin. 2. The plain tile, for paving, which is also flat but thicker; and its size 9, 10, or 12 inches. 3. The pan-tile, which is also used for covering of buildings, and is hollow, and crooked, or bent, somewhat in the manner of an S. 4. The Dutch glazed pan-tile. 5. The English glazed pan-tile. 6. The gutter-tile, which is made with a kind of wings. And 7. The hip or corner-tile.

Plain TILES, are best when they are firmest, soundest, and strongest. Some are dusker, and others ruddier, in colour. The dusky-coloured are generally the strongest. These tiles are not laid in mortar, but pointed only in the inside.

Paving TILES, are made of a more sandy earth than the common or plain-
tiles: the materials for these last must be absolute clay, but for the others a kind of loam is used. These are made thicker and larger than the common roof-tiles; and, when care has been taken in the choice of the earth, in the management of the fire, they are very regular and beautiful.

Pan TILES, when of the best kind, are made of an earth not much worse than that of the paving-tiles, and often of the same; but the best sort of all is pale-coloured loam that is less sandy, they have about the same degree of fire given them in the baking, and they come out nearly of the same colour. These tiles are laid in mortar, because the fire being very flat, and many of them warped in the burning, will not cover the building so well as that no water can pass between them.

Dutch glazed Pan-TILES, get the addition of glazing in the fire. Many kinds of earthy matter running into a glassy substance in great heat, is of great advantage to them, preserving them much longer than the common pan-tiles, so that they are very well worth the additional charge that attends the using them.

English glazed Pan-TILES are, in general, not so good as the Dutch ones under that denomination; but the process is nearly the same.

Dutch TILES, for chimneys, are of a kind very different from all the rest. They are made of a whitish earth, glazed and painted with various figures, such as birds, flowers, or landscapes, in blue or purple colour; and sometimes quite white: they are about 6.5 inches each way, and three quarters of an inch thick. They are seldom used at present.

Gutter-TILES, are made of the same earth as the common pan-tiles, and only differ from them in shape; but it is advisable that particular care be taken in tempering and working the earth for these, for none are more liable to accidents. The edges of these tiles are turned up at the larger ends for about 4 inches. They are seldom used where lead is to be had.

Hip or Corner-TILES, are at first made flat like pan-tiles of a quadrangular figure, whose two sides are right lines, and the ends arches of circles; the upper end concave, and the lower convex; the latter being about 7 inches as broad as the other: they are about 10.5 inches
TIM

10.5 inches long; but before they are burnt are bent upon a mould in the form of a ridge tile, having a hole at the narrow end, to nail them on the hip corner of the roof.

Ridge-Tiles are used to cover the ridges of houses, and are made in the form of a semi-cylindrical surface, about 13 inches in length, and of the same thickness as plain-tiles; their breadth at the outside measures about 16 inches.

TILLAC, Fr. the same as pont, which signifies the deck of a ship.

Franc-TILLAC, Fr. the lower deck.

TILT, a thrust, or fight with rapiers; also an old military game. See TOURNAMENT.

TILTPER, one who fights or contests in a tournament.

TIMARIOT, a Turkish soldier who has a certain allowance made him, for which he is not only obliged to arm, clothe, and accoutre himself, but he must likewise provide a certain number of militia-men. The allowance is called Timar.

The Timariots are under the immediate command of the Sangaik or Bey, according to their particular distribution. When the Timariots belonging to Natolia, do not join the standard, they forfeit a whole year's allowance, which is deposited in a chest or stock-purse called manufatin. But the Timariots in Europe or Turkey, are not liable to this fine. When they refuse to serve, they are suspended for two years. The income of a Timariot amounts to five thousand aspers, and the Timariots of Hungary have six thousand. When an Hungarian Timariot dies, the Bashaw of Buda has the power of dividing his property into two parts, which is placed to the account of the Ottoman government, and enables it to pay two soldiers.

There are different classes among the Timariots. Some are called Ikmalers, some Ischts, and others Bernobets.

The Ikmalers are in possession of that species of timar which cannot be divided for the benefit of government, after the decease of the individual.

The Ischts are subject to a division of property among two or three persons, at the will of the Porte.

The Bernobets are in possession of that kind of timar, which may become the property of three or four individuals who serve together, or relieve each other alternately, on condition that the one who takes the field enjoys the whole benefit of the timar during his stay with the army. There are many of this kind in Natolia. Every thing which appertains to the Turkish cavalry, known by the name of Topachly, and which is regularly clothed, armed, accoutred, and paid by certain officers belonging to the Ottoman empire, out of revenues called maly-mukata, may be ascertained and known under the several appellations of Timariots, Zeims, Begliers, and Begliereys.

TIMARS, certain revenues, in Turkey, growing out of lands which originally belonged to Christian clergy and nobility, and which the sultans seized, when they conquered the countries they inhabited.

By means of these Timars and Ziamets, the Grand Signor is enabled to support the greatest part of his cavalry.

The Timars differ in value. The richest, however, do not exceed twenty thousand aspers annually, which may be considered as equal to about sixty or seventy pounds sterling; and the Ziamets receive full as much. Those who are entitled to Timars, are called Timariots, and those who have Ziamets are named Zeims.

TIMBALE, Fr. A brass kettle-drum, such as is used in the cavalry. French soldiers say figuratively, faire bouillir la timbale; to make the pot boil.

TIMBAIER. Fr. Kettle drummer.

TIMBER, in military architecture, includes all kinds of felled and seasoned wood used in the several parts of building, &c.

Oak, of all the different kinds of timber known in Europe for building, is the best in every respect; because, when well seasoned and dry, it is very tough and hard: it does not split so easily as other timber, and bears a much greater weight. When it is used under cover, it never perishes, no more than in water; on the contrary, the older it grows the harder it becomes; and when it is exposed to the weather, it exceeds all other timbers for durability. English oak is the best, American the next, then Norway, and lastly German.
**Elm**, if felled between November and February, is all spine, or heart, and no sap, and is of singular use in places where it is always wet or dry. It is very tough and pliable; it is easily worked, and does not readily split; it bears driving of bolts and nails into it better than any other wood; for which reason it is almost the only kind of wood used in artillery.

**Beech** is likewise a very useful wood; it is very tough and white when young, and of great strength, but liable to warp very much when exposed to the weather, and to be worm-eaten when used within doors. It is frequently used for axletrees, fellies, and all kinds of wheelwright work; but where it is kept constantly wet, and free from air, it will outlast oak.

**Ash.** Its use is almost universal, but it is rather scarce in most parts of Europe. It serves in buildings, or for any other uses where it is skreened from the weather: hand-spikes and oars are chiefly made of it; and indeed it is the only wood that is fit for this, or any other purpose, which requires toughness and pliability.

**Fir,** commonly known by the name of deal, is of late much used in building, especially within doors. It wants but little seasoning, and is much stronger while the resinous particles are not exhausted, than when it is very dry: it will last long under water.

**Chesnut-tree,** especially wild chestnut, is by many esteemed to be as good as oak, but is exceedingly rare.

There are many other kinds of wood, but not generally used in military works, consequently not mentioned here.

_Preserving of timber._ When boards, &c. are dried, seasoned, and fixed in their places, care is to be taken to defend and preserve them; to which the tempering them with linseed oil, tar, or the like oleaginous matter, contributes much.

The Dutch preserve their gates, portcullises, draw-bridges, sashes, &c. by coating them over with a mixture of pitch and tar, wherein they strew small pieces of coke, and other shells, beaten almost to powder, and mixed with sea-sand, which incrusts and arms them wonderfully against wind and weather.

**Seasoning of timber.** As every felled, it should be laid in some place, but not out of reach of the wind or sun, which, in excess, subject it to crack and fly. It must be set upright, but laid upon another, only with a small block between, to give it its seasoning, and prevent it becoming which will rot the surface and produce mushrooms on it. Some persons the trees all over with sawdust occasions their drying equally prevents their cracking, as they are wise very apt to do.

Some recommend the burying in the earth, as the best method of seasoning it; and others have found a fine preservative to bury their under the wheat in their granaries: this cannot be made a general practice. In Norway they season their by laying them in salt water for four days, when new sawdust is spread over them, and drying them in the sun: this is a great advantage to them; but as this, nor any thing else, can prevent their shrinking.

Timber should always be seasoned when it is intended for pieces that are to stand under water or air. The Venetians first out this method; and the way they it is this: they put the piece to seasoned in a strong and violent turning it continually round of an engine, taking it out when every where covered with a hard crust; by this means the internal of the wood is so hardened, that earth nor water can damage a long time after.

**TIMBRE,** Fr. This word sometimes used to signify a helmet.

**Timbra,** Fr. stamped. The French say figuratively—**Arsupinatia in bré,** to want sense.

**TIME,** the measure of durations, which soldiers regulate the march; as ordinary, quick, and rest time or step, which are.

**Time,** in manuuring. That necessary interval between the manual exercise, as well as the movement of the army, or of any body of men.
ers in the Austrian service. They take their name from the Tirol, a country in Germany, about 150 miles long, and 120 broad. It is rather mountainous, and is part of the hereditary dominions of the House of Austria.

TIRONES. Among the ancient Romans the Tirones were supernumerary soldiers, who were not enrolled or enlisted, but were regularly sworn when they replaced the supernannated, or dead, belonging to a legion.

TOCSEING ou Tocsin, Fr. an old French word which signified a bell, and which was formerly rung for the purpose of assembling the people. The Tocseing was also used in the army in those days, to sound the charge, or to give notice of the approach of an enemy.

TOGA Militaris, the dress which was anciently worn, tucked up, by the Roman soldiers, when they were quartered in a town. The Sagum was worn in camp.

TOHIE, Ind. a canoe.

TOILE, Fr. canvas. The French say as we do, l'armée est sous la Toile, the army is under canvas, or is encamped.

TOISE, in military mensuration, is a French measure, containing 6 feet, or a fathom: a square toise is 36 square feet, and a cubical toise is 216 feet.

These two measures correspond in the division of the feet; but these divisions being unequal, it is necessary to observe, that the proportion of the yard, as fixed by the Royal Society at London, to the half toise as fixed by the Royal Academy at Paris, is as 36 to 33.355.

TOISE carrée, Fr. any square extent, having six feet in every sense.

TOISE cube, Fr. any substance having 6 feet in length, 6 ditto in breadth, and 6 in depth.

Le Toisiz, Fr. This word is used in the masculine gender, and signifies, in mathematics, the science or art of measuring surfaces and solids, and of reducing the measure by accurate calculation.

Une affaire Toisiz, a familiar phrase, signifying, the thing is done, all over.

TOISER, Fr. to measure by the toise.

TOISER, Fr. in a military sense, to take the height of a man, as toiser un

soldat, to take the height of a soldier. The French likewise say, in a figurative sense, toiser son homme, to examine one's man with great attention, in order to find out his merits, or good qualities.

TOISEUR, Fr. a person employed among the French, in the construction and repairing of fortifications.

TOISEUR, Fr. a measurer.

TOISON d'or, Fr. the golden fleece. La Toison, Fr. the order of the Golden Fleece is so called.

TOKERY, Ind. a basket made via cane.

TOLE, Fr. iron beat into thin plates.

TOLOQUENO, a sort of dam which the Russian soldier bakes thin plates of heated iron, and covers with him for subsistence in time of war.

TOLPACHES. See TALPACHES.

TOMAN, Ind. ten thousand men.

TOMAND, Ind. equal to something more than three guineas.

TOMB, Fr. to fall. Le tombe, the wind falls; tamber entre is mains des ennemis, to fall into the hands of enemies.

TOMBIE, Ind. a wind instrument made in the shape of a globe.

TOMPION. See TAMPION.

TAMSOOK Hazin Zamine, Ind. 1 security for personal appearance.

TAMTOM, Ind. a drum made is the shape of a tambourine.

TONDIN, Fr. a term in architecture which is seldom used. It is the same as the astragal or fillet, which goes round the base of pillars.

TONG. See TÉNAILE.

TONGs of a wagon, a piece of wood fixed between the middle of the hind ends of the shafts, mortised into the fore cross-bar, and let into the hind cross-bar.

TONGUE of a sword, that part of the blade on which the gripe, shell and pommel are fixed.

A triangular TONGUE, the bow of a vessel, figuratively so called from its shape. Its wonderful effect, in perpetually putting an end to the senseless jargon of contending factions, has sometimes been acknowledged. Cromwell, who was a man of few words, and since him Napoleon (equally remarkable for his tact)
TUCITURITY) found the application of it
wonderfully eloquent.

DElV'S TONGUE, a battery so called
in Gibraltar. See Colonel Drinkwater's
account of the memorable defence of
that honorary, but unprofitable spot,
to Great Britain.

TONNAGE, Fr. a word adopted
from our term tonnage.

TONNAGE, a custom or impost due
for mercantile, brought or carried in
tons, from or to other nations, after a
certain rate in every ton.

TONNAGE. The usual method of find-
ing the tonnage of any ship is by the
following rule:—Multiply the length of
the keel by the breadth of the beam,
and that product by half the breadth of
the beam; and divide the last product
by 94, and the quotient will be the ton-
nage.

Ship's keel 72 feet: breadth of beam
24 feet.

\[ \frac{72 \times 24 \times 12}{94} = 220.6 \text{ tonnage.} \]

The tonnage of goods and stores is
taken sometimes by weight and some-
times by measurement; and that
method is allowed to the vessel which
yields the most tonnage.—In tonnage
by weight, 20 cwt. make 1 ton.—In
 tonnage by measurement, 40 cubic feet
equal 1 ton.—All carriages, or other
stores, to be measured for tonnage, are
taken to pieces, and packed in the
manner which will occupy the least
room on board ship.—All ordnance,
whether brass or iron, is taken in ton-
nage by its actual weight.—Musket
cartridges, in barrels or boxes, all am-
umnition in boxes, and other articles of
great weight, are taken in tonnage ac-
tording to their actual weight.

The following is the tonnage allowed to
the military officers of the ordnance
embarked for foreign service, for their
camp equipage and baggage:

For a field officer - 5 tons.
For a captain - 3 do.
For a subaltern - 1 1/4 do.

TONNE, Fr. a tun: it likewise sig-
nifies a large cask or vessel which is
used for stores and ammunition.

TONNEAUX MEunvriers, Fr. casks
which are bound together with ropes,
circled round by iron hoops, and are
filled with gunpowder, pebbles, &c.
The particular method in which these
casks are prepared may be seen in Tom.
II. page 218, Des Œuvres Militaires.

TONNELLON, Fr. a drawbridge,
which was used, by the ancients, in or-
der to get suddenly over the fosse upon
the walls of a besieged place.

TONNERRE, Fr. that part of a
piece of ordnance, or fire-arm, wherein
the charge is deposited.

TOOKSWARS, Ind. the vizir's
body of cavalry.

TOOLS, used in war, are of many
denominations and uses, as laboratory
tools, mining tools, artificers tools, &c.
which see.

TOOP, Ind. a small wood or grove.

TOOP e Walla, Ind. a person who
wears a hat.

TOOP Conna, Ind. the place where
the guns are kept.

TOPARCH, (Topargue, Fr.) the
principal man in a place.

TOPARCHY, (Toparchie, Fr.) su-
perintendence; command in a district.

TOPASS, Ind. This name was ori-
ginally given by the natives of India to
a native Portuguese soldier, on account
of his wearing a hat. It is now gene-
 rally used to distinguish all Europeans.

TOPEYS, Fr. the cannoniers be-
longing to a Turkish army are so called.

TOPGI-Bachi. Grand master of the
Turkish artillery. This appointment
is one of the most important situations
in the gift of the Porte. It is generally
bestowed upon a relation to the Grand
Signor, or upon a favourite to the Grand
Visier.

The name is derived from Top, which,
in the Turkish language, signifies can-
non, and from Bach, which means lord,
chief or commandant.

The person next in command to the
Topgi-Bachi is called Dukigt-Bachi, or
Master of the Topgis, who are both
cannoniers and founders. The latter
are paid every month by a commissary
of their own, whom they call Kiatib.

TOPGIS, sometimes written Top-
chis. A name generally used among
the Turks to signify all persons employ-
ed in the casting of cannon, and who
are afterwards appointed to the guns.
It is here necessary to observe, that on
account of the vast extent of the Otto-
man empire, the Turks do not attach
much heavy ordnance to their armies,
especially when they carry on operations.
Rations from one frontier to another. This is owing to the scarcity of draught horses, and to the natural obstacles of the country. So that they seldom carry into the field above eight or twelve-pounders.

But when it is their design to form any considerable siege, they load camels with all the materials requisite for casting cannon. A certain number of Topgis accompany them, and the instant the army takes up its quarters near to the spot where the attack is to be made, they set to work and make pieces of ordnance of every species of calibre or bore.

The Turkish cannon is extremely beautiful and well cast. The ornamental parts consist of plants, fruits, &c. for it is expressly forbidden in the Alcoran to give the representation of any human figure upon fire-arms, particularly upon pieces of ordnance; the Turks being taught to believe that God would order the workman to give it life, or would condemn him to eternal punishment.

The Turks are very awkward in constructing platforms for their batteries, and are almost ignorant of the art of pointing their pieces. From a consciousness of their deficiency on this head, they encourage Christian artillerymen and engineers to come amongst them; but until the present war they seldom viewed them but with a jealous eye, and always gave the preference to renegades. General Koehler, with a few British officers belonging to the train, joined their army last year for the purpose of acting against Egypt.

Topographer. A person skilled in ground and locality, &c.

Topography. In military history, a description or draught of some particular place, or small tract of land, as that of a fortification, city, manor or tenement, garden, house, castle, fort, or the like; such as engineers set out in their drawings, for the information of their prince or general. Hence a Topographical Chart — Carte Topographique. Topography constitutes, very deservedly, a principal branch of study at the Royal Military College or School.

Topseytury. Upside down, or, as our old authors more properly wrote it, (to use Mr. Tooke's words in his Diversions of Purley, 2d edit. page 329)

Up so down; bottom upward. It corresponds with the French term, seu dessus dessous; without top or bottom: i.e. a situation of confusion, in which you cannot discern the top from the bottom, or say which is the top and which the bottom. When a battalion is so awkwardly managed, either through the ignorance of the chief who gives several words of command, or through the dullness of the officers and soldiers who are to execute them, that the grenadiers get where the light infantry should stand, and the rest of the companies out of their proper fronts and positions, such a battalion may be said to be topsytury. There is a sea-phrase in familiar use among the military, which means the same thing, viz. To Capsize, Renvoyer. Chavirer quelque chose, comme une embarcation, &c. To turn upside down, as to capsize a piece of ordnance. Hence, figuratively, to capsize a battalion, which means the same as to club a battalion. See To Club.

Toque, Fr. A velvet cap with the sides turned up, and flat at the top. The Cent Suisses, or the King's Swiss body guard, wore the toque during the French monarchy.

Tor, a tower, or turret.

Torches, (Torches, Fr.) In military matters, are lights used at siege, &c. They are generally made of thick ropes, &c.

Torches inextinguibles, Fr. Particular lights or torches, which are made for the use and convenience of workmen at a siege, and which are not extinguished by wind or rain.

Torchis, Fr. Mud-clay, with which cottagers' huts, &c. are made in most countries.

Tore, Fr. See Torus.

Torus. In architecture, a large round moulding used in the bases of columns.

Torlaqui. A sort of priest in Turkey.

Tortemtum. An instrument of torture, which was used by the ancient Romans, when they had reason to suspect the fidelity or honesty of a slave. The delinquent was tied to a wheel, by his neck; having his legs and arms fastened on it, in the form of St. Andrew's cross. The wheel was then put

public places, by entering the lists and encountering all opposers. They were well mounted on horseback, clad in armour, and accoutred with lance and sword; first tilted at one another, and then drew their swords and fought hand to hand.

These exercises being designed to make the persons, who practised them, expert in the art of war, and also to entertain the court, the arms were, in a great measure, rendered so far innocuous, that they could not kill the combatants. For this purpose, the points of the lances and swords were broken off; but notwithstanding this precaution, frequent mischief occurred; in consequence of which, the Pope prohibited all sorts of tournaments, under pain of excommunication.

Tournaments had their origin from the ancient gladiatorial combats, and not from the usage of the northern people, as is commonly believed. In Cicero's time they were called, by the Greek name, Anabatis; because their helmet, in a great measure, obstructed their seeing.

TOURNÉE, Fr. a circuitous journey made for the purpose of inspection, &c.

Le Général fit une Tournée pour examiner les avant postes, Fr. the general went round to examine the outposts.

TOURNÉE À GAUCHE, Fr. a tool used by carpenters, masons, and other artisans, in turning screws, saws, &c.

TOURNER, Fr. to turn. In military matters it signifies to get upon the flank, or in the rear, of any object you propose to attack.

TOURNER UN OUVrage, Fr. in fortification, to turn a work. This is effected by cutting off its communication with the main body of the place, and taking possession of the gorge. Tournier le flanc, to turn the flank; tournier l'aïle droite ou l'aïle gauche, to turn the right or left wing; tournier un poste, une montagne, to get into the rear of a post, mountain, &c.

TOURNIQUET, Fr. a turnstile; it likewise signifies a swivel or iron ring.

TOURNIQUET, Fr. among artificers, a species of firework composed of two fuses, which, when set fire to, produces the same effect as the soleil tournant.

TOURNIQUET, (Tourniquet, Fr.) in surgery, an instrument made of rollers, compresses, screws, &c. for compressing any wounded part, so as to stop hemorrhages.

The common Tourniquet is very simple, consisting only of a roller, which with the help of a small stick, serves to stop the effusion of blood from large arteries, in amputation, by forcibly tying up the limb. The things required in this operation are, a roller of a thumb's breadth, and of an ell in length; a small cylindrical stick, a conglomeration bandage, two fingers thick and four long; some compresses of a good length, and about three or four fingers breadth, to surround the legs and arms, and a square piece of strong paper or leather, about four fingers wide. By the regulations published in 1799, for the better management of the sick in regiments, every surgeon, and assistant-surgeon, is directed to have, among other surgical instruments, a certain number of tourniquets; and sergeants, &c. are to be taught the method of using it.

In May, 1798, two tourniquets were directed to be sent to each regiment, the rest are to be made by the men of the regiment; and besides one to each person, who will be taught the use of it, it is necessary to have four for every hundred men.

The non-commissioned officers, band, and drummers, of every regiment, are to be taught the manner of applying it, according to instructions sent down from the surgeon-general's department.

TOURNOIS, Fr. tournament.

TOURTEAU Goudronné, Fr. old rope which is untwisted, steeped in pitch or tar, and afterwards left to dry. It is used in fosses and other places during a siege. The French make the Tourteau Goudronné in the following manner.—Take 12 pounds of tar or pitch, 6 ditto of tallow or grease, which put to 3 pints of linseed oil, and boil the whole together. You then take old matches, or twisted pieces of rope of any length you want, and let them soak in the boiling liquor. If you wish to prevent them from burning too fast, add six pounds of resin and two of turpentine.

TOUT le monde haut, Fr. a French word of command at sea, which corresponds with our sea-phrase, Pipe! all hands up.
Tow

Tout le monde bas, Fr. a French word of command at sea, which corresponds with Pipe! all hands down. Toutte voile, Fr. point-blank.

Tirer a Toutte voile, Fr. to fire point-blank.

Tower, (Tour, Fr.) any high building raised above another, consisting of several stories, usually of a round form, though sometimes square or polygonal; a fortress, a citadel. Towers are built for fortresses, prisons, &c. as the tower of the Bastille, which was destroyed by the inhabitants of Paris in 1789.

The Tower of London, commonly called The Tower, a building with five small turrets, at different angles, above it, situated on the banks of the river Thames. The Guards usually do duty in it. It is at present garrisoned by the invalids.

The Tower of London is not only a citadel to defend and command the city, river, &c. but it is also a royal palace, where the kings of England, with their courts, have sometimes lodged; a royal arsenal, wherein are stored arms and ammunition for 60,000 soldiers; a treasury for the jewels and ornaments of the crown; a mint for coining money; the archive, wherein are preserved all the ancient records of the courts of Westminster, &c. and the chief prison for state delinquents. The officers belonging to the Tower of London consist of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Office</th>
<th>Per Annum</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constable and Chief Governor</td>
<td>1000 0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lieutenant-Governor</td>
<td>700 0 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Deputy-Lieutenant</td>
<td>365 0 0</td>
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<td>Major</td>
<td>189 10 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chaplain</td>
<td>121 13 4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gentleman Porter</td>
<td>84 6 8</td>
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<td>Gentleman Gaoler</td>
<td>70 0 0</td>
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<td>Physician</td>
<td>182 10 0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Surgeon</td>
<td>45 12 6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Apothecary, Yeoman Porter</td>
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</table>

Tower-bastions, in fortification, are small towers made in the form of bastions, by M. Vauban, in his second and third method; with rooms or cellars underneath to place men and guns in them.

Martello Tower, as adopted for the defence of the Island of Jersey. This tower is quite round, of a conical form, being something broader at the base than the top, and about 40 feet high. It is built of the hard grit stone of the country, (which in general are very large), closely cemented together, and the surfaces rendered quite smooth by the hammer; the mason work is admirable. The only entrance is by a door 7 1/4 feet from the ground; you ascend to this by a ladder, which is pulled up into the tower every night. The door is arched, and is 5 1/4 feet high, and wide in proportion; the wall in this part is 5 1/4 feet thick. Having quitted the ladder, you mount a step two feet high, and then you are on the first floor of the tower. This room is round, and 13 feet diameter in the clear. Underneath it is the magazine, to which there is no way of getting, except through a trap-door that is in the middle of the floor. Round this room are eleven loop holes, for the men to fire through, and benches to stand on during this operation. On these benches their beds are placed at night; this is, in fact, their guard-room, for here is the fire-place, &c. &c.

To the next floor you ascend by a ladder also, through a trap-door, the ladder then may be pulled up, the trap closed, and all communication between the two stories completely cut off. In this room are four small windows; there are the same number of loop-holes, benches, &c. for the same purposes as the room below, but no fire-place. The loop-holes are not placed exactly over each other, but in quincunx order. This room is covered with a strong arch, in the center of which is a round hole 30 inches diameter. When you get through this hole, which you do by means of a ladder, you are then on the top of the tower.

At the sides of this hole are firmly fixed three very strong iron hoops or bars, which form an arch over it, on the top of which is a massy iron pin. On this pin, or pivot, rests the center of a large beam of wood, on one end of which is placed an iron 18 pound carriage, on a sort of frame, constructed like those used on board ships, where the gun slides back in the recoil. This end of the beam is supported by two pieces of timber, each resting on a small block wheel; the other end of the beam is supported by a lesser beam, resting...
resting on a large block wheel. All these wheels run in a wooden groove, that goes round the inside of the parapet. The whole is so well contrived and balanced, that the beam is easily turned round, so that the gun may be fired over any part of the parapet.

The parapet is built of brick, and is 14 feet high, with a slope of 4 feet, forming an angle of about 22½ degrees, with the top of the parapet. When the men proceed to load, they stand on a bench, and when loaded, step down, and are sheltered from the eneby’s shot by the parapet: there are places also, on the top, for three wall-pieces. The ordinary guard consists of a sergeant or corporal, and from 6 to 12 men. Some of the Towers are guarded by the veteran battalion, and others by the Militia of the island, who mount in their common working clothes.

The towers were built about 20 years ago, and were thought, until the middle of last year, to be perfectly complete for what they were designed, as well as the square towers in the forts; when machicoulis were added to all, and a carronade mounted, en barbette, on the top of each. Shot fired from so high an elevation is, in the opinion of engineers, of little use. The men inside the towers are quite safe from musketry, but those who are to load and fire the carronade, must be exposed as on a barbette battery. In case of attack, the guns on all these towers are manned by the Militia of the island; they are exercised at them every Sunday morning, but never fire powder. For the derivation of the word Martello, see Mortella.

Movéable Towers, in ancient military history, were three stories high, built with large beams, each tower was placed on 4 wheels, or trucks, and towards the town covered with boiled leather, to guard it from fire, and to resist the darts; on each story 100 archers were posted. They were pushed with the force of men to the city wall. From these the soldiers, placed in the different stages, made such vigorous discharges, that none of the garrison dared to show themselves on the rampart.

TOWN, any walled collection of houses.

Town-Adjutant, an assistant to the town-major. See ADJUTANT.

Town-Major, (Major de Place, Fr.) an officer constantly employed about the governor or officer commanding a garrison, &c. He issues the orders to the troops, and reads the common order to fresh troops when they arrive. He commands according to the rank he had in the army; but if he never had any other commission than that of town or fort-major, he is to command as youngest captain. See MAJOR.

TRABAND, a trusty brave soldier in the Swiss infantry, whose particular duty was to guard the colours and the captain who led them. He was armed with a sword and a halberd, the blade of which was shaped like a perruque. He generally wore the colonel’s livery, and was excused all the duties of a sentry. His pay was eight deniers more than the daily subsistence of the company.

TRABEA, (Trabée, Fr.) a white gown bordered with purple, and adorned with clavi or trabac of scarlet. See Kennett R. A. page 313.

TRABOUR, a species of fire-arm resembling a blunderbuss, with a very wide muzzle, carrying ten or twelve small pistol balls; used by the Austrians in 1700. Warnery speaks of this fire-arm, but observes, at the same time, that the Prussians never perceived any effect produced by it.

TRACÉ, Fr. This word is used, by the French, in fortification, as a substantive; thus, le tracé d’un ouvrage, the plan or drawing of a work.

TRACER, Fr. to trace.

TRACES, the harness by which beasts of draught are enabled to move bodies to which they are yoked.

TRADE, according to Johnson, occupation; particular employment, whether manual or mercantile, distinguished from the liberal arts, or learned professions. Among the French, the word métier, which corresponds literally with trade, is applied to arts and learned professions, as métier de la guerre, the science or art of war. With us, as the learned lexicographer very justly states, trade is not expressive of any liberal art, science, or profession. It has been used, by some of our
<table>
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<th>Word</th>
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| RA        | "our best writers in a familiar and mechanical sense. Thus Dryden writes:"
|            | "The rude Equicole, Hunting their sport, and plund'ring was their trade."
|            | "Fight under him, there's plunder to be had."
|            | "A captain is a very gainful trade."
|            | "The whole division that to Mars pertains, All trades of death, that deal in steel for guns."
|            | "Trade is also used to express generally, instruments of occupation:"
|            | "The shepherd bears His house and household goods, his trade of war;"
|            | "His bow and quiver, and his trusty cur."
| TRAGULA   | "A javelin, with a barbed head. It was used among the ancients, and the wound, occasioned by it, was extremely dangerous. It is supposed to be the same as *Jactulum ammaturum*, or a javelin fastened with something, (such as a strap or string,) so that it might be drawn back by the thrower."
| TRAGULARII | "Soldiers among the Romans, who shot arrows out of cross-bows, or threw barbed javelins."
| TRAINE    | "A term known among French sailors and soldiers at sea, to signify a thin rope, or rather packthread, to which they tie their linen; leaving it to float or be dragged through the waves until it is clean."
| TRAINEE   | "This word is used variously by the French, in conjunction with other words, viz.
| TRAINE-MALHEUR | "A miserable wretch."
| TRAINE-POTENCE | "A villain;"
| TRAINE-RAPURE | "A bully; a hectoring fellow."
| TRAINEUX  | "Several pieces of wood made in the form of a large sledge, upon which pieces of ordnance and stores, &c. are conveyed to the rampart, and brought from one place to another."
| TRAINÉE   | "A train. A certain length, or space, which is filled with gunpowder, for the purpose of setting fire to some particular spot or place."
| TRAINEURS | "Men who on a march lag behind, and thereby occasion a loose and unconnected appearance in the line of march. It is the duty of the rear guard to pick up all stragglers, and to report them to headquarters."
| TRAINEURS | "A parasite; a man who has never done a day's duty, but wears a sword and looks big."
| TRAITE    | "A treaty."
| TRAITE PUBLIC | "An act, or treaty which is made for the public, or nation at large."
| TRAHISON  | "Trespass."
| TRAHISON  | "To kill in a treacherous manner."
| TRAIL     | "In gunnery. The end of a travelling carriage, opposite to the wheels, and upon which the carriage slides when unlimbered or upon the battery."
| TRAIL     | "See Carriages."
| TRAIL     | "ToTrail, literally means to draw along the ground. In military matters it signifies, to carry the firelock in an oblique forward position, with the butt just above the ground. Hence Trail Arms, a word of command for that purpose."
| TRAIN     | "In a military sense, all the necessary apparatus, implements of war, such as cannon, &c. that are required at a siege or in the field."
| TRAIN     | "Of Artillery, (Train d'artillerie, Fr.) in a general sense, means the regiment of artillery; it also includes the great guns, and other pieces of ordnance belonging to an army in the field. See Artillery."
| TRAIN     | "In mining. A line of gunpowder laid to give fire to a quantity therof, which has been lodged for the purpose of blowing up earth, works, building, &c."
| TRAIN     | "Is also used to denote the attendants of a prince or general, upon many occasions."
| TRAIN     | "Or trained-bands, a name formerly given to the militia of England."
| TRAITEMENT | "Allowance or pay. As, Traitements de cinq shillings par jour, an allowance of five shillings per diem."
| TRAITOR   | "A betrayer."

6 C 2
trayer of his king and country; one who is guilty of high treason. Tacitus says, it was usual among the ancient Germans, to tie traitors and deserters to trees, and to let them die suspended from them.

TRAITS, Fr. Drag-ropes, &c. used in the artillery.

This word is generally used by the French to signify all sorts of arrows, darts, javelins, &c. that are cast out of bows, or thrown from the hand.

TRAJET. See Ferry.

TRAME, Fr. A plot.

TRAME de la vie, Fr. The thread of life.

TRAMER, Fr. To plot; to enter into a conspiracy.

TRAMONTANE, Fr. The north wind in the mediterranean is so termed by the French. It is so called, because it blows beyond the hills that are near Rome and Florence. The French say figuratively, Perdre la tramontane, to be at a loss.

Une épée à deux TRANCHANTS, Fr. A two-edged sword.

TRANCHANT, Fr. Cutting. COULEURS TRANCHEUSES, Fr. Glaring colours.

TRANCHÉE, Fr. See Trench.

TRANCHÉE double, Fr. A double trench, one side of which serves as a traverse to the other; by which means they are mutually covered from a reverse or enfilade firing.

TRANCHÉE à crochet, Fr. A bending trench, or one in the shape of a hook. This species of trench is found where the line turns, at the extremities of the places of arms, and at the ends of the cavaliers.

TRANCHÉE directe, Fr. A trench which is carried, or run out in a straight forward direction, and which serves to shut up any spot from whence you might be enfladed.

TRANCHÉE tournante, Fr. A trench which is carried round a work, that is or may be attacked. Of this description is the glacis, or the head of the trench.

TRANCHÉE, (Retours de la, Fr.) See Retours.

TRANSFERS. Soldiers taken out of one troop or company, and placed in another are so called.

When a man is transferred from one troop to another, his own horse is to go with him (unless it be of a different colour from those of which the troop into which he goes is composed,) but not his arms, nor any of his accoutrements, excepting his belts; and if the troop receiving such man, finds out that he has not been transferred with his own horse, the commanding officer of it must immediately make his complaint to the officer commanding the regiment. The transfers are to be entered in the general, and troop, or company registers, as soon as they take place, so that no mistake may arise from delay.

Whenever a troop receives a man as a non-commissioned officer, or for any other reason, the troop that transfers, if it does not receive a non-commissioned officer in return, must receive a man from the troop, on which, in the course of the transfer, it falls to give a man to the said troop; and a troop so giving a man, must set apart its non-commissioned officers, officers' servants, and four men, including its lance corporals, if it has any; out of the remainder, the other captain chooses.

It ought to be generally observed, that the most convenient period at which transfers should be made, is the 24th day of each month.

TRANSFIXED. An ancient term used to express the state of being desperately wounded by some pointed instrument, as being run through by a spear, javelin, or bayonet, &c.

TRANSFUGE, Fr. From the Latin Transfuga, a turn-coat, a deserter, a runaway, one who abandons his party, in time of war, and goes over to the enemy. It also signifies, generally, any person that is guilty of tergiversation in private or public life. A French author has made the following distinction between un transfuge et un déserteur, which terms have been considered as synonymous. A man may be looked upon as a transfuge, or turn-coat, although he should not go over to the enemy of the party which he abandons. When the well-known Count de Saint-Germain, left France, and sought military employment under the king of Denmark, he was most unquestionably a transfuge, or deserter from his country; and when he again suddenly returned to France, on the commencement of hostilities
hostilities with Denmark, and became minister of the war department, he was equally looked upon in the same light. For it is a known truth, that to quit, abruptly, the service of any state or king, by which an individual has been paid, for the direct purpose of fighting under the banners of his adversary, not only implies desertion, but justifies the imputation of treachery; and it must be allowed, that that is a man's country, where he has been well received, and to which he has pledged his life and talents. There are certainly shades of difference in the manner, and in the motive of quitting one party for another.

The celebrated Eugene of Savoy, for instance, may be considered as a transfiguration, but certainly with less reproach or disgrace than must be attached to Saint Germain; since the latter quitted France from peevishness, and unjustifiable disgust; whereas, Prince Eugene, (who had never received any commission in the French army, but was, on the contrary, rejected, with disdain, by Louis the XIVth, when he applied for service,) was graciously received by the Emperor of Germany, and remained attached to Austria, which became his country, during the remainder of his life. There were instances of both kinds, during our contest with the alienated colonies of America, which might be brought in illustration of this article. The French say proverbially, On hait les transfigures plus que les ennemis memes, one hates a transfiguration, or a turn-coat more than the enemies themselves.

TRANSOMS. In artillery. Pieces of wood which join the cheeks of gun-carriages; there is but one in a truck-carriage, placed under the trunnion-holes; and four in a wheel-carriage, the trail, the centre, the bed, and the breast transoms.

TRANSOM-plates, with hooks. There is one on each side of the side-pieces, against each end of the transom, the bed-transom excepted, fastened by two transom-bolts.

TRANSOM-bolt, with bars. They serve to tie the side-pieces to the transom.

TRANSPARATION, Fr. This word is used by the French in hydraulics, to signify the oozing of water through the pores of the earth. It often happens, in digging a canal through sandy ground, that the transpirations or oozings, are so plentiful as not to leave water enough for the intended purposes of navigation. This occurred at New-Brisack, when a canal was dug in order to convey materials for its fortifications. The waters having been let in, the whole body was absorbed in the space of twenty-four hours. This evil or inconvenience can, however, be remedied; as may be seen in the fourth volume of Belidor's Architecture Hydraulique.

TRANSPORT, (Vaisseau de transport, Fr.) A vessel in which soldiers are conveyed on the sea.

TRANSPORT-BOARD. An office established in 1794, which has the entire arrangement of the transport service, and of prisoners of war, in conjunction with the sick and hurt board. It consists of five commissioners, who are captains in the navy, and a secretary.

TRANSPORTER, Fr. to transfer, to remove, to change the situation of any thing.

TRANSPORTER les files et les rangs d'un bataillon dans les evolutions, Fr. To change files or ranks in military evolutions. To countermarch any given number of men so as to place the right where the left stood, and make the front rank take the ground that was occupied by the rear, with a different aspect. See COUNTERMARCH.

When the countermarch is effected on the centre, or by a central conversion, the French use the phrase—Faire le moulinet, from the similarity of movement round a central point; moulinet signifying capstan, turnstile, &c.

TRANSPOSER les files d'un bataillon dans les evolutions, Fr. To change the relative position of files in a battalion, that is, to countermarch the whole so as to make the natural front stand where the rear did, and to place those on the left that originally stood on the right.

TRAP. See AMBUSH, STRATAGEM, &c.

TRAPE, Fr. A falling door.

TRAPÉZE, Fr. See TRAPEZIUM.

TRAPEZOID, (Trapesoiade, Fr.) A figure in geometry, which is formed by the
the circumvolution of a trapezium, in the same manner that a cylinder is by that of a parallelogram.

TRAPEZIUM. A quadrilateral or square figure whose four sides and angles are unequal, and no sides are parallel.

TRAPPINGS. See HOUSINGS.

TRATTEs, Fr. The several beams and long pieces of wood which support the body of a windmill.

TRAVADE, Fr. A whirlwind; a violent squall accompanied by thunder and lightening.

TRAVAILLer, Fr. To work. In mechanics; to warp, to open, &c. The French say, Ce bois travaille, this wood work—Ce mur travaille, this wall gives way, &c.

TRAVAILLer à la journée, Fr. To work by the day—à la pièce, by the piece—à la tâche, by the great: en bloc et en tâche, by the great, by the lump.

TRAVAILLer à soi, Fr. To work by the soi. Works in fortification are generally done by this measure.

TRAVAILLer par épaulées, Fr. To execute a work with intervals of labour.

TRAVAILLer also signifies in a familiar sense, to work upon the feelings, or understanding of a person, so as to impose upon him.

TRAVAILLer les esprits des soldats. To work upon the minds of the soldiery. To excite them to insurrection.

TRAVAILLer un pays, Fr. To feel the pulse of a country by working upon the minds of the inhabitants; to excite them to support any particular cause.

TRAVAILLEURS, Fr. Literally workmen. In military matters, pioneers and soldiers employed in fatigue duties.

TRAVAILLEURS, à la tranchée, Fr. A detachment, consisting of a given number of men from each battalion, which is employed in the trenches. The soldiers who are sent upon this duty have only spades and pick-axes, and the officers who command them wear their swords.

TRAVAISON, Fr. Entablature.

TRAVAUX MILITAIRES, Fr. See Military Works.

TRAVAUX AVANCÉS, Fr. Advanced works or outworks. The same as pièces détachées, or dehors. See DEHORS.

TRAVÉE, Fr. A bay of joints—A scaffold.

TRAVELLING forge. See Fosses.

TRAVESS, Fr. A rope which is used to fasten cannon on their carriages, &c. and which serves for various other purposes.

TRAVÈSE. In fortification, a parapet made across the covert-way, opposite to the salient angles of the works near the place of arms, to prevent being enfladed. Travères are 18 feet thick, and as high as the ridge of the glacis. There are also traverses made by caponiers; but then they are called aubours.

To TRAVÈSE a gun, or mortar, is to bring her about to right or left with hand-spikes, till she is pointed exact to the object.

TRAVÈSE contre un commandement, Fr. An elevation, made of earth, in a bastion, either on a curtain, or on any other work of a fortified place, for the purpose of protecting it against the enflading fire of an enemy, from some commanding spot.

TRAVÈSE D'Attaque. See PLACE D'ARMES.

TRAVÈSE DE TRANCHEE, Fr. See TRAVÈSE TOURNANTE.

When an engineer, either through oversight, or even through necessity, has exposed himself to the enflade of an enemy's cannon, he leaves a certain proportion of the field-terreplein, in the boyau of the trench, in order to conceal from the besieged, the operations in that quarter.

TRAVÈSEÉ, Fr. Passage; short trip by sea.

TRAVÉSIÈRE, Fr. A passage boat, &c. It likewise means a wind that blows into port: also a pontoon.

TRAVÉSINES, Fr. Pieces of wood which are laid cross-ways in a dyke.

TRAVÉSING-plates, in gun-carriages, are two thin iron plates, nailed on the hind part of a truck carriage of guns, where the hand-spice is used to traverse the gun.

TRAVÉRING, in fencing, is the change of ground made by moving to right or left round the circle of defence.
TRAVONS, Fr. The large main beams in a wooden bridge, which support the joists, &c. They are likewise called sommiers.

TRAVESTEIMENT, Fr. Disguise. In the old French service, it was ordained, that no dragoon, or foot soldier, should change his uniform or regiments whilst in garrison, nor within the boundaries of it. Every infraction of this order was punished with three months imprisonment.

TRAUMATICK. Vulnerary; useful to wounds; as Traumatick decoction.

TREACHERY. Perfidy; breach of faith.

TREASON. Disloyalty; treachery; perfidious dealing.

High Treason. An offence against the security of the commonwealth, or of the king's majesty, whether by imagination, word or deed. It is a capital crime, and subjects the offender not only to loss of life, but also to forfeiture of all he may possess.

TRECEDITOR, Fr. One who betrays TRECIEUR, Fr. A place, or body of men. An obsolete word.

TREFFLE, Fr. Trefoil. A term used in mining, from the similarity of the figure to trefoil. The simple treffe has only two lodgments; the double treffe four; and the triple one six.

TREILLAGE, Fr. Any assemblage of wood which is laid crossways. Of which description are the palaudoes, &c. in gardens.

TREILLIS, Fr. A general term for iron grating, &c. Such as is used for prisons.

TREILLIS, Fr. The method that is used in copying plans, &c. It consists of a certain arrangement of straight lines, which being measured at equal distances from one another, and crossed from right to left, represents a quantity of small equal squares. This arrangement, or disposition of lines is used by painters, engravers, and engineers, in taking accurate copies of plans, &c. and is called by the French Treillis.

TREILLISER, Fr. To trellis. To furnish with a trellis.

TREMEAU, Fr. An ancient term in fortification. See Mortar.

TRENCHANT, Fr. Sharp or cutting.

TRENCHES, in a siege, are ditches made by the besiegers, that they may approach more securely to the place attacked; on which account they are also called lines of approach. The tail of the trench is the place where it was begun, and its head is the place where it ends.

Trenches are also made to guard an encampment.

The trenches are usually opened or begun in the night-time, sometimes within musquet-shot, and sometimes within half or whole cannon-shot of the place; generally about 800 toises. They are carried on in winding lines, nearly parallel to the works, so as not to be in view of the enemy, nor exposed to the enemy's shot.

The workmen employed in the trenches, are always supported by a number of troops to defend them against the sallies of the besieged. The pioneers, and other workmen, sometimes work on their knees, and are usually covered with mantlets or saucinons; and the troops who support them lie flat on their faces, in order to avoid the enemy's shot. On the angles, or sides of the trench, there are lodgments, or epaulements, in form of traverses, the better to hinder the sallies of the garrison, and to favour the advancement of the trenches, and to sustain the workmen.

The platforms for the batteries are made behind the trenches; the first at a good distance, to be used only against the sallies of the garrison. As the approaches advance, the batteries are brought nearer, to ruin the defences of the place, and dismount the artillery of the besieged. The breach-batteries are made when the trenches are advanced near the covert-way.

If there are two attacks, it will be necessary to have lines of communication, or boyaus, between the two, with places of arms at convenient distances. The trenches are 6 or 7 feet high with the parapet, which is 5 feet thick, with banquettes for the soldiers to mount upon.

The approaches at a siege are generally carried on upon the capitals of the works attacked; because the capitals produced are, of all other situations in the front of a work, the least exposed to the fire of either the cannon or mus-
quentry; and are the least in the line of fire between the besieged and besieger's batteries. But if, from particular circumstances, these or other advantages do not attend the approaches upon the capitals, they are by no means to be preferred to other positions.

The trenches of communication, or zig-zags, are 3 feet deep, 10 feet wide at bottom, and 13 feet at top, having a hem of one foot, beyond which the earth is thrown to form a parapet.

The parallels, or places of arms of the trenches are 3 feet deep, 12 feet wide at bottom, and 17 or 18 feet wide at top, having a banquette of about 3 feet wide, with a slope of nearly as much.

The first night of opening the trenches, the greatest exertions are made to take advantage of the enemy's ignorance as to the side of attack; and they are generally carried on as far in advance as the first parallel, and even sometimes to the completion of that work. The workmen set out on this duty, each with a fascine of 6 feet, a pick-axe and a shovel; and the fascines being laid so as to lap one foot over each other, leave 5 feet of trench for each man to dig.

The usual method of directing the trenches or zig-zags, is by observing during the day, some near object in a line with the salient parts of the work, and which may serve as a direction in the night; or if the night be not very dark, the angles of the works may be seen above the horizon; but as both these methods are subject to uncertainty, the following is proposed to answer every case:—Having laid down the plan of attack, the exact positions of the flanked angles of the works of the front attacked, and particularly of those most extended to the right and left; mark on the plan the point of commencement for the first portions of zig-zag, the point where it crosses the capital, and the point to which it extends on the other side of the capital: this last point will be the commencement of the second branch: then mark off the point where this branch crosses the capital, and its extent on the other side; and this will give the commencement of the third branch; and so on for the others. Thus provided with a plan ready marked off, it will be very easy, even in the darkest night, to lay down the points where the zig-zags are to cross the capital, and the points to which they are to be produced beyond them. The first parallel is generally run about 60 yards from the place, and of such extent as to embrace the prolongation of the faces of all the works which are on the trenches; and each end has a return of about 30 or 40 yards.

The second parallel is constructed upon the same principles, and of the same extent as the first, at the distance of about 300 yards from the angles of the covert-way. This parallel is usually formed of gabions, each workman carrying a gabion, a fascine, a shovel, and a pick-axe. Are thus the trenches are usually carried by sap.

The half parallels are about 140 or 150 yards from the covert-way, and extend sufficiently on each side to embrace the prolongation of the branches of the covert-way.

The third parallel must not be nearer than the foot of the glacis, or it will mask the ricochet batteries. It is generally made rather wider than the other parallels.

Cavaliers of the trenches must not be nearer than 28 yards from the covert-way, or they will be liable to be annoyed by hand grenades.

Returns of a Trench, are the elbows and turnings, which form the line of approach, and are made, as near as can be parallel to the place, to prevent their being enfiladed.

To mount the Trenches, is to mount guard in the trenches, which is generally done in the night.

To relieve the Trenches, is to relieve the guard of the trenches.

To scour the Trenches, is to make a vigorous sally upon the guard of the trenches, force them to give way, and quit their ground, drive away the workmen, break down the parapet, fill up the trench, and nail their canons.

Counter-Trenches, are trenches made against the besiegers; which consequently have their parapet turned against the enemy's approaches, and are enfiladed from several parts of the place, on purpose to render them useless to the enemy, if they should chance to
to become masters of them; but they should not be enfiladed, or commanded by any height in the enemy's possession.

To open the Trenches, is to break ground for the purpose of carrying on approaches towards a besieged place.

Trench-Master. A term formerly used in the British army to signify engineer. See Engineer.

TRENTE-six mois, Fr. Thirty-six months. A sea phrase. By this term was understood among the French before the revolution, Un Engagé, A person who hired himself for that period to another, on condition that the latter defrayed his passage to the East Indies; after the expiration of which term, the former was at liberty to settle in that country.

TRÉPAN, Fr. An instrument which is used to find out the quality of any ground into which beams or stakes are to be driven. Also an instrument used in surgery.

This instrument likewise serves to give air in the gallery of a mine, and its necessity is discovered by means of a lighted candle, when it ceases to blaze.

TRÉPANER une mine, Fr. To let fresh air into a mine.

TRÉPIGNÉRE. To clatter. In horsemanship it is used to describe the action of a horse who beats the dust with his fore-feet in managing, without embracing the volt; who makes his motions and time short and near the ground, without being put upon his haunches. This defect is usually occasioned by a weakness in the shoulders.

TRÉSOR, Fr. The military chest.

TRÉSORER, Fr. Paymaster. There were formerly on the French military establishment two classes of paymasters, viz. Trésoriers de l'ordinaire, et trésoriers de l'extraordinaire, Paymasters or treasurers for the ordinary expences of the service, and ditto for the extraordinary. The latter were accountable to government for a just distribution of stores and provisions, and gave in their estimates and vouchers to the comptroller general's office in Paris. These were formerly called Clercs du Trésor ou Payeurs, Clerks attached to the military chest or paymasters. They were partly the same as our paymasters and commissioners-general on service.

During the monarchy in France there were several treasurers or paymasters general in ordinary belonging to the army, who had their several departments, viz.

Trésoriers de la Gendarmerie et des Troupes de la Maison du Roi, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters attached to the Gens d'armes and the king's household.

Trésoriers de l'extraordinaire des guerres, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters of the extraordinaries of the army.

Trésoriers des Maréchaussées de France, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters of the Marshalcy or armed police of France.

Trésoriers payeurs des troupes, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters general of the forces.

Trésoriers des gratifications, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters of compensations, gratuities, &c.

Trésoriers de la Présoté de l'Hôtel, Fr. Treasurers or paymasters of the provost-marshal's department at the hotel or town-hall in Paris.

Le Trésorier Général de l'Artillerie, Fr. The treasurer or paymaster general of the artillery.

Le Trésorier Général des Fortifications, Fr. The treasurer or paymaster-general of fortifications.

All these treasurers or paymasters were subject to their several comptrollers of accounts, and their issues, &c. were audited accordingly. There were likewise provincial or subordinate paymasters of the extraordinaries of the army. They were appointed by the treasurers or paymasters-general, and resided in the different departments and general districts of the kingdom. These appointments fell, of course, at the revolution, and they have since been replaced by a more simple and economical consolidation. The artillery has still its separate treasurer or paymaster. The district paymasters, who have been established in Great Britain, &c. during the present war, seem manifestly to have taken their origin from the old French arrangement.

TREVE, Fr. See Truce.

TREV du Seigneur, Fr. A particular law or injunction that was passed under Henry the Second, king of France, in the year 1041, by which all duels and private combats were forbidden from Wednesday night until

6 D.
the morning of the Monday following. President Pinault remarks, that this was all which could, in those days, be effected by royal authority and interference, to prevent men from killing one another.

TREVET. Any thing that stands upon three legs. An iron instrument to set a pot or saucepan on over the fire. It is likewise used in field-ovens.

TREUIL, Fr. A roll, an axletree, &c.

TRIARES. Fr. See TRIARI.

TRIAL. Test, examination, experiment. It is in the power of his Majesty to dismiss an officer from the regular, militia, or volunteer service, without any species of investigation or trial. See COURTS MARTIAL, &c.

TRIAL by Jury. An investigation of matters of fact, before a certain number of men, impanelled upon cases of a criminal or civil nature. The trial by jury is the pride of English justice, and the bulwark of English liberty.

TRIANGLE, (Triangle, Fr.) The triangle may be considered as the most simple of all figures. It is composed of three lines and three angles, and is either plain or spherical.

A plain Triangle is one that is contained under three right lines.

A Spherical Triangle is a triangle that is contained under three arches of a great circle or sphere.

A right-angled Triangle is one which has one right angle.

An acute-angled Triangle is one that has all its angles acute.

An obtuse-angled Triangle is that which has one obtuse angle.

An oblique-angled Triangle is a triangle that is not right angled.

An equilateral Triangle is one whose sides are all equal.

An isosceles Triangle, a Triangle An equieyed Triangle, that has only two legs or sides equal.

A scalene Triangle. One that has not two sides equal.

Similar Triangles are such as have all their three angles respectively equal to one another.

Triangles. A small triangular piece of metal, which is used in military bands, emitting a sharp reverberating sound in concord with the rest of the music.

Triangles likewise mean a wooden instrument consisting of three poles which are fastened at top in such a manner, that they may spread at bottom in a triangular form, and by means of spikes affixed to each pole, remain firm in the earth. An iron bar, breast deep, goes across one side of the triangle. The triangles are used in some regiments for the purpose of inflicting military punishments.

TRIANON, Fr. A generical French term signifying any pavilion that stood in a park, and is unconnected with a castle or main building. Of this description was the French Queen’s Pavillon in the neighbourhood of Versailles.

TRIARI. Soldiers so called among the Romans. According to Kenney the Triarii were commonly veterans, a hardy old soldiers, of long experience and approved valour. They had this name from their position, being enrolled in the third place, as the men of strength and hopes of their party. They were armed with a pike, a shield, a helmet, and a cuirass. They are sometimes called Pilarii, from the weapon the Pila. See KENNEY’S ROMAN ANT. p. 190. They were likewise stiled Tertiaii. A certain number of these veterans was always distributed in each cohort.

Polybius, in his 6th book, class the Roman troops under four different heads: the first he calls Pilati or Velites, light-armed men, selected from the lower order of the people, and generally composed of the youngest men in the army. The second class consisting of pikemen, Hastati, were most advanced in age, and had more experience. The third class, called Principes, were still older, and more warlike than the second.

The fourth class consisted of the oldest, most experienced, and bravest soldiers. These were always posted in the third rank, as reserve, to support the others in case they gave way. Hence their appellation of triari or tertiaii; and hence the Roman proverb, Ad triarium ventum est, signifying thereby, that the last efforts were being made. The triarii were likewise named post signani, from being posted in the rear of the princeps who carried the standard in a legion.

TRIBUNAL CASTRENSES. Among the ancient Romans the Tribunals Castrenses,
Tribunate, (Tribunat, Fr.) The office of tribune.

Tribune, (Tribun, Fr.) A title which was originally given to certain Roman magistrates, who were established for the specific purpose of maintaining the rights of the tribes or mass of the people, in opposition to the possible encroachments of the consuls and the senate; on which account they were styled the tribunes of the people, les tribuns du peuple. The number, at first, was limited to two; but they were subsequently augmented to ten. There were likewise military tribunes, tribuni militares. These held commands of considerable extent in the Roman armies. According to the present constitution of France, there are civil tribunes who are presumed to have the same powers of control over the acts of the consuls and the conservatory senate for the benefit of the people, that constituted the character of the Roman tribunes.

Tribuni Aerarii. Paymasters-general belonging to the military establishment of ancient Rome. These persons were selected on account of their great wealth and known probity.

Tribuni Militares. See Tribune.

Tribunus Celerum. The chief or commandant of a body of men which Romulus, the founder of Rome, selected for his own body-guard. The individuals, who composed it, were called ceders, swift-footed. According to the Dictionnaire des Dieux, they were very wealthy, of high birth, and distinguished for their bodily and mental qualifications.

Tricic. See Trigger.

Tricoisses. Fr. Pincers used by farriers.

Tricot, Fr. A cudgel.

Tricolor, Fr. Three-coloured. Hence the tricolor-cockade, which was adopted by the French at the commencement of their revolution. It consists of sky blue, pink, and white, and was emblematical of the three estates of the kingdom, viz. nobility, clergy, and peasantry. The armies still wear the tricolor, although the first order, or what is generally called the nobility, has been abolished since the 10th of August 1792.

Trier, Fr. To pick and chase. Hence, trier les plus beaux soldats, to pick out the finest soldiers. Triage is used as the substantive, signifying the act of picking and choosing.

Trigger, (détente, Fr.) an iron hook which is used to trig or stay a wheel; also a catch, which being pulled, disengages the cock of a gun-lock, that it may strike fire.

Hair Trigger, (détente à cheveux, Fr.) The hair trigger is generally used for rifles, when there is a great nicety required in shooting. The difference between a hair trigger and a common trigger is this—the hair trigger, when set, lets off the cock by the slightest touch; whereas the common trigger requires a considerable degree of force, and consequently is longer in its operation.

Trigone, a triangle: hence, Trigonometry, (Trigonométrie, Fr.) the art of measuring triangles, or of calculating the sides of any triangle sought. This is either plain or spherical.

Trilateral, having three sides.

Trimestre, Fr. a period of three months.

Tringle, in architecture, a name common to several little square members or ornaments, as reglets, listels, and platbands. It is more particularly used for a little member fixed exactly over every triglyph, under the platband of the architrave; from whence hang down the gutter or pendant drops.

Tringle, Fr. a wooden rule.

Tringler, Fr. to draw a straight line upon wood by means of a stretched piece of packthread, or cord, which is chalked.

Trinome, Fr. a word used among the French, in algebra, to express any quantity which is produced by the addition of three numbers or quantities that are incommensurable.

Trinomial, or Trinomial root, in mathematics, is a root consisting of three parts, connected together by the signs + or —, as x + y + z, or x — y — z.

Trinquet, Fr. a word used in the
the Levant to signify the mizen or foremast of a ship.

TRIQUETTE, Fr. a sail used on board the ships in the Levant, which is of a triangular shape.

TRIOMPHE, Fr. See TRIUMPH.

Arc de TRIOMPHE, Fr. a triumphal arch.

TRIPASTE, Fr. a machine which consists of three pulleys, and is used in raising heavy weights.

TRIQUE, Fr. a large cudgel.

TRIQUE-BALE, Fr. a sling cart or machine which is used to convey pieces of ordnance from one quarter to another.

TRIREME, Fr. a galley with three benches for rowers.

TRISECTION, (Trisection, Fr.) the division of a thing into three. The term is chiefly used in geometry for the partition of an angle into three equal parts.

The trisection of an angle geometrically, is one of those great problems whose solution has been so much sought by mathematicians; being in this respect on a footing with the quadrature of the circle, and the duplicature of the cube angle.

TRIUMPH, a solemnity practised by the ancient Romans, to do honour to a victorious general.

There were two sorts of triumphs, the greater and the lesser, particularly called ovation; of these the triumph was by much the more splendid procession. None were capable of this honour but the dictator, consuls, and praetors; though there are examples to the contrary, as particularly in Pompey the Great, who had a triumph decreed him when he was only a Roman knight, and had not yet reached the senatorial age.

The triumph was the most pompous show among the ancients: authors usually attribute its invention to Bacchus, and tell us, that he first triumphed upon the conquest of the Iудies; and yet this ceremony was only in use among the Romans. The Grecians had a custom which resembled the Roman triumph; for the conquerors used to make a procession through the middle of their city, crowned with garlands, repeating hymns and songs, and brandishing their spears; their captives were also led by them, and all their spoils exposed to public view.

The order of a Roman triumph was chiefly thus: the senate having decreed the general a triumph, and appointed a day, they went out of the city, and marched in order with him through the city. The cavalcade was led up by the musicians, who had crowns on their heads; and after them came several chariots with plans and maps of the cities and countries subdued, done in relief; they were followed by the spoils taken from the enemy; their horses, arms, gold, silver, machines, tents, &c. After these came the kings, princes and generals subdued, loaded with chains and followed by mimics or buffoons who exulted over their misfortunes. Next came the officers of the conquer ing troops, with crowns on their heads. Then appeared the triumphal chariot in which was the conqueror, richly dressed in a purple robe, embroidered with gold, setting forth his glorious achievements. His buskins were best pearl, and he wore a crown, which first was only laurel, but afterwards gold; one hand held a laurel-brach the other a truncheon. His children were sometimes at his feet, and sometimes on the chariot-horses. As the triumphal chariot passed along, the people strewed flowers before it. The music played in praise of the conqueror, amidst the loud acclamations of the people, crying, To triumph. The chariot was followed by the senate clad in white robes; and the senate by such citizens as had been set at liberty or ransomed. The procession was closed by the sacrifices, and their officers and attendants with a white ox led along for the chief victim. In the mean time all the temples were open, and the altars were loaded with offerings and incense. Games and combats were celebrated in the public places, and rejoicings appeared every where.

TRIUMVIRI, or TRIVIRI CEN TALES, men employed, among the ancient Romans, to preserve the public peace, &c. For particulars, see Kenet's Roman Antiquities, page 131. They likewise signify the three persons, Caesar, Crassus, and Pompey, who seized on the government of the republic, and divided it among them—Hence

TRIUMVIRATE (Triumvirate, Fr.) An absolute government administered by three persons with equal authority. Thus
TROCHLEA. One of the mechanical powers usually called a pulley.

TROCHOID, in mathematics. The same as cycloid.

TROCHOLIQUE, Fr. a name used among the French for that branch of mathematics which treats of circular movements.

TROMBE, Fr. a water-spool. It is likewise called Siphon or Syphon.

TROMPE, Fr. in architecture, an arch which grows wider towards the top.

TROMPES, Fr. in artificial fireworks; a collection of pots à feu, or fire-pots so arranged, that upon the first being inflamed, a ready communication takes place with the rest, and the explosion is successively effected.

TROMPETTE, Fr. This word, which signifies trumpet, is applied by the French, not only to the instrument, but to the man who blows it; in the same manner that we say fife and drums, for fifers and drummers; but we do not say trumpet for trumpeter, although we say Bugle, for the man who blows the bugle-horn; Trompette when used in this sense, is of the masculine gender.

TROMPETTE sonante, Fr. with sound of trumpet, or trumpet sounding.

TROMPETTE parlante, Fr. a speaking-trumpet. This instrument is generally used at sea; and owes its invention to an Englishman.

Diloger sans Trompette, Fr. to steal away, to take French leave.

TROMPILLON, Fr. the diminutive of trompe, a term used in architecture, which owes its origin to the resemblance that exists between the wide part of a trumpet, and the arch or vault so called.

TROOP, any body of soldiers.

Troop, in cavalry, a certain number of men on horseback who form a component part of a squadron. It is the same, with respect to formation, as company in the infantry. When a troop dismounts and acts on foot, it is still called a troop.

Troop, a certain beat of the drum. See Drum.

To Troop the colours. See Colours.

Troops, the same as copies in Latin, and troupes in French, any collective body of soldiers.

Heavy Troops, (Troupes d'ordonnance, Fr.) Soldiers armed and accoutered for the purpose of acting together, in line, &c.

Light Troops, (Troupes légères, Fr.) hussars, light horse, mounted riflemen; light infantry are so called, in opposition to cavalry or heavy horse. Skirmishing is solely the business of light horse, who, according to count Turpin, should be constantly exposed as the forlorn hope of the army; or as troops whose duty it is to be continually watchful for its repose and security.

When the light horse compose an advanced camp, the men should keep their horses constantly saddled; it being only an indulgence to allow those off duty to have their horses unsaddled. It is very true, that a camp of cavalry cannot be managed after the same manner; but then cavalry is seldom so situated as to be attacked, or to attack every day, which is the real business of light horse.

They should serve as vedets to the whole army, in order to prevent the enemy from approaching it; whereas cavalry should never be employed, but in the greatest operations; and on occasions which are to decide the fate of a campaign.

Light troops, according to the same writer, are employed to gain intelligence concerning the enemy, to learn whether he hath decamped, whether he hath built any bridges, and other things of the same nature, of which the general must necessarily be informed, and should have a day fixed for this return. There are other detachments, which should be sent out under intelligent officers, and which should never lose sight of the enemy, in order to send in daily intelligence, to attack small convoys and baggage, to pick up marauders, and harass the advanced guards. There should not be any time fixed for the return of these detachments, neither should they be confined to particular places; they should, however, return to the camp at the expiration of eight or ten days at farthest. The inconvenience, arising from confining these detachments to a particular
particular time, would perhaps be, that the very day appointed for their return, would be that on which they might have the fairest opportunity of learning intelligence of the enemy: consequently their being forced to return would defeat the objects for which they were sent out.—See page 122, vol. II. of Count Turpin's Art of War. In addition to this valuable work, we recommend the perusal of the following pamphlets which have appeared during the late war, and treat, more or less, of light troops: Baron Gros's Duty of Officers in the Field; Duty of Officers commanding Detachments, by Lieutenant Colonel John Ormsby Van de Velde; and a small Treatise on the Duty of Hussars, translated by Mr. Rose, junior. Likewise a very well written treatise entitled, Instruction concernant le Service de l'Infanterie légère en Campagne. This production comes out of the Royal Military College at High Wycombe, and has been published in French and English.

Light Troops are sometimes called irregulars, as they almost constantly act in detached and loose bodies. The tirailleurs, Tyroleans, Yagers, sharp-shooters, and the Chasseurs à cheval et à pied, to which the French owe so much during the whole course of their stupendous revolution, are of this description. General Money observes in page 8, of a small pamphlet addressed to the late Secretary at War, "that what was called in this country, advancing en masse, by the French, was nothing more than very large bodies of irregulars (or light troops), which covered the country, in the front of their armies, like an inundation. To their irregulars, and to their light artillery, are the French indebted for most of the victories they have gained. He adds, that the troops stiled in France chasseurs, are, more or less, to be met with in every service in Europe, except the British. The Austrians have many regiments of them; the Prussians have them attached, in a certain proportion, to each corps; but the French, seeing the good effect of these irregulars, have brought them more into the field than all the combined powers together." These troops are peculiarly useful in enclosed countries, and must, of course, be peculiarly so in Great Britain. General Money observes, page 55, that with respect to England, we are infinitely more strongly enclosed than Flanders, where the combined armies met all their disasters; and we have above 40,000 cavalry in this country, and not a single troop of these trained, or properly armed to mount.

In page 18 and 19 of the same pamphlet, we find the following passage—"Let us for a moment look at the country that has been the theatre of the late war, to shew the use that was made of irregulars. Our operations were then carried, in the spring of 1794, into an open country near Cambrai; the enemy then felt the superiority of our cavalry; and saw that their irregulars, with which their armies abounded, were useless, and would continue so, unless they could force us to make war in an inclosed country; and this they effected by obliging us to return into Flanders, to protect our magazines, and cover our communication with them. Here, that country is much inclosed, and here all their irregulars could act. From that hour we were constantly losing ground, holding only those points we thought proper to cover with works, and in the short space of a few weeks it may be said in a few days, those armies which had been acting offensively, were actually obliged to act defensively. Was that army diminished by slaughter or sickness? No: but the enemy's arms, it is said were increased: True; and with what? Irregulars: requisition-men or volunteers; without discipline, not without ardour to fight: and from the moment we commenced our sad retreat from Tournaia, till we arrived near Breda, nothing was to be seen but the enemy's irregular troops. This was owing to our having only small bodies of irregulars to meet large ones, and the countries being inclosed, which favoured their operations."

Revenue Troops. A body of irregular troops in the service of the Honourable the East India Company. Their establishment in 1787 consisted of eight battalions, each battalion containing five companies, and each company containing 150 men: so that the total of the battalions (each being 650 strong) amounted to 5280. The strength of each company was 1 captain, 1 subaltern, 1
Jemidar, 5 Havaldars, 3 Naigues, 16 Sepoys, 104 Sepoys who were natives. The strength of a battalion was 1 European captain commandant, 3 European sergeants, 5 Subadars, 5 Jemidars, 25 Havaldars, 15 Naigues, 80 Sepoys, 550 effective Sepoys.

In the event of a war, these troops were drawn into the garrisons of the district to which they belonged; on which occasion they were placed upon the same footing and pay, in every respect as the regular battalions. One vakeel was allowed to every company, who received monthly 1 pagoda 36 annas. The revenue troops did not receive any bounty, nor were any stoppages made out of their pay. The following clothing and half-mounting were issued to them annually, viz. one coat, one sash, two white jackets; also two pair of short drawers; and three turbans, every two years. The commanding officers of these corps drew per annum 400 pagodas off-reckonings. Considerable alterations having taken place in the organization of the different corps in India, we have given the above article according to what existed in 1787.

There is no such establishment in Europe, at least in Great Britain. The revenue officers are assisted by the military, as occasions may require, in time of war; and it is the peculiar duty of light dragoons to secure smugglers, &c., in time of peace. We do not, however, hesitate to say, that a corps might be formed out of the invalids, &c., not only to answer every revenue purpose, but to protect the capital from the shameful assaults and depredations which are committed in the broad face of day. They would serve in the latter capacity as troops attached to the police. The marechaussees of France do credit to the legislature of that country.

TROOPER, (Cavaler, Fr.) a horse soldier. According to Dr. Johnson, a trooper fights only on horseback; a dragon marches on horseback, but fights either as a horsemann or footman. There is no such thing as a trooper in the British service. The Blues were the last corps that deserved that appellation; but they now act, like the rest of the cavalry, on foot.

TROPHÉE, Fr. See TROPHY.
Faire Trophée, Fr. to glory in.

TROPHY, something taken from an enemy, and shewn or treasured up in proof of victory. Among the ancients, it consisted of a pile or heap of arms of a vanquished enemy, raised by the conqueror in the most eminent part of the field of battle.

The trophies were usually dedicated to some of the gods, especially to Jupiter. The name of the deity to whom they were inscribed, was generally mentioned, as was that also of the conqueror. The spoils were first hung upon the trunk of a tree; but instead of trees, succeeding ages erected pillars of stone or brass, to perpetuate the memory of their victories. To demolish a trophy was looked upon as a sacrilege, because they were all consecrated to some deity.

TROPHY-MONEY, certain money annually raised in the several counties of the kingdom, towards providing harness, and maintaining the militia.

TROPIC, Fr. tropical; it is likewise used as an adjective, and signifies tropical.

Baptême du TROPIQUE, Fr. the ceremony which is performed when a person crosses the line for the first time.

TROSSERS, a kind of breeches.
TROUSE, reaching down to the ankles, worn by some regiments of infantry and light cavalry. See PANTALON.

TROSSULL, a select body of cavalry among the old Romans, to every individual of which was given the title of Roman Knight, from their having taken Tossulum, an inland town in Tuscany, (still called Tasso) without the assistance of the infantry. According to Pliny, they were first called, Celeres, and then Flaminines.

TROTTOIR, Fr. Footway. It more properly means a raised pavement on the sides of a street or bridge, for the convenience of foot passengers.
TROU, Fr. A hole.
Trou de mineur, Fr. A lodgement which is made for the safety and convenience of a miner, when he first begins his operation.

TROUBLESOME, from the verb to trouble. Importunate, teasing, full of molestation. This word is frequently misapplied in military matters. Many officers, who have the service of their king.
king and country at heart, are improperly called troublesome, because they will not add, by negligence or connivance, to the too frequent abuses which exist in the interior economy of corps.

TROUÉE, Fr. An opening; a gap. This word is applied to any passage, which is made through an abatis, wood or hedge; also to the impression of cavalry, when it breaks the line, &c.

TROUGH. A hollow wooden vessel to knead bread in. It is used among the utensils of field bakery.

TROUPES, Fr. Troops, forces. TROUPES légères, Fr. Light troops.

TROUS-DÉ-LOUP, in field fortification, are round holes, about 6 feet deep, and pointed at the bottom, with a stake placed in the middle. They are frequently dug round a redoubt, to obstruct the enemy's approach. They are circular at the top, of about 4½ feet diameter.

TROUSSE, Fr. A quiver. It also signifies any bundle of things tied together, viz. Une trousse de foin, a bundle of hay.

Monter en TROUSSE, Fr. To ride behind.

Etre aux TROUSSES, Fr. To be upon one's heels.

TROUSSEAU, Fr. A long piece of wood in the shape of a cane, which has one end smaller than the other, and is used in foundries to make cannon-moulds.

TROUSSEPAS, Fr. A sort of iron spade which is used in cutting turf.

TRUCE, (Trèce, Fr.) A suspension of arms, or a cessation of hostilities, between two armies, in order to settle articles of peace, bury the dead, &c.

TRICHÉMAN, or TRICHEMENT, Fr. An interpreter, or one who conveys the sentiments of another to a person unacquainted with his language.

TRUCK. Wooden wheels for the carriage of cannon, &c.

Trucks of a ship carriage, are wheels made of one piece of wood, from 12 to 19 inches diameter; and their thickness is always equal to the calibre of the gun.

The trucks of garrison-carriages are made of cast iron.

A truck-carriage goes upon four trucks of 24 inches diameter; has two flat side pieces of ten inches broad, and serves to carry guns, ammunition box, or any other weights, from the garrison houses to the water-side, or to any small distance.

To TRUCLLE. This word is adopted from truckle-bed, which is a low mean bed, that can be pushed under another. Hence.

To TRUCLLE TO. To submit to, to allow the superiority of another.

TRUEBORN. According to Dr. Johnson, having a right by birth to any title.

TRUELLE, Fr. A trowel.

TRULL. A low, vagrant strumpet; a hedge-whores, or one that has prosaic dealings upon the road, or elsewhere, with men of all descriptions. Hence a soldier's trull.—In every well-regulated camp and garrison the utmost precaution should be taken, to prevent these wretches from having the least intercourse with the soldiers. Notwithstanding the presumed, or reputed immorality of the French nation, the strictest regard was paid to the character and health of their armies. During the monarchy, prostitutes were publicly exposed upon a wooden horse.—See Cheval de Bois.

TRUMEAU, Fr. In architecture, the space in a wall which is between two windows. It also signifies a piece of plate.

TRUMPET, or Trumpet, A wind instrument made of brass or silver, with a mouth piece to take out and put in pleasure. Each troop of cavalry has one.

TRUMPETER. The soldier who sounds the trumpet.

TRUMPET SOUNDNINGS. See Soundings.

TRUMPET SOUNDNINGS. See Soundings.

TRUNCHEON. A club; a cudgel, also a staff of command. See Batox.

To TRUNCHEON. To beat with a truncheon. Dr. Johnson has quoted a passage out of Shakespeare, which is extremely apposite to those blustering imposing characters that sometimes annoy public places, and commit swelling acts of depredation under the assumed title of captain. Captain! thou abominable cheat! if captains were of my mind, they would truncheons out of taking their names upon you before you earned them!
TRUNCHEONEER. One armed with a truncheon.

TRUNNIONS, in guns. Two cylindric pieces of metal in a gun, mortar, or howitzer, which project pieces of ordnance, and by which they are supported upon their carriages. See CAN-NON.

TRUNNION-plates, are two plates in travelling carriages, mortars, and howitzers, which cover the upper parts of the side-pieces, and go under the trunnions.

TRUSQUINS, Fr. Tools made use of by carpenters and joiners. They are called trusquins d'asssemblage, and trusquins de longue pointe.

TRUSSE. A bundle, as a bundle of hay or straw. Any thing thrust close together. Trusses of this description have been sometimes used in military affairs; the men carrying them in front for the purpose of deadening shot.

Truss of forage, is, as much as a trooper can carry on his horse's crupper. See SPUN HAY.

To TRUST. To give credit to, on promise of payment. In article 63, of the 39 and 40 of the king, cap. 27, it is enacted, that no soldier shall be liable to be arrested for a sum under 20l. and then an oath of the debt must be made before a judge.

TRUSTY. Honest, faithful, true, fit to be trusted. This word is used in the preamble of military commissions, &c. viz.—To our trusty and well beloved, &c.

TUBA. A trumpet, or military instrument, which was used among the ancients. There were three kinds among the Romans, viz.—The straight, or long trumpet, with which they sounded the charge; the crooked ones, or bucchines, with which the signal for battle was given, in the presence of the general, or for any military punishment; and the horn, by which orders were communicated from the general to the standard-bearer.

TUBE, Fr. A pipe, a siphon. It is particularly applicable to optical instruments.

TUCDUMMA. Ind. An account which is closed, after it has been examined.

TUCK. A long narrow sword.

TUIDESQUE, Fr. Teutonic; Germanic.

TUERIE, Fr. Slaughter; massacre. TUF, TUEFUA, Fr. A soft sandy stone which answers two purposes, either to build upon, or to build with. The French say figuratively—C'est un homme de tuf, he is a man of no depth, or profound knowledge.

TUFFES, Fr. See Pitsaux.

TUG, Fr. A turkish term for tail; a sort of standard called so by the Turks. It consists of a horse's tail, which is fixed to a long pole or half-pike, by means of a gold button. The origin of this standard is curious. It is said, that the Christians having given battle to the Turks, the latter were broken, and in the midst of their confusion, lost their grand standard. The Turkish general, being extremely agitated at the untoward circumstances which happened, most especially by the loss of the great standard, cut off a horse's tail with his sabre, fixed it to a half-pike; and holding it in his hand, rode furiously towards the fugitives, and exclaimed—Here is the great standard; let those who love me, follow into action! This produced the desired effect. The Turks rallied with redoubled courage, rushed into the thickest of the enemy, and not only gained the victory, but recovered their standard. Other writers assert, that six thousand Turks having been taken prisoners during a general engagement, contrived to escape from their guard or escort, and afterwards fought so gallantly, that they regained another battle; that in order to recognize one another, they cut off a horse's tail which they carried as a standard; that when they joined the Ottoman army, they still made use of the tug or tail; that the Turks, in consequence of the victory which was obtained under this new standard, looked upon it as a happy omen: and that since that period they have always fought under it as their banner, and the signal of success.

Whatever may have been the origin, it is certain, that when the Grand Signor takes the field in person, seven of these tails are always carried before him; and when he is in camp, they are planted in front of his tent.
The Grand Visier is entitled to three of these tails.

The three principal Bashaws of the empire, (viz. those of Baghdad, Grand Cairo, and Buda,) have the Grand Signor's permission to use this mark of distinction, throughout the whole extent of their jurisdiction.

Those Bashaws, that are not Visiers, have the privilege of having two tails.

The Beys, who are subordinate to the Bashaws, have only one.

In the bas-relievo which is under the tomb-stone of John Cassimire, King of Poland, in the abbey church of St. Germain, des Prés de Paris, that monarch is represented at the head of his cavalry, with a horse's tail, or tug for his standard.

TUG-PINS, are the iron pins which pass through the fore end of the shafts of the army carts, to fasten the draught chains for the fore horses.

TUILE, Fr. A tile.

TUILE creuse, Fr. A gutter tile.

TUILE de petit moule, Fr. A tile measuring about 10 inches in length, and six in breadth. About 300 will cover a square toise.

TUILE de grand moule, Fr. A tile measuring about 13 inches in length, and about eight and a half in breadth. One thousand are sufficient to cover seven toises.

TUILEAU, Fr. Shard of a tile.

TUILERIE, Fr. Tile kiln.

TUILERRIES, Fr. The gardens, belonging to the ci-devant Royal Palace in Paris, are so called, from the spot having originally been used for the tile-kilns.

TUKKEKYAL, Ind. Carpenters.

TUKMAR JUMMA, Ind. Money brought more than once to account.

TULBANUA, Ind. A fee, taken by Peons when placed as guards over any person.

TULLUB, Ind. This word literally means a demand, but it is often used for pay.

TULLUB Chitty, Ind. A summons.

TUIWAR, Ind. A sword.

TUMBRELS, (Tomberaux, Fr.) Covered carts, which carry ammunition for cannons, tools for the pioneers, miners, and artificers; and sometimes the money of the army.

TUMULTUS. Among the ancient Romans, the word tumultuus signified more than was generally understood by the term bellum, (war.) For during hostilities, the civil distribution of justice was never interrupted; whereas in times of tumult, and popular insurrection, all functions of the kind ceased every magistrate, and public office was obliged to take up arms, and the Consuls alone were invested with the authority of the state.

TUMUSSOOK, Ind. A bond.

TUNCAW, Ind. An assignment.

TUNES, Fr. Small twigs which, inlaced, or twisted across round several stakes planted in the earth, and which serve to keep the fascines together.

TUNIC, (Tunique, Fr.) A coat without sleeves, a tunic. It derives its name from the Latin word Tunica, or the coat, which was the common garment worn within doors by itself, and above under the gown. It was distinguished by different names among the Romans, corresponding with the several classes of the people, that were clothed according to their rank in life. See Kramer's Roman Antiquities, page 311, &c.

This sort of clothing is still worn in the East, and was prevalent among the French after their return from the Crusades to the Holy Land. They adopted it from the Saracens, and seemed ambitious of appearing in a garb which bore testimony to their feats of valor. These tunics, which were converted into a sort of uniform, obtained the name of Saladines among the French in compliment to the Emperor Saladin. Hence too the origin of Salade, which not only signified the armour that was worn beneath the Tunic or Saladin, but also the light helmet of that name.

Among the French, it likewise signified, a particular dress which was worn by their kings, under their robes of state at a coronation.

TUNICA PALMATA. A purple garment, or long robe, worn among the ancient Romans, which had a gold cloth border on it of a hand's breadth. Littleton says under Palmatus, a gown embroidered and bordered all over with palms, worn in triumph; also marked with the palm of one's hand. The Roman Emperors, by a refinement in politics, had attached considerable consequence to this appointment; for they well
well knew that it was necessary to keep the public mind in a state of constant amusement or occupation; and this could only be done by popular feasts and games. The person who presided on these occasions, was entitled to the first posts and employments in the Republic. If the present head of the French nation should ever get established on the throne of France, he will probably have recourse to the same expedients.

TUNTUNGI-Bashi, A Turkish term signifying master of the pipes, a situation under the Pacha.

TUQUE, Fr. A tarpaulin.

TURBAN, (Turban, Fr.) A cover consisting of several folds of white muslin, &c. which is worn by the Turks and other oriental nations. The blacks belonging to the different bands that are attached to British regiments likewise wear turbans, ornamented with fictitious pearls and feathers. Those of the foot guards are particularly gorgeous. The French say familiarly Prendre le Turban, to turn Turk.

The Great Turk bears over his arms, a turban enriched with pearls and diamonds, under two coronets. The first, which is made of pyramidal points, is heightened up with large pearls, and the uppermost is surmounted with crescents.

Green-Turban. A turban worn by the immediate descendants of Mahomet, and by the idiots or saints in Turkey.

White-Turban. A turban generally worn by the inhabitants of the East.

Yellow-Turban. A turban worn by the Polygars who are chiefs of mountainous or woodland districts in the East Indies. By the last accounts from India, this turban has been adopted by the revolted natives of that part of the globe, as a signal of national coincidence and national understanding. The Polygars are in possession of very extensive tracts of country, particularly among the woods and mountains, and are likely to be extremely troublesome to the British. For an interesting account of them, see Orme’s History of the Carnatic, pages 386, 390, 396, 420, &c.

TURCIE, Fr. Mole; pier; dyke.

Grand TURCOPOLIER de la religion, Fr. Before the Reformation, (when the Roman Catholic Religion prevailed in Great Britain,) England formed the sixth tongue in the Order of Malta, and the Grand Prior, as Turcopolier de la Religion, had the chief command of the troops belonging to that Order. We have endeavoured to trace this word to its etymology, but we have not been able to get beyond the French authority, from which we have taken the article. See Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, published in 1802.

Since we extracted the above article from the Nouveau Dictionnaire Militaire, we have been favoured with the following account of this term.

“Turco-Pilier, (French word Pilier, a pillar). As in all languages, certain powers and offices have been called “The Pillars” of the constitutions they upheld.

Turco-Pilier, (erroneously, at times, spelt Peler, Piller, and Pillier), is a term never found but in one or two dictionaries, and in the obscurest narratives of the Maltese; occurring, perhaps, only in Boisset or Bosso; not in Vertot nor in Voltaire.

In Malta, during the establishment of the Knights, over each of the eight subdivisions, (les huit Langues, as they were named,) each chief was called Le Baill, or Le Pillier. The English leader (for till the 8th Henry seized the knights revenues at the reformation, there was an English langue,) was entitled Turco Pilier. Possibly, from some pre-eminent absurdity, or mischief, in that banditti-masquerade, which they had the audacity to call The Holy War.

Hence, besides, this fantastic title of Turco-Pilier; many expressions, towards such effect, grew proverbial, in the chief modern languages, and appear even in Shakespeare and Molière.

Il est Turc la dessus,
Il est fort comme un Turc, &c.
are in Molière.

If Shakespeare’s words be wanting, they may now readily be had in the New Index to Shakespeare, by Mr. Francis Twiss; which is a most exemplary work, of care and usefulness too.

Since,
Since, in the *Paris Virgil* for the Dauphin, the French critics, for their index, had such excitements, as the Bishop Bossuet, *M. le Duc de Montessuy*, and the French King—That king, moreover, such a one, as is very rare!

As to the great work of Cardinal Charo, for the bible. He is said to have had a whole college of monks, no less than five hundred, to help him!

In a facetious contribution, a gay friend would trace Turco-Pilier, from the word pillage, and then have it stand thus:

Anglo,
Italo,
Provenço,
&c. &c. &c.

Piller.

Or again, if it could be Turco-Pilier, it can only be derived from the Greek Πωλεῖς, & Πωλός, & Πωλῆ, to signify many, the city, and a gate.

But to take it near at hand, from the Latin, through the Italian, into French, viz. Polis, Polire, Polir.

As if the knights-errant, &c. had nothing else for it, but to scour and brush up the Turks.

TURC-Opilier, Oppiler, Fr. Oppillo, Lat. Oppilare, Ital. to stop.—English also, Oppilate, to obstruct.

This word, with its substantive and adjective, almost confined to medical uses, is rare, except with the physicians, who threw such a lustre over Italy, in the 17th century; and among them, Johnson quotes our Harvey.

From the physicians, it got into the French poets of the time, as Regnier and Sénéré; or, perhaps, it might be from Lucretius it came—

*Ubi possit, magnus congestus Arema, Fluctibus adversis Oppilare ostia, contr*

*Cum mare permotum, ventis, ruit intus sed am.*

An hypothesis of his, on the periodical swell of the Nile.

Pillier, Fr. also signifies a buttress. Perhaps we may not strain the interpretation, when we say Turco-Pilier, a buttress against the Turks; in which light, the Order of Malta was originally considered. So that (by a very easy affinity to the word) *Grand Turcopilier de la Religion* meant the great support, or buttress, of the Roman Catholic Religion against the Turks, and a compliment was paid to England by investing the Grand Prior of the English langue or tongue, with the dignity. It should also be recollected that in those days, the popes were indulgently attentive to this Island; so much so, that the title of Defender of the Faith was exclusively given by Henry the VIIIth (before his insidious secession from the church) us has since been continued—though longer acknowledged in the Vexos among the honorary titles of kings.

TURK, (Turc, Fr.) The following account of the Turks has been given by a modern French writer:—"They are a nation that is naturally warlike, whose armies are commanded by experienced generals, and are composed of bold and executive soldiers. They are their knowledge of war, and their experience in tactics to three national cases, two of which do credit to their intellects. In the first place, they become enured to arms, from being bred to the profession from their earliest infancy; in the second, they are promoted upon the sole ground of merit, and by an uninterrupted gradation of rank; and in the third, they possess all the opportunities of learning the military art that constant practice and habitual warfare can afford. They are naturally robust, and constitutionally courageous, full of activity, and not at all enervated by the debaucheries of Europe, or the effeminacy of the East. Their predilection for war and enterprise, grows out of the recollection of past victories, and is strengthened by the two most powerful incentives to human daring, viz. reward and punishment: the first of which is extremely attractive, because it is extremely great, and the other equally deterring, because it is rigorous in the extreme. Add to these the strong influence of a religion, which holds out everlasting happiness and seats near Mahomet in beavers, to all who die fighting for their country on the field of battle; and which further teaches them most implicitly to believe, that every Turk holds inscribed upon his forehead his fatal moment, with the kind of death he must submit to, and that nothing human can alter
his destiny. When anything is to be put into execution, the order they receive is absolute, free from every species of intervention or control, and emanating from one independent authority. The power which is entrusted to their generals (like that of the Romans to their dictators) is brief and comprehensive, viz.—Promote the interests of your country or your sovereign.” See Essai sur la Science de la Guerre, tom. i. p. 207.

Such is the character of the Turks, as detailed by their old allies the French. How far it corresponds with reality, especially in regard to military knowledge, we must leave to future historians to determine; observing at the same time, that a few sparks of British valour and perseverance contributed more to the preservation of the Ottoman empire, during the late war, than all the fantastic images, or well-devised hypocrisies of Mahomet could have done. Our brave countrymen, on their return from Egypt, have been enabled to give a more faithful and correct account of their characters as soldiers.

TURMA. A troop of cavalry among the ancient Romans. The horse required to every legion was three hundred, divided into ten turmae or troops, thirty to a troop, every troop making three decuriae, or bodies of men. See Kennett, R. A. p. 192.

TURNOVER. A piece of white linen which is worn by the soldiers belonging to the British cavalry over their stocks, about half an inch deep. Three turnovers per annum are ordered to be provided by stoppage, in the list of necessaries from the pay of each cavalry soldier.

To TURN out. To bring forward, to exhibit; as, to turn out the guard; to turn out so many men for service.

To TURN in. To withdraw; to order under cover; as, to turn in the guard.

TURNPRIKE, (Barrière,) Fr. An obstacle placed across a road to prevent travellers, wagons, &c. from passing without paying an established toll. Officers and soldiers regimentally dressed, and on duty, may pass through turnpikes gratis.

TURNPIKE is also used in the military art, for a beam stuck full of spikes, to be placed in a gap, a breach, or at the entrance of a camp, to keep off the enemy. It may be considered as a sort of cheval de frise.

TURPENTINE. A very combustible gum, used in the composition of fireworks.

TURRET. A small tower. Moveable Turrets. See Towers.

TURRI. A tower; a turret. This was formerly a sort of retrenchment, used among the people in Asia, and which the Greeks adopted for warlike purposes. It was a moveable machine and principally employed at sieges. In the latter case Vegetius calls it Turris Ambulatoria, a moveable turret, which was higher than the walls of a town, and went upon wheels. Athenaeus gives the invention of this turret to the Sicilians; and Servius says that Agrippa, a celebrated sea captain among the Romans, first introduced it. We are of opinion, with the author of the French military dictionary, that it owes its origin to the remotest antiquity, and that it was common among the Hebrews, the Israelites, &c.

TUSSULDar, Ind. The Company’s collector of the kistybundy.

TUyAU, Fr. Any pipe, &c. of lead, or gutter, or canal, made of burnt clay, &c. which serves to carry off the water from the roof of a house.

Tuyau de cheminée, Fr. The cylindrical conduit which receives and lets out the smoke at the top of a chimney.

Tuyaux de descente, Fr. The pipes which convey the water downwards.

TWEED. A river that divides England from Scotland.

BERWICK upon Tweed. The power respecting the militia for the county of Northumberland extends to this place; the men belonging to it being subject to be balloted for, in the same proportion with the other divisions, and to join and be deemed part of the militia of that county.

The chief magistrate of Berwick upon Tweed, has authority to appoint deputy lieutenants, and to nominate officers.

TYMPAN, (Tympan, Fr.) In architecture, the area of a pediment, being that part which is on a level with the naked of the frize. Or it is the space includ-
included between the three cornices of
a triangular pediment, or the two cor-
nices of a circular one. Among joiners
it signifies the pannels of a door.

TYMPAN of an arch, is the triangu-
lar space or table in the corners or
sides of the arch, usually hollowed and
enriched, sometimes with branches of
laurel, olive-tree, or oak, or with tro-
phies, &c. Sometimes with flying figures,
as Fame, Victory, &c.; or sitting figures,
as the cardinal virtues.

TYMPANUM. A drum, a musical
instrument which the ancients used,
and which consisted of a thin piece of
leather or skin stretched upon a circle
of wood or iron, and beat with the hand.
Hence the origin of our drum.

TYMPANUM. In mechanics, a kind
of wheel placed round an axis or cylin-
drical beam, on the top of which are
two levers, or fixed staves, for the more
easy turning the axis about, in order to
raise a weight required. It is also used for
any hollow wheel, wherein one or more
persons or animals, such as horses, dogs,
&c. walk, to turn it. This wheel is
found in cranes, calenders, &c.

TYRANT, (Tyran, Fr.) Any indi-
vidual is so called, who by force of
arms, or by other illegitimate means,
has encroached upon, or usurped, the
sovereign authority in a country. The
Dionysius was called the tyrant of
Sicily, and Robespierre the tyrant of
France; we might also add Henry the
Eight, the tyrant of England. The
term is likewise applicable to legiti-
mate princes, when they oppress their sub-
jects, by excessive taxation and unnec-
cessary wars. All men, in a more ge-
eral acceptation of the term, may be
called tyrants, who exceed the limits
of prescribed and fair authority, in op-
position to the dictates of reason and
good sense. Thus the colonel of a regi-
ment, an adjutant, and even a serjeant-
major, or drill-serjeant, may incur the
imputation.

PETTY TYRANTS, Tyrannces, Fr. A
low, groveling set of beings, who with-
out one spark of real courage within
themselves, execute the orders of usurp-
ed or strangled authority, with brutal
rigour.

VACANCY, (vacance, Fr.) State of
an office or commission to which no
one is appointed.

VACANT, (Vacant, e. Fr.), Empty;
not filled.

VACANT Companies, (Compagnies va-
cantes, Fr.) Companies to the perma-
nent command of which no person is ap-
pointed.

VACANT P ay. See Pay.

Emploī-VACANS, Fr. During the
French monarchy, seniority of rank or
standing did not give the right of pro-
motion. It belonged solely to the king to
appoint and nominate all persons to
vacant commissions or appointments.

VACATIO militiae. Military ex-
emption. Among the Greeks no man
was called into active service after he
had reached his sixtieth year. The
Romans established the vaccatio-militiae,
or military exemption, at forty-five and
fifty.

VACCINATION. See Cow-Poz.

VACHE enragée, Fr. A term used
in France to express great discontent.
Je te ferai manger de la vache enragée.
Thou shalt go for a soldier; intimating
thereby that soldiers are obliged to eat
any thing, and any sort of meat, even
that of a mad cow or bullock. This,
thank God, is not the case with us.
For no men live better or upon choice
morsels than the soldiers of Old England.

VAGUE-Mestre, Fr. See Wagons-
Master.

VAGUE-Mestre-Général, Fr. This
word has been adopted by the French
from the German term Wagn-Meister,
which signifies Wagon-Master.

VAINCU, Fr. Beaten: overcome;
defeated.

VAINQUEUR, Fr. A conqueror.
One who beats, overcomes, or defeats
another.

VAIN.
VALISEAU, Fr. Ship.
VAISSEAU du premier rang, Fr. A first rate.
VAISSEAU du second rang, Fr. A second rate.
VAISSEAU de guerre, Fr. A man of war.
VAISSEAU Marchand, Fr. A merchant-man.
VAISSELLE d'Argent, Fr. Silver utensils; plate. We have already remarked under Table d'Officiers, that during the old government of France, it was strictly forbidden to use any other plate than silver goblets, spoons, and forks.
VAIVODE, Fr. An old Slavonian word, which signifies prince or general. This title was formerly given to the sovereign princes of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania.
VAJIB UL AKEE, Ind. A petition, memorial, or proposal to a superior.
VAKEEL, Ind. An agent—a subordinate envoy or ambassador.
VAKILAS, Ind. A weight nearly equal to a pound. It also signifies a measure.
VAKILIT, Ind. The first office in the empire.
VALET, Fr. An instrument which is used by carpenters to keep boards, that have been glued, close together.
VALETS de l'Armée, Fr. Officers' servants; they are likewise called by the French, Tartares.
VALETS d'Artillerie, Fr. Men attached to the guns on board of ships of war, for the purpose of assisting the regular cannoniers.
VALETS à Patin, Fr. An instrument which is used by surgeons—a small pincer to take up the arteries when it is found necessary to make a ligature.
VALETS de Ville, Fr. Constables, &c. Men who are attached to the Police of a town.
VALETUDINARIUM. An infirmary, or hospital for sick folks. Among the Romans the valetudinarium or hospital was only established in time of war, when their armies marched beyond the boundaries of the republic. In the remote periods of their history, the wounded soldiers were lodged with the inhabitants of the several towns belonging to the republic, by whom they were nursed and fed; and when they were on foreign service, the wounded were obliged to dress one another. There were, in those times, neither physicians nor surgeons attached to the armies; and it often happened, that superannuated or old soldiers did their business.
VALEUREUSEMENT, Fr. Courageously.
VALIANT, personally brave.
VALOROUS, fearless of danger in war, &c.
VALLEY, (Val. Fr.) A hollow space of ground, generally between hills.
VALLUM, Ager, Vinea, Turre.
All these different terms were used among the Greeks and ancient Romans, as well as among the eastern nations, to signify the retracements which were made for offensive or defensive purposes. That which was called Ager consisted of an elevation made with piles of wood, branches of trees, &c. and afterwards covered with turf. It was sufficiently high to overlook the town. This artificial mount was surrounded by a fosse or ditch, and fenced with palisades. These retracements had different terms applied to them, according to the different manner in which they were constructed. The Vinea were engines of war made of timber and hurdles, beneath which the ancients in assault, came safely under the walls of a town, and so scaled them. Then came the Turre, which see.
VALOUR, (Valeur, Fr.) Courage, bravery, intrepidity. A generous quality, which, far from assuming brutality and violence, with-holds the fury of the soldier, protects helpless women, innocent infants, and hoary age. Nothing which is incapable of resistance, can ever be the object whereon true valour would exercise its prowess. Courage is that grandeur of soul, which prompts us to sacrifice all personal advantages, and even the preservation of our beings, to a love of doing our duty. The exercise of this determined courage in the profession of arms, is called valour. It is composed of bravery, reason, and force; by bravery we understand that lively ardour which fires us for the combat; reason points out to us the method of conducting it with justice and prudence; and force is necessary for the execution,
It is bravery which animates the heart, reason springs from the soul, and force depends upon the body; without bravery we fear obstacles, danger, and death; without reason, courage would have no legitimate view; and without force it would be useless: these three qualities should concur to form true military valour.

Dr. Johnson defines valour, bravery, and courage almost as synonymous terms. Mr. Addison distinguishes between that sort of courage which springs, by instinct, from the soul, and from that which originates in a sense of duty, and is strengthened by reflexion. Count Turpin, on the other hand, establishes a wide difference between bravery and courage, which he makes two terms. In page 5, of the preliminary discourse to his Essay on the Art of War, he has the following passage:

"Is the officer—speaking of the requisite qualifications in a general—who loves his duty, and who would make himself master of it, under no obligation to ascertain what qualifications his station requires? That he ought to have such or such a quality, under such or such a circumstance? That here only bravery is necessary, there only courage? And that he is not always obliged to have both at the same time?

These two qualities, which are often confounded in the same subject, merit a particular distinction; they are not so closely united, but that one may be found without the other. Courage seems fittest for a general, and for all those who command; bravery more necessary for a soldier, and for all those who receive orders; bravery is in the blood; courage in the soul; the first is a kind of instinct, the second a virtue; the one is an impulse almost mechanical, the other a noble and a sublime conception. A man is brave at a particular time, and according to circumstances; but he has a courage at all times, and upon all occasions: bravery is impetuous, in as much as it is less the result of reflection; courage, on the contrary, in proportion as it grows out of reason, becomes more or less intrepid. Bravery is inspired by the force of example, by insensibility to danger, and by the mingled fury of conflict and action; courage is infused by the love of our duty, the desire of glory, and by the zeal we feel to serve our king and country: courage depends on reason, but bravery on the constitution. Achilles, such as Horace describes him, from Homer, implacable, cruel, despising every law except that of the strongest, presents nothing to the idea, but the hardness of a gladiator. But the Roman general, whose death would have occasioned the ruin of the army, the great Scipio, when covered by the bucklers of three soldiers, to avoid a shower of arrows, which the enemy directed against him, approaches in safety the walls besieged, and standing only a spectator of the action, exhibits the picture of true courage, whilst he contents himself with giving the necessary orders. Bravery again, is involuntary, and does not depend wholly upon ourselves; whereas courage (as Seneca observes) may be acquired by education; provided nature has sown the first seeds of it. Cicero, sheltering himself from the hatred of Catiline, undoubtedly wanted bravery; but certainly he possessed an elevated firmness of mind (which is in reality courage) when he disclosed the conspiracy of that traitor to the senate, and pointed out all his accomplices; or, when he pleaded for Deiotarus against Caesar, his friend and his judge.

Coolness is the effect of courage, which knows its danger, but makes no other use of that knowledge, than to give directions with greater certainty; courage is always master of itself, provided against all accidents, and regulated by existing circumstances; never confounded by any danger, so as to lose sight of the motions of the enemy, or of the means by which he may be most effectually opposed.

The Chevalier Folard makes the following remarks upon this quality of the mind and heart. He says, in his notes on Polybius, there are various kinds of that species of courage, intrepidity, or strength of soul, which no circumstances can vanquish, and no events can shake. I do not know whether a quality, so diversified in its nature, can be found united in the same person to the full extent of its activity. We generally, discover that some men possess a larger proportion of it than others.
In order to form a correct opinion of its existence in the human character, we should find out some individual who has acted through all the vicissitudes of life, and has uniformly discovered the same firmness of mind and intrepidity of heart. But where shall we pick out a character of this sort? Life is too short for the full exercise of its various powers, and were it of a longer date, the circumscribed faculties of man render the research useless. I do not believe it is possible to point out an individual who, free from the natural weaknesses that are attached to our constitution, has in adversity as well as prosperity been equally firm, and equally determined throughout all the changes to which military operations are unavoidably subject.

This intrepidity and strength of mind, have been peculiarly visible on manifold occasions in some extraordinary characters, who have been equally remarkable on others for weakness and pusillanimity. We have seen them bold to the full extent of hardihood during a succession of triumphs; we have then beheld them shamefully agitated under a temporary reverse of fortune, and we have again seen them recover their wonted energy on the first favourable opportunity. These opposite qualities succeed one another; and we see boldness and timidity occupy by turns the same man, so as to produce, according to circumstances, the utmost solicitude and caution in some instances, and the greatest courage, firmness, and decision in others, during the prosecution of a war.

These fluctuations of the human character may be traced, almost every day, in a certain description of generals. When they are reduced to defensive operations, their understanding becomes perplexed; they know not how to act, and not only omit to make use of favourable opportunities themselves, but unwittingly afford them to their enemies; whilst, on the other hand, in offensive war, their genius expands itself into a variety of expedients; they create occasions that did not seem to exist, turn them to account, and finally succeed. Thus we see united in the same man promptitude, vigour, and enterprise in one species of warfare; and timidity, doubt, and consternation in another.

I have known, says Folard, generals of marked intrepidity, (who in trifling matters have discovered a solicitude that approached to a want of manliness) conceive projects of vast extent, that were full of intricate developments, and chequered by incertitude; and I have seen them conquer the greatest obstacles by their courage and good conduct.

Human nature is so strangely constituted, that whilst one man will rush into danger, as if attracted by blood and devastation, another will not have firmness enough to stand his ground, and face the coming evil. He, who in the hour of battle would give fresh courage to his troops, by being the foremost to advance, has been known to turn pale in the very trench where a soldier's boy or woman has sat undisturbed selling spirits and provisions; or has been discovered to tremble, when the signal for storming was given. The very man that would courageously lead his troop into action, or would prove the most expert marksman in the world, were he directed to practise in the front of a whole line, has been known to shrink at a single combat, and would rather rush headlong into a guarded breach, than measure swords or point a pistol with an antagonist. Another again, whom no danger could affect in public contests or in private feuds, when visited by sickness is full of apprehension, has recourse to physic, and in proportion as his malady increases, grows timid, scrupulous, and unhappy. It sometimes happens, on the other hand, though rarely, that the rankest coward will lie peaceably in bed amidst all the surrounding terrors of dissolution, and will even smile as his agony approaches.

I have seen, continues the same author, (and daily experience confirms his observations) one of the bravest officers in the world, suddenly turn pale in a thunder-storm, and even so far give way to his fears, as to hide himself in a cellar. One man possesses what the French so forcibly stile une valeur Journaliere, a sort of ephemeral courage, or what depends upon the influence of the moment; to-day he is as bold as Achilles;
Achilles; to-morrow he sinks into the degraded character of Thersites.

These changes in character and constitution, which are so visible in individuals, may be traced in their influence over whole nations, with little or no deviation. The Persian cavalry still maintains its ancient reputation for valour, and is still dreaded by the Turks. Tacitus relates, that the Sarmatian horse was invincible, but when the men were dismounted, nothing could be more miserably defective in all the requisites of war. Their whole dependance was on their cavalry, and, as far as we are enabled to judge, the same partial quality exists to this day.

The French, until the present revolution, seemed to have preserved the character and disposition of the ancient Gauls. They went with more alacrity into action, and met death, at first sight, with more valour, than they discovered firmness and resolution to wait patiently for its approach. Hurry and agitation appeared more congenial to their minds, than calmness and composure.

In order to conquer, it was found necessary, by their ablest generals, to make them attack and insult their enemies. They grew impatient in slow operations, and gradually became less capable of meeting their antagonists in proportion to the time they were restrained from coming to action. Their whole history, indeed, is a continued proof of the justness of this observation; and although their character seems to have undergone considerable changes since their revolution, they have still retained so much of the original cast, as to shew more promptitude in offensive, than steadiness and perseverance in defensive operations. Not that they are deficient in the latter, but that the former quality has been more brilliantly successful. To the first they owe their stupendous triumphs under Bonaparte; but they have again been rendered almost equally conspicuous by their conduct in the second under General Moreau, in his celebrated retreat out of the Black Forest. Having said so much of our rival, we shall not be thought unjust to other nations, or too much prejudiced in favour of our own, if we assert that the British character unites within itself every quality that constitutes the real soldier.

Let British soldiers be well officered, and ably commanded, and they will march into action not only with the elastic promptitude of the Frenchman, but they will also carry with them the cool determined courage of the German. If there be a feature in their character that approaches nearer to one nation than another, it is in the quickness and vigour of their attacks. But, alas! of what avail is the courage of the multitude, if the generality of the leaders are deficient in those indispensable qualities by which French officers have acquired the greatest reputation. It is like a torch in the hands of a fool or madman, who would as soon lead an enthusiast to a precipice, as he would shew him the paths he ought to tread.

In a work, originally written by the Marquis of Santa Cruz de Marzamado, and translated under the title of *Reflections Militaires et Politiques par de Vergy*, the following just observations are made relative to this important quality of the mind.

Valour (by which we understand a thorough indifference to all sort of personal danger, and even a contempt of death,) is so necessary an ingredient in the character of a general, that were I to discuss the subject, I should pay a bad compliment, indeed, to the idea which every individual must have formed of it in his own mind. A real general, in my opinion, should therefore remain satisfied with saying in the words of Marius, *Nihil metuo nisi turpem formam*—(Sallust, Bel. Jugur.) I fear nothing except the disgrace which must be incurred by a bad reputation; or in those of Alcibiades, *Ne vixere quidem vellem, si timidus essem*—Plat. l. 5. Alci. 1. I would not even live were I personally timorous, or afraid of death: and this saying is the more correct, because, according to Strada, *Belli das nihil magis timere debet, quam timere videatur* (Famianus Strada de Bella Belgico, l. 7.) There is nothing which a general or chief of an army should so much fear as having it known, or even suspected, that he is afraid.

To these might be added the more modern saying, already quoted under religion:

*Je crains Dieu, Abner.*—*Je n'ai point d'autre.*
d'autre crainte. I fear God, Abner.—
I have no other fear.

VALUE, in a general acceptance of the term, signifies the rate at which any thing is estimated. It is particularly applicable to the half-pay, in contradiction to full pay. The former having an inherent value, but not being a saleable commodity (as every officer is strictly forbidden to sell that allowance) it cannot properly be said to have a price, which implies bargain and sale, but still it has a value within itself; whereas full pay has both value and price. Hence regulation price of a commission means the marketable rate at which a full pay commission may be bought or sold; and regulation value of a half-pay signifies the rate at which it is estimated, but cannot be sold. The regulation value for a company of foot is 8211. 5s. being nine years purchase.

VAN. The front of an army, the first line.

Van-guard. That part of the army which marches in the front. See Guard.

VANCOURIER. See Avant Courrier.

VANNE, Fr. A floodgate.

VANNES, Venteaux ou cloisons de bois de chêne, Fr. Floodgates, generally made of oak.

VANTAIL, Fr. Leaf of a folding-door.

VANT-brass. Armour for the arm.

VARECH, Fr. A term used in Normandy, upon the coast of France, to signify all goods, &c. that are washed on shore, and are near enough for a man on horseback to touch them with a lance, thereby becoming his property.

Droits de Varech, Fr. The right to salvage. A term used in Normandy. Varech likewise signifies any vessel under water.

VARLET, Fr. In the days of chivalry this word was synonymous to page. With us it anciently meant a yeoman's servant. Varlet is also taken in a bad sense, and signifies a sorry wretch, a rogue, or rascal.

In Stat. 30. Rich. II. Varlets meant yeomen, or the servants of yeomen. For the etymology of this word, see p. 149, in the second part of Mr. Horne Tooke's learned and interesting publication, entitled the Diversions of Purley.

VARLOPE, Fr. A carpenter's large plane.

VARSA, Ind. The rainy season.

VASA-Conclamare. Among the ancient Romans, the first signal to decamp, (which was given by the sound of a bugle-horn) was so called. The first time the bugle sounded, the general's tent was struck, and immediately after, the soldiers struck theirs, and packed up. When it sounded the second time, the wagons were loaded; and at the third signal, the army marched off the ground; care being taken to leave lighted fires in the camp, for the purpose of deceiving the enemy.

VASANT, Ind. The mild season or spring.

VASSALAGE. Subjection, or the condition of a vassal.

VASSAL, (arrière—) Fr. Under the race of Charlemagne, in France, thearrière vassal was a man, who owed allegiance at the same time, for feudal tenure, both to the king and to some particular lord of the manor, so that when the king and the lord of the manor differed, he did not know which master he was bound to serve. This monstrous and incongruous system, so disgraceful to the very name of manhood, continued until the third race of French kings, when it was reduced to a mere rational homage, which was paid to the king or lord of the manor, with a low rent for the right of tenure.

Vassal-ligé, Fr. See Vassalage.

Vassals. Those who were in the feudal system were obliged to attend their lord in war, as a tenure by which they held their lands, &c.

VAUDOIS, or Barbets. A species of light troops in the service of Sardinia. They consist of mountaineers or highlanders, who are lightly clothed and armed, and are esured to the chicanery of mountain-service.

VEDETTE, (Vedette, Fr.) in war, a sentinel on horseback, with his horse's head towards the place whence any danger is to be feared, and his carbine advanced, with the butt end against his right thigh. Vedettes are generally posted at all the avenues, and on all the rising grounds, to guard the several passages when an enemy is encamped.

The Vedettes to the out-posts should always
always be double, for the following reasons: first, that whenever they make any discovery, one may be detached to the commanding officer of the out-posts; secondly, that they may keep each other watchful; and thirdly, that the vigilance of both may render it impossible for any thing to come near them without being seen. They should be at no greater distance from their detachments than 80 or 100 paces.

For particular instructions, relative to the posting of vedettes, see a *Treatise on the Duties of an Officer in the Field*, by Baron Gross; see likewise *Gen. Reg. and Orders*, page 34 to 37.

**VEHICLE.** (*Véhicule*, *voiture*, Fr.) carriage, a machine which is made to convey one or more persons; of this description are our military cars.

**VEKILCHARES,** a word used among the Turks, which signifies the same as *fourrier* in the French, and corresponds with quartermaster.

**VELITES,** Roman soldiers, who were commonly some of the Tiros, or young soldiers of mean condition, and lightly armed. They had their name, *a volando*, from flying, or *a velocitate*, from swiftness. They seem not to have been divided into distinct bodies or companies, but to have hovered in loose order before the army. *Kennett's R. A.* page 190. Their arms consisted of a sword and javelin, and they had a shield or buckler, which was sufficiently large to cover its man, being round, and measuring three feet and a half in diameter.

They generally wore a wolf's skin, or some other indifferent ornament upon their heads, to distinguish them during an action. Their javelins were a sort of dart, the wood of which measured three cubits in length, and was about the thickness of a finger. The point was about a hand's full breadth in length, and was so thin and brittle, that it snapped off the instant it reached or penetrated its object, so that the enemy could not return it. It was distinguished, in this particular, from other darts and javelins.

**VELOCITY,** the quickness of motion with which bodies are moved from one place to another.

In the years 1788, 1789, 1790, experiments were made at Woolwich with the ballistic pendulum, to ascertain the initial velocity of military projectiles; the result of which will be found in a work entitled the Pocket Gunner, published in 1801.

**VENGEANCE,** (*Vengeance, Fr.*) punishment; penal retribution; vengeance. There is an old proverb in our language, regarding the first part of the interpretation of this term, which has been quoted by N. Bailey in the following manner:—

When vice goes before, vengeance follows after. The notion of impunity often animates ill-disposed persons to the commission of flagrant crimes, which would never have been perpetrated, had the verity of this proverb been impressed in the minds of these delinquents; for certain it is, however slowly vengeance may seem to move, it will assuredly overtake the offender at last; and by how much it is the longer in coming, being once armed, it will fall on them the heavier. According to that maxim, *though justice has leden feet*, it has iron hands. Horace says, *Raro antecedentem spectum describit pede penna clavo*.

With respect to the last interpretation, *avengement,* a French author very justly observes, that the indulgence of this fatal passion has, at all times, proved a source of the greatest evil. Vengeance, among men, grows out of self-interest; is the offspring of ambition; and frequently the effect of the blackest ingratitude. It also often happens, that under the mistaken veil of justifiable chastisement, the most inhuman acts of vengeance are perpetrated; happy the man who is a stranger to this mean and unworthy propensity! It has been said, (and most absurdly so) that vengeance is a godlike pleasure. The wretch who fosters in his breast this melancholy notion, is secretly nursing ten thousand vipers that must, sooner or later, sting him to the heart. Let it, however, be remembered, that if the suppression of the dictates of revenge be ornamental to the human mind, the never giving cause for vengeance is equally brilliant; and if the person, against whom sufficient has been done, to excite a just resentment in his mind, can rise superior to his own wrongs, such a person may be truly called a high-minded man, and a hero in the best sense.
VENGER, Fr. to revenge; to avenge.

VENT, (Lumière, Fr.) in artillery, or, as it is vulgarly called, the touch-hole, is the opening through which the fire is conveyed to the powder that compositions the charge.

As the placing the vents in mortars, howitzers, and guns, in the best manner, is so very delicate a point, and about which both authors and practitioners differ, we will advance what the result of experiments has demonstrated. The most common method is to place the vent about a quarter of an inch from the bottom of the chamber or bore; though we have seen many half an inch, and some an inch from the bottom. It has always been imagined, that if the vent was to come out in the middle of the charge, the powder would be inflamed in less time than in any other case, and consequently produce the greatest range; because, if a tube be filled with powder, and lighted in the centre, the powder will be burnt in half the time it would otherwise be, were it lighted at one end. This gave a grounded supposition, that the greater the quantity of powder which burnt before the shot or shell was sensibly moved from its place, the greater force it would receive. To determine this, the King of Prussia, in 1765, ordered that a light three-pounder should be cast, with three shifting vents, one at the centre of the charge, one at the bottom, and the other at an equal distance from the bottom and centre one; so that when one was used, the others were effectually stopped. The gun weighed 2 cwt. 1 qr. 20 lb. its length was 3 feet 3 inches, and the bottom of the bore quite flat. It was loaded each time with one-fourth of the shot's weight; and it was found, that when the lowest or bottom vent was used, the shot went farthest, and the ranges of the others diminished in proportion as they were distant from the bottom. The piece was elevated to 1 degree 30 minutes.

In 1766 the same monarch caused several experiments to be tried with three small mortars of equal size and dimensions, but of different forms in their chambers; each of which held seven ounces and a half of powder. From these experiments it appeared, that the concave chamber produced the greatest ranges, and that the bottom of the chamber is the best place for vents, having in that place the greatest effect.

VENT-field, is the part of a gun or howitzer between the breech mouldings and the astragal.

VENT-astragal, that part of a gun or howitzer which determines the vent-field.

VENT, Fr. that vacancy which is occasioned by the difference between the caliber of a piece of ordnance, and the diameter of its ball. See Windage.

VENT, Fr. wind. The French use this word in various senses.

VENT d'un boulet de canon, Fr. the wind of a cannon ball.

Coup de VENT, Fr. heavy weather; a squall.

VENT réglé, Fr. a regular wind; such as the trade-wind.

Àvoir du VENT, Fr. in farriery, to be purisy.

VENTS alizés, Fr. trade winds.

VENTAIL, that part of a helmet which is made to lift up.

VENTOUSES, Fr. air-holes, ventilators.

VENTRE, Fr. belly; womb. When a piece of ordnance is off its carriage, and lies on the ground, it is said, among the French, to be upon its belly—être sur le ventre.

Se coucher VENTRE à terre, Fr. To lie down flat on your face. Le capitaine ordonna à ses soldats de se coucher ventre à terre, the captain ordered his men to lie down. This frequently occurs in action, when any part of the line or detached body is so posted as to be within reach of the enemy's cannon, and not sufficiently near to make use of its own musquetery. A cool determined officer never lies down himself.

Demander pardon VENTRE à terre, Fr. to ask pardon in the most abject position.

VERANDA, Ind. the covering of houses, being extended beyond the main pile of building, by means of a slanting roof, forming external rooms or passages.

VERBAL orders, instructions given by word of mouth, which, when communicated through an official channel, are to be considered as equally binding with written ones.

VERBAL,
VERBAL, Fr. verbal; given by word of mouth.

Proces Verbal, Fr. a verbal deposition.

VERD, Fr. green. This word is sometimes used in a figurative sense by the French, viz.

Homme Verd or Vert, Fr. a resolute man.

Tite Verte, Fr. a giddy thoughtless fellow.

VERD pour les chevaux, Fr. green forage or grass. In the ancien régime of France, the cavalry and dragoon horses, when quartered in a flat country, were allowed to be thirty days at grass; the particular period was left to the discretion of the commanding officers. The term was sometimes extended to forty days, without any deduction being made for the ten days; by means of which an emolument accrues to the captains of troops, not only from the horses which were actually sent to grass, but likewise for those that were returned as such.

VERDIGRASE, (Verd-de-Gris, Fr.) a kind of rust of copper, which is of great use among painters. It is also taken medicinally.

VERGE, Fr. a yard; a measure; a switch, &c.

VERGE Rhinlandique, Fr. a measure which is equal to two French toises, or to 12 French feet. It is often used by Dutch engineers, in the measuring of works in a fortification.

VERGE d'or, Fr. the same as arbailite, arbitral, or Jacob's staff; in astronomy, a beam of light.

VERGES, Fr. rods.

Passer par les VERGES, Fr. a punishment which was formerly practised among the French. See PUNITIONS corporelles.

VERGES, Fr. twigs or branches, measuring from ten to twelve feet in length, which are used in making fascines.

VERGUE, Fr. A ship's yard.

La VÉRITÉ, Fr. truth. A French lexicographer has entered very diffusely into the explanation of this term: we shall satisfy ourselves by extracting the most remarkable passage in it; this relates to the general character of his countrymen. He says, "The French, considered collectively, are mostly of an open and ingenuous character; but it must be allowed, at the same time, that the generality of the nation are light and thoughtless, and extremely indifferent about what they may assert as truth, and indeed about their actions.

VERNIS, Fr. varnish.

VEROLE, Fr. great pox, which see. Notwithstanding the prevalence of this disorder in France, and throughout Europe, it is reckoned so dreadful a visitation, that the French have a familiar proverb, which says,—Si tu crains pas Dieu, au moins crains la vrole; if thou art not afraid of God, dread, at least, the pox.

VERRE pour prendre hauteur, Fr. a thick coloured glass, through which an observation is taken of the sun.

VERRE pâté, Fr. broken pieces of glass, which are sometimes used in artificial fire-works.

VERRIN, Fr. a machine which is used to raise large weights; such as cannon, &c.

VERROU, Fr. a bolt.

VERS, Fr. towards. Hence, marcher vers la côte, to march towards the coast; diriger les opérations vers la côte, to direct a plan of operations towards the coast.

VERSER, Fr. to spill; to shed; to pour in.

VERSER son sang pour la patrie, Fr. to shed one's blood for the country. This word is used, among the French, to specify the delivery of musquets, fusils versés à l'arsenal, firelocks delivered up or thrown into the arsenal.

VERSER du sang, Fr. to spill blood.

VERTICAL, (vertical, Fr.) perpendicular.

VERTICAL point, (point vertical, Fr.) a term used in astronomy, to express an imaginary point in the heavens, which is supposed to fall perpendicularly upon our heads.

VERUTUM, a weapon or dart, which was used among the ancients, short and narrow, headed with iron, like a narrow spit; some call it a casting dart with a string.

VERVINA, among the Romans, a long javelin, also a spit or brooch.

VERVENA, (Verveine, Fr.) Ver vein, an herb that was reckoned sacred among the Romans, with which the Pater Patratus, or the king of heralds,
was crowned, when he quitted the
Council of heralds, for the purpose of
declaring war, or proclaiming peace.

VESTIBULE, Fr. porch; entry; hall.

VESTIBULE, (vestibule, Fr.) in forti-
sication, is that space or covered ground
which is in front of guard-houses, and
is generally supported by pillars. Of
this description is the front part of the
new guard-house near Buckingham
House. In a more general sense, any
large open space before the door or en-
trance of a house. Daviler derives the
word from vestes and ambulo, by reason
people there begin to let their trains
fall. In the West-Indies the vestibule
is called a balcony.

VETERAN, (vétérán, Fr.) This
word comes from the Latin veteranus,
a soldier in the Roman militia, who was
grown old in the service, or who had
made a certain number of campaigns,
and on that account was entitled to cer-
tain benefits and privileges.

Twenty years service were sufficient
to entitle a man to the benefit of a ve-
teran. These privileges consisted in be-
ing absolved from the military oath,
in being excused all the duties and func-
tions of a soldier, and in being allowed
a certain salary or appointment.

A French soldier is entitled to the
honourable name of veteran, after he
has served twenty-four years, without
any break in his service.

VÉTÉRANCE, Fr. the state, con-
dition of an old soldier.

Lettre de Vétérance, Fr. the doc-
ument or letter which enables an old
soldier to claim the rights and privi-
leges of a veteran.

VETERANI, among the Romans,
all soldiers were so called who, after
having served twenty-five years, obtain-
ed their discharge. If they chose to
continue in the service, they were ex-
empted from all sentry and fatigue-
duties; and they only joined their dif-
ferent legions when the army took the
field. The period for being put upon
this list, was shortened by the Em-
peror Augustus; and was, (from having
once been 29) reduced to twenty years
service in the infantry, and to ten in
the cavalry.

VÉTÉRINAIRE, Fr. See Véteri-

nary.
VIANDE, Fr. Meat; animal food. In the old regime every French soldier was allowed half a pound of meat per day.

M. de Louvois, who was in a public situation under the old government of France, sent in a plan, recommending, that a quantity of dried meat reduced to powder, should be distributed to troops on service. He took the idea from a custom which is prevalent in the East. He did not, however, live to fulfill his intentions, although he had already constructed copper ovens that were large enough to contain eight bullocks. Very excellent broth can be made of this powder; one ounce of which boiled in water, will supply a sufficient quantity for four men; and one pound of fresh meat gives one ounce of powder; so that, according to the inventor's assertion, there is a saving of one pound. The portable soup-balls which are sold in this country are of the same nature.

VIBRATION. See Pendulum.

VICE-ADMIRAL, (vice-amiral, Fr.) A naval officer of the second rank; who takes rank with generals of horse. Louis XIV. who endeavoured to establish a French navy in 1669, created two vice-admirals of the fleet, whom he called vice-admiral of the East, and vice-admiral of the West.

VICTOR. A conqueror; generally applied to the chief officer of a successful army.

VICTORY, (Victoire, Fr.) The overthrow, or defeat of an enemy in war, combat, duel, or the like.

VICTUALLES, Fr. The provisions which are embarked on board ships of war are so called by the French.

VICTUALLEUR, Fr. Victualler. Victuals. Food or sustenance allowed to the troops, under certain regulations, whether on shore or embarked in transports.

By the last general regulations, page 177, it is ordered, that at dinner time the officer upon duty in any of his Majesty's transports, on board of which troops are embarked, is personally to see that the men are regular at their messes; that their rum is mixed with at least three parts of water to one of spirit; and should he observe any circumstance of neglect in victualling the troops, he is to report the same to the officer commanding on board, who, if necessary, will make complaint thereupon, as also on any other matters touching the conduct of the masters of vessels, to the agent of transports. Minutes of all these circumstances should be taken by the commanding officer and kept by him, if not in company with the transport agent.

The greatest care is to be taken, that the coppers be well and regularly cleaned, both before and after use.

The cooks are to appear clean on parade once a day. In page 180 of the same official compilation, it is sensibly stated, that it will be necessary to guard the men when they get into a hot climate against costiveness; and, as upon the arrival of the transports in the West Indies, a great number of canoes will probably come off with fruit, plantains, &c. generally very green and very bad, the soldiers should not be allowed to buy such trash, and should only be supplied with fruit and vegetables under the orders of the officers, and by the recommendation of persons acquainted with the West Indies.

VICTUALLERS.—See Surteurs.

VIDAM, (Vidame, Fr.) The judge of a bishop's temporal jurisdiction. He formerly held lands under the bishop on condition, that he should always be ready to defend the temporal Rights of the church, and to place himself at the head of the ecclesiastical troops.

VIE, (écrir la) Fr. To ask quarter of an enemy, who has one's life in his power.

Donner la Vie, Fr. To give quarter.

VIE, Fr. is also used in a variety of significations, as donner, hazardez, exposer sa vie, to give, to hazard, expose one's life; ôter, arracher, ranter sa vie, to take away, to wrest, to snatch away life; entreprendre sur sa vie et quelqu'un, to have some design against a man's life; sous peine de la vie, under pain of death, or at the forfeit of one's life; soutenir au peril de sa vie, to sustain any thing at the risk of one's life.

VIEUX Corps, Fr. A term used among the French before the revolution, to distinguish certain old regiments. There were six of this description.
VIGILANCE, viz. Picardy, Piedmont, Navarre, Champagne, Normandy, and the marine corps. The three first were formed in 1569, and that of Champagne in 1575. They were then called Les vicelles bandes; the ancient or old bands; and before that period, each was known by the name of its colonel.

Les Petits Vieux Corps, Fr. La Tour du Pin, Bourbonnais, Auvergne, Besancon, Meilly, and the Regiment du Roi, or the King's own, were so called, during the French monarchy. All the other regiments ranked according to the several dates of their creation, and the officers took precedence in consequence of it.

Eau de VIE, Fr. Brandy. A spirituous liquor, which, in the early part of the French Revolution, was plentifully given to the soldiers as a succedaneum for courage. The lower classes are remarkably fond of it in all countries, and it is frequently resorted to in the higher orders for the purpose of driving away care, or of becoming valiant in critical moments.

VIEW of a place. The view of a place is said to be taken when the general, accompanied by an engineer, reconnoitres it, that is, rides round the place, observing its situation, with the nature of the country about it; as hills, valleys, rivers, marshes, woods, hedges, &c. thence to judge of the most convenient place for opening the trenches, and carrying on the approaches; to find out proper places for encamping the army, and for the park of artillery.

To VIEW. See To Reconnoitre.

VIF, Fr. This word is frequently used among the French to signify the core, or inside of any thing—viz:

Vif d'un arbre, Fr. The inside of a tree.

Vif d'une pierre, Fr. The inside of a stone.

Vif de l'eau, Fr. High water.

VIGIER, Fr. To keep watch; to convoy.

Vigier une flotte de vaisseaux marchands, Fr. To convoy a fleet of merchants.

VIGIES, Fr. A term given to certain rocks under water near the Azores. Vigie likewise signifies a watch, or sentinel on board a ship; but it is chiefly used among the Spaniards in South America.

VIGILANCE, (Vigilance, Fr.) Watchfulness; circumspection; incessant care. This quality is essentially necessary in a general; nor will it be found in his character, unless he has sedulously cherished it through all the intermediate stations of his profession.

Vigilance, or vigilancy, must not be confounded with precipitancy of conduct; for the latter does not comprehend either the care, or the reflection and regularity which must all be united in the former.

VIGILANT, (vigilant, Fr.) Watchful, attentive.

VIGILES. Guards on outposts, round a camp, &c. and sentinels were so called among the Romans. Their duty was, in some degree, similar to that which is practised in these days; with this difference, that the Vigiles, among the ancients, were not aroused, in order to prevent them from sleeping, either by leaning against their pikes, or by lying upon their shields. The man on sentry held a sort of dark lantern, which was so constructed, that the light reflected to himself and his three comrades only. The Roman sentinel challenged in the following manner:

State viri; quae causa vie? Quive estis in armis? Stop men; what are the causes of your journey, or on what business are you? or why are you in arms? He then demanded the tessera, or watchword, from the patrol.

VIGOROUS, (Vigorous, Fr.) Strong, brisk, active, resolute, as a vigorous attack.

VIGOTE, Fr. A model by which the calibers of pieces of ordnance are ascertained, in order to pick out appropriate bullets. This model consists of a thick piece of wood, in which there are holes of different sizes, according to the several calibers of cannon.

VILBREQUIN, Fr. A wamble.

VILLAIN, (Vilain, Fr.) Formerly a man of low and servile condition, who had a small portion of cottages and land allotted him, for which he was dependent on his Lord, and bound to certain work and corporal service. In the ancient days of France, it was customary to degrade officers and men of rank, by reducing them to the condition and servitude of a villain. In these times, villain generally signifies an arrant rogue, or pitiful, sordid fellow.

VILLE, Fr. See Town.

Ville moyenne, Fr. See Moyenne.

VILLE
VILLE ouverte, Fr. See Ouverture.
VILLES libres, Fr. Free towns. See HANS-TOWNS.
VIN, Fr. Wine. The genuine juice of the grape, which is so plentiful and so cheap in France, that a common soldier there has a larger quantity to his share, than a British soldier can get of small beer here.
VINCIBLE. Conquerable; in a state to be defeated.
VINDAS, Fr. See WINDLASS.
VINE.€. See VALLUM.
VINEGAR, (Vinaigre, Fr.) Vinegar is frequently used in the artillery to cool pieces of ordnance. Two pints of vinegar to four of water is the usual mixture for this purpose.
VINTAINE, Fr. A small rope which masons use to prevent stones from hitting against a wall when they draw them up.
VIOL, Fr. A rape, or the act of forcing a female, by main force, to give up her person. It sometimes happens, that through the obstinacy of the governor of a besieged place, the inhabitants are exposed to the dreadful calamity, of seeing themselves and their property given up to the plunder of an enraged soldiery. When this is the case, the conquering general does himself infinite honour, by strictly forbidding every soldier, under pain of death, to commit the least violence on the persons of the inhabitants, but most especially on those of defenceless women, or to set fire to their houses.
VIOLENCE. Force; attack; assault.
VIRAGO. A female warrior.
VIRER, Fr. To change, to turn round. This word is used figuratively by the French, viz. Tourner et virer, to beat about the bush; as, Tourner et virer quelqu'un, in an active sense, to pump another, or to draw out his secrets.
VIRETONS, Fr. Arrows.
VIREVAU, Fr. A draw-beam, a capstan.
VIRE-VOLTE, Fr. A quick turning about. It is a term of the manège.
VIROLE, Fr. A ferrule; a verrel.
VIS, Fr. Screw, vice, spindle-tree.
VISER, Fr. To aim at any thing.
VISER à un but, Fr. To aim at a mark.
VISIER, Fr. (Visir, Fr.) An officer of dignity in the Ottoman Empire; whereof there are two kinds, the first called by the Turks Vizir Azem, or Grand Vizir, first created in 1370 by Amurath the First, in order to ease himself of the chief and weightier affairs of the government. The Grand Vizir possesses great powers, especially with regard to military affairs. The orders he issues are so thoroughly discretionary, that when he quits Constantinople to join the army, he does not even communicate his intentions to the sultan. This system entirely differs from that which is followed by European generals. When the latter take the field, they proceed upon plans that have been previously digested; and although they may occasionally change their dispositions, yet they never deviate from the essential and governing principles.
The Grand Vizir, on the contrary, not only makes the arrangements according to his own judgment, but he even changes an operation that has been previously ordered by the sultan, if, on his arrival at the spot he should think it expedient to employ the troops in a different way. This absolute power is not, however, without its risk; for if the Grand Vizir should fail in his enterprise, it is more than probable that the sultan will cause him to be beheaded: a punishment which has long been familiar to the Turks, from the arbitrary manner in which it is practised, and the frequency of its occurrence.
When the Turks engage an enemy, the Grand Vizir generally remains with the reserve, and seldom mixes with the main body, which is soon converted into a mob of desperate combatants. The war which has been carried into Egypt, bids fair to change the whole system of Turkish tactics.
VISIERE, Fr. The sight which is fixed on the barrel of a musquet or firelock.
To VISIT, (Visiter, Fr.) To go to any place, as quarters, barracks, hospital, &c. for the purpose of noticing whether the orders or regulations which have been issued respecting it, are observed.
VISITE des Postes, Fr. The act of visiting posts, &c.
FAIRE LA VISITE, Fr. To visit, to inspect.
VISITEUR, Fr. The person who visits or goes the rounds.
VISITING OFFICER. He whose duty it
VIV is to visit the guards, barracks, messes, hospital, &c. See Orderly Officer.

VISOR, a that part of the helmet which covered the face.

VITAL, Essential; chiefly necessary.

VITAL AIR, or oxygen, the cause of the rapid ignition of gunpowder.

VITCHOURA, Fr. a furled coat.

VITESSÉ, Fr. dispatch; promptitude of action.

VITIS, a vine; a centurion's rod; such as was used among the old Romans to chastise soldiers that stepped out of the ranks, or were guilty of small irregularities. Mercenaries, and those men that were not Roman citizens, were flogged with switches on their naked shoulders.

VITONIERES, Fr. timber holes.

VIVANDIERS, Fr. victuallers, suttlers, &c.

VIVAT, Fr. a familiar exclamation, which is used not only by the French, but by the Dutch and Germans. It comes from the Latin, and signifies literally, May he live!

Vive le Roi! Fr. God save the king!

Vive la République! Fr. Long live the republic!

Qui vive? Fr. a military phrase which is used in challenging—Who comes there?

VIVRE, vivre, Fr. food, provisions, subsistence. In the Dictionnaire Militaire, vol. iii. page 523, is an interesting account of the manner in which troops were subsisted during the first years of the French monarchy.

Vivres et leur distribution chez les Turcs, Fr. the kind of provisions, &c. and the manner in which they are distributed among the Turks. The food or provisions for the Turkish soldiers form an immediate part of the military baggage.

The government supplies flour, bread, biscuit, rice, bulgur or peeled barley, butter, mutton and beef, and grain for the horses, which is almost wholly barley.

The bread is generally moist, not having been leavened, and is almost always ready to mould. On which account the Armenians, who are the bakers, bake every day, in ovens that have been constructed under ground for the use of the army. When there is not sufficient time to bake bread, biscuit is distributed among the men.

The ration of bread for each soldier consists of one hundred drams per day, or fifty drams of biscuit, sixty of beef or mutton, twenty-five of butter to bake the peeled barley in, and fifty of rice. The rice is given on Friday every week, on which day they likewise receive a ration of fifty drams of bulgur mixed with butter, as an extraordinary allowance, making a kind of water-gruel.

These provisions are distributed in two different quarters. The meat is given out at the government stall or butchery, where a certain number of Armenians, Greeks, and Jews regularly attend. Each company sends a head cook, who goes with a cart and receives the allowance from a sort of quarter-master-serjeant, who is in waiting with a regular return of what is wanted for each oda.

This person is stiled among the Turks Meidan Chiaous. He stands upon a spot of ground which is more elevated than the rest, and receives the allowance due to his district.

The distribution of bread, &c. is made within the precincts of the Tefterdar-Bascy, where the Vekil-karet attends as director or superintendent of stores and provisions, and by whose order they are delivered.

When the allowance is brought to the oda or company, the Vekil-Kharet, a sort of quarter-master, sees it regularly measured out, and if any portions be deficient, he takes note of the same, in order to have them replaced for the benefit of the company. The remainder is then given to the head cook, who divides it into two meals, one for eleven o'clock in the morning, and the other for seven in the evening.

These two meals consist of boiled or stewed meat, mixed with rice, and seasoned with pepper and salt; water-gruel being regularly made for each man on Friday.

There are six kitchen boys or quarter attached to each oda, by which they are paid a certain subsistence. On solemn occasions, and on festival days, the quarter are dressed in long gowns made of skins, with borders to them; they likewise wear a large knife, with an encrusted silver handle, which hangs at their side. They serve up the victuals

6 G 2 in
in two copper vessels, that are laid upon a table covered with a skin, round which seven or eight persons may be seated.

VIVRIERS, Fr. Purveyors and other persons employed by the commissary-general, or contractor for stores and provisions.

Mons. Dupré D'Aulnay, in a work entitled Traité des Substances Militaires, has suggested the establishment of a regular corps of Vivriers or persons whose sole duty should be to attend to the subsistence of an army, in the field as well as in garrison. His reasoning upon this subject is very acute, full of good sense, and seems calculated to produce that system of economy and wholesome distribution, that, to this day, are so manifestly wanted in all military arrangements.

VIZ, Ind. a small coin; it is also a weight equal to about three pounds; but differs much in value according to place.

VIZARUT, Ind. the office of vizier.

VIZIER, Ind. prime minister.

ULANS, Fr. This word is sometimes written Hulans, and more frequently Uhlans. A certain description of militia among the modern Tartars was so called. They formerly did duty in Poland and Lithuania, and served as light cavalry.

It is not exactly known at what epoch the Tartars first came into Poland and Lithuania. Dlugossus, in his history of Poland, book XI. page 243, relates, that there were troops or companies of Tartars attached to the army which was under the command of Alexander Witholde, Grand Duke of Lithuania. Heidenstein, in his account of Poland, Rcr. Polonic, page 152, makes mention of a corps of Tartars belonging to the army which Stephen Bathori, King of Poland, carried into the field when he fought the Russians. This corps, according to the same author, was headed by one Ulan, who said he was descended from the princes of Tartary.

Although the origin of the word Ulan, as far as it regards the modern militia so called, does not appear to be indisputably ascertained, it is nevertheless well proved, that besides the Tartar chief under Stephen Bathori, the person who, in the reign of Augustus II. formed the first pulk, or regiment of this description, was not only called Ulan himself, but likewise gave the name to the whole body under his command. This chief is mentioned in the records of the military institution of Poland in 1717. He was then colonel or commandant of the first pulk, or king's regiment, and there were three captains under him of the same name, viz.: Joseph Ulan, David Ulan, and Cimber Ulan. In 1744, one of these was captain of a company of Ulans in Bobesza and was afterwards colonel of a corps of the same description in Poland. He is likewise said to have been descended from the Tartar princes. It is, however, left undecided, whether Ulan be the name of a particular family, or a term given to distinguish some post of honour; or again, whether it barely signifies a certain class of turbelest haughty soldiers, such as the Sreles of Russia, or the Janissaries of Constantinople.

If there be any thing which can make us question the authenticity or probability of this account, it is the passage we find in the book already quoted —viz. Dlugossus, where he says, lib. XIII. page 408, that in 1467 an ambassador from Tartary had arrived at Petrikow to announce to king Casimir, that, after the death of Ecziiger, his son Nadorhad had ascended the throne of Tartary, with the unanimous consent and concurrence of all the princes and Ulans. Quitting the etymology of the word, and leaving the original name to the determination of wise and scientific men, we shall confine our present researches to the modern establishment of the Ulans; which, by the best accounts, we find to have happened in 1717.

It is acknowledged by all writers, that the Ulans are a militia, and not a particular nation or class of people; their origin, in this particular, resembles that of the Cossacks. When Augustus II. in 1717 altered the military establishments of Poland, he formed two regiments of Ulans; one consisting of six hundred men, which had already existed, and was called the king's pulk; and the other of four hundred men, which was given to the general of the republic.

Augustus
Augustus III. on his accession to the throne, took both these regiments into his own immediate pay, and afterwards augmented the establishment by raising several other pulks or corps of this description. The Ulans are mounted on Polish or Tartar horses, and do the same duty that is allotted to hussars; with this essential difference, that they are better armed and accoutred, and that their horses excel those of the hussars in strength and swiftness, although they are mostly of the same size. The Ulans have frequently distinguished themselves on service, particularly in Bohemia.

Their principal weapon is a lance five feet long, at the end of which hangs a silk streamer, that serves to frighten the horse of the Ulans’ opponent, by its fluttering and noise. The lance is suspended on his right side, by means of a belt that is worn across the Ulans’ shoulders, or by a small leather thong which goes round his right arm, the end of the lance resting in a sort of stay that is attached to the stirrup. Before the Ulans takes his aim, he plants his lance upon his foot, and throws it with so much dexterity, that he seldom misses his object.

The dress of the Ulans consists of a short jacket, trousers or breeches, made like those of the Turks, which reach to the ankle bone, and button above the hips. He wears a belt across his waist. The upper garment is a sort of Turkish robe with small facings, which reaches to the calf of the leg; his head is covered with a Polish cap. The colour of the streamer which is fixed to the end of the lance, as well as of that of the facings, varies according to the different pulks or regiments which it is meant to distinguish. The Ulans are likewise armed with a sabre, and a brace of pistols which hang from his waistbelt.

As the Ulans consider themselves in the light of free and independent gentlemen, every individual amongst them has one servant, if not two, called pochtowy or puchaleks, whose sole business is to attend to their baggage and horses. When the Ulans take the field, these servants or batmen form a second or detached line, and fight separately from their masters. They are armed with a carbine, which weapon is looked upon with contempt by their masters, and they clothe themselves in the best manner they can.

The Ulans generally engage the enemy in small platoons or squads, after the manner of the hussars; occasionally breaking in the most desultory manner. They rally with the greatest skill, and frequently affect to run away, for the purpose of inducing their opponents to pursue them loosely; a circumstance which seldom fails to be fatal to the latter, as the instant the pursuers have quitted their main body, the Ulans wheels to the right about, gets the start of him through the activity of his horse, and obtains that advantage, hand to hand, which the other possessed whilst he acted in close order.

The instant the Ulans charge an enemy, their servants or batmen form and stand in squadrons or platoons, in order to afford them, under circumstances of repulse, a temporary shelter behind, and to check the enemy. The batmen belonging to the Ulans are extremely clever in laying ambuses.

The pay of the Ulans in time of peace is very moderate. Poland, before its infamous dismemberment and partition by Russia, Prussia, and Austria, kept a regular establishment of four squadrons and ten companies on foot. These troops were annually supplied with a thousand rations of bread and forage, which quantity was paid them at the rate of 272 florins, Polish money, per ration. The Grand Duchy of Lithuania subsisted, in the same manner, fifteen other companies of Ulans. The other pulks were paid by the king. The annual pay of the captains was five rations, and that of the subalterns two; that is 1300 florins to the former, and 344 florins to the latter.

In 1743 Marshal Saxe, with the approbation and concurrence of the French court, raised a regiment of Ulans, which was attached to the military establishment of that country. This corps consisted of one thousand men, divided into six brigades, each brigade composed of one hundred and sixty men, eighty of whom were Ulans, and eighty dragoons. So that the regiment consisted of five hundred Ulans, properly so called, armed and accoutred like those in Poland, and the other five hundred were dragoons, without being considered as the servants or batmen of the
the Ulans; in which instance they differed from the pacholeks of the Polish Ulans. These dragonis were paid by the king; whereas in Poland each Ulan paid his own servant or batman, who looked to him only for clothing, arms, and subsistence. On the death of Marshal Saxe, the Ulans in France were reduced; and the dragonis only kept upon the establishment. They were considered as a regiment; being in the first instance given to Count de Frise, who was a major-general in the service, and became their colonel. They remained on that footing until the revolution.

The uniform of the French Ulans consisted of a green coat or cloak, with green breeches, Hungarian half-boots, pinchbeck helmet, with a turban twisted round it of Russian leather; the tail or mane of the helmet consisted of horse-hair, which was coloured according to the facings of the brigade; their arms were a lance nine feet long, with a floating streamer at the top, a sabre, and a pistol in the waist-belt.

The dragonis were clothed like other regular troops. Their coat was green, with cream-coloured facings and scarlet linings; plain brass buttons, an aiguillette or tagged point, made of red worsted; a fawn-coloured waistcoat, edged round with scarlet; leather breeches; half-boots that were laced up to the calf of the leg; pinchbeck helmet, with a seal-skin turban round it, and two rosettes made of pinchbeck; the top was adorned with horse-hair, which hung behind. Their arms consisted of a fusil with a bayonet, which was always fixed; two pistols and a sabre; the horse was covered with a wolf's skin. The Ulans rode horses which were somewhat lower than those of the dragonis, and were more active. The dress of the German Ulan is somewhat similar to that of the French.

At the commencement of the French revolution, particularly in 1792 and 1793, the Ulans belonging to the Imperial army that endeavoured to penetrate into France, were the terror of the inhabitants all along the frontiers. The excesses which they committed, and the desolation they occasioned, rendered their very name a signal of alarm. They seldom gave quarter, and they never received it.

ULTIMATUM, a term used in negotiations to signify the last condition or conditions upon which propositions, that have been mutually exchanged, can be finally ratified.

ULTRAMARINE, (d'outre mer, Fr.) From beyond the sea—foreign.

ULTRAMARINE, (outre mer, Fr.) A very delicate sky blue powder used in the drawing of plans, &c.

ULTRAMONTANE, derived from the Latin ultra, beyond, and mons, mountain. This term is principally used in relation to Italy and France, which are separated by the Alps. According to Bailey, ultramontanus is a name given by the Italians to all people who live beyond the Alps.

UMBO, the pointed boss or prominent part in the centre of a shield or buckler.

UMBRIERE, the visor of a helmet.

UMPIRE, (arbitre, Fr.) An arbitrator, or a power which interferes for the adjustment of a dispute or contest.

UNARMED, the state of being without armour or weapons.

To UNCASE, in a military sense, to display, to exhibit—As to uncase the colours. It is opposed to the word To Case, which signifies to put up—to enclose.

To UNCOVER. When troops deploy, the different leading companies or divisions, &c. successively uncover those in their rear, by marching out from the right or left of the column.

UNCONDITIONAL, at discretion; not limited by any terms or stipulations.

UNCONQUERED, not subdued or defeated; in opposition to conquered or defeated.

UNDAUNTED, not appalled by fear; valiant.

UNDECAGON, a regular polygon of 11 sides or angles.

UNDER. This preposition is variously used in military matters, viz.

Under Arms, (sous armes, Fr.) a battalion, troop, or company is said to be under arms when the men are drawn up regularly armed and accoutred, &c.

Under Command (sous ordre, Fr.) in subjection to; liable to be ordered to do any particular duty.

Under Cover, (d'couvert, à l'abri, Fr.) Shielded, protected, &c. See Cover.

Under-Officer, an inferior officer; one in a subordinate situation.
UNDERHAND, (sous main, Fr.)
Clandestinely; with fraudulent secrecy. A term not known in military phraseology; or if known that ought to be expunged.

To UNDERMINE, to dig cavities under any thing, so that it may fall, or be blown up; to excavate.

To UNDERMINE, in a figurative sense, to injure by clandestine means. The discipline of the army may be undermined by secret practices and cabals; and the most enterprising officer may be undermined by the insinuations of a cowardly parasite and reporter.

UNDERMINER, a sapper, one who digs a mine.

UNDISCIPLINED, not yet trained to regularity or order: not perfect in exercise or manoeuvres.

To UNFIX, in a military sense, to take off, as un fix bayonet, on which the soldier disengages the bayonet from his piece, and returns it to the scabbard. The word return, as we have already observed, is sometimes used instead of unfix. But it is improperly used, although more immediately corresponds with the French term remettre.

UNFORTIFIED, not strengthened or secured by any walls, bulwarks, or fortifications.

UNFURLED, a standard or colours, when expanded and displayed, is said to be unfurled.

UNGENTLEMANLIKE, (mal- honnête, grossier, Fr.) not like a gentleman or officer. Conduct unbecoming the character of either is so called. Officers convicted thereof are to be discharged from the service. See Articles of War. 25th Article of the 16th section.

UNHARNESSSED, disarmed; destitute of armour or weapons.

UNHORSED, thrown from the saddle; dismounted.

UNHOSTILE, not inimical, or belonging to an enemy.

UNIFORM, (uniforme, Fr.) this word, though in a military sense, it signifies the same as regimental, which is used both as a substantive and an adjective, may nevertheless be considered in a more extensive light.

Uniform is applied to the different sorts of clothing by which whole armies are distinguished from one another; whereas regimental means properly the dress of the component parts of some national force. Thus scarlet is the national uniform of the British army, as blue is of the modern French, white of the Austrian, green of the Russian, &c. But in each of these armies there are particular corps which are clothed in other colours, and whose clothing is made in a shape peculiar to themselves. Though, generally speaking, each has an uniform within itself, yet this uniform, strictly considered, is a regimental. Thus, the regiments of the guards cannot be called the regiments of the 29th, but scarlet is the uniform of both. In the same manner, though sky blue be the regimental colour of dragoon regiments which serve in India, and green be that of ride corps, yet neither the one nor the other can be called the uniform of the British army. It were to be wished, indeed, that, like the navy, all the land troops could be clothed alike, and in one colour. With respect to the origin of Military Uniforms, we may assert, with some degree of confidence, that however ancient the custom of being clothed in some distinguished manner is allowed to be, it is impossible to trace their first adoption beyond the eleventh century.

We should make useless enquires were we to direct our attention to those periods in which the Romans fought covered with metal armour, or with leather, which was so dressed and fitted to the body, that the human shape appeared in all its natural formation; nor to those in which the French, almost naked, or at least very lightly clad in thin leather, conquered the ancient Gauls.

Better information will be acquired by referring to the crusades which were made into Palestine and Constantinople by the Europeans. We shall there find, that the western nations, France, England, &c. first adopted the use of rich garments, which they wore over their armours, and adorned their dresses with furs from Tartary and Russia.

We may then fix the origin of coloured dresses to distinguish military corps, &c. in the eleventh century. The Saracens generally wore tunics or close garments over their armour. These garments were made of plain or striped stuff,
stuffs, and were adopted by the Crusaders under the denomination of coats of arms, Cottes d'armes. We refer our readers for further particulars to the author of a French work, intituled, Traité des marques nationales, and to page 539, tom. iii. du Dictionnaire Militaire; observing, that the uniforms of the French army were not completely settled until the reign of Louis XIV, and that the whole has undergone considerable alterations since the present revolution. The uniform of the British army is too well known to require any particular detail from us. We must, however, observe, that from the great attention which his Royal Highness the Commander in Chief pays to every species of military system and organization, we make no doubt, but the great principles of economy and uniformity in dress, will form no inconsiderable part of the reform and good order which he is gradually effecting.

Uniforme des charretiers des vivres, Fr. uniform of the old French wagon corps. It consisted of white sack-cloth edged round with blue worsted, with brass buttons, two in front and three upon each sleeve. They wore a dragoon watering cap, with W. upon the front fold, and a tuft at the end. The W and the tuft were made of white worsted.

Uniformity, conformity to one pattern; resemblance of one thing to another. In order to preserve this essential requisite, in the exercise and manoeuvres of the British forces, it is expressly ordered by his Majesty, that the general officers appointed to review his troops shall pay particular attention to the performance of every part of the regulations issued for the formations, field exercise, &c. and report their observations thereupon for his Majesty's information; so that the exact uniformity required in all movements may be attained and preserved, and his royal intentions thereby carried into full effect.

Uniformity in dress, to be observed by officers belonging to the infantry of the line.

By orders issued from the adjutant-general's office, 24th May, 1796, all officers, without distinction, belonging to the infantry of the line, are directed to have certain articles of their dress made conformable to patterns deposited in the office of the comptroller of army accounts in Scotland-yard, for the inspection of such tradesmen as usually furnish those articles.

The hat encircled with a crimson and gold cord; rosettes or tufts of the same brought to the edge of the brims.

The sword blade to be 32 inches long; straight and made to cut and thrust; the shoulder of it at least one inch broad; the guard, pommel, and shell to be brass and gilt; the gripe of silver twisted wire; the knot crimson and gold in stripes.

The gorget to be gilt, with the king's cypher and crown over it engraved in the center; to be worn with a ribband, and rosette or tuft at each end, of the same colour as the facing of the regiment.

Since this regulation appeared, officers in the British army, and in the militia and volunteer establishments, are directed to wear their sashes on the outside of their regiments.

UNION. The king's or national colours are called the union.

UNIVERSITY, in a general acceptation of the word, any nursery where youth is instructed in languages, arts, and sciences. It likewise means the whole in general, generality. But in a more partial sense it signifies one of the two national institutions which have been established for the encouragement of literature at Oxford and Cambridge. Among other privileges which belong to these royal foundations, the vice-chancellors have a right to know the authority by which any armed force enters either city; and every commanding officer, the instant he has marched in, should report to the vice-chancellor the nature of his route, &c. In this respect the vice-chancellors of both universities are to be looked upon as governors of their respective cities.

To UNSPRING, a word of command formerly used in the exercise of cavalry.

Unspring your carbine. Quit the reins of your bridle, and take hold of the swivel with the left hand, placing the thumb on the spring, and opening it; at the same time take it out of the ring.

UNTENABLE, not to be held in possession; incapable of being defended.

UNTRAINED, not disciplined to exercise or manoeuvre.

UNVANQUISHED, not conquered or defeated.

UNWALLED,
UNWALLED. Being without walls of defence.
UNWARLIKE. Not fit for or used to war.
UNWEAPONED. Not provided with arms of offence.

VOGUE, Fr. The course or way which a galleys or ship makes when it is rowed forward.

VOGUEUR, Fr. To make way upon water either by means of sailing or by oars. It also signifies generally to row.

VOILE, Fr. Way, means, course of communication.

VOILE, Fr. A sail. This word is frequently used by the French to signify the ship itself.

VOILE guarnée à côté trait guarni, Fr. A square sail, such as the main-sail.

VOILE Latine, Voile à tiers-point ou à oreille de Lièvre, Fr. A triangular-shaped sail, such as is used in the Mediterranean.

Jet de Voiles, Fr. The complete complement of sails for a ship.

Faire Voile, Fr. To go to sea.

VOITURES, Fr. Carriages, wagons, &c.

VOL, Fr. Theft. The military regulations on this head during the existence of the French monarchy, were extremely rigid and severe.

Whosoever was convicted of having stolen any of the public stores, was sentenced to be hung or strangled; and if any soldier was discovered to have robbed his comrade, either of his necessaries, bread, or subsistence money, he was condemned to death, or to the gallowes for life. So nice, indeed, were the French with respect to the honesty of the soldiery in general, that the slightest deviation from it rendered an individual incapable of ever serving again.

VOLÉE, Fr. The vacant cylinder of a cannon, which may be considered to reach from the trunnions to the mouth.

Volte et culasse d'une pièce, Fr. This term signifies the same as tête et queue d'une pièce. The mouth, or head, and the breech of a piece of ordnance. Voler, Fr. Also signifies a cannon-shot, as Tirer une Volée, to fire a cannon-shot.

VOLÉ, Fr. See SONNETE.

VOLET, Fr. A shutter. It likewise means a small sea-compass.

VOLLEY. The discharging of a great number of fire-arms at the same time.

VOLONES. In a general acceptation of the term, Volones signified volunteers among the ancient Romans. This word was also particularly applied to those slaves who volunteered their services after the battle of Cannae, and on which account they became Roman Citizens.

VOLONTAIRES, Fr. See VOLUNTEERS.

VOLONTÉ, Fr. Will, &c. It likewise signifies readiness to do any thing. Officier, soldat de bonne Volonté. An officer, a soldier that is ready to do any sort of duty.

Dernieres Volontés, Fr. The last will and testament of a man.

VOLT, (Volte, Fr.) In horsemanship a bounding turn. It is derived from the Italian word Volta; and according to the Farrier's Dictionary is a round or a circular tread; a gait of two treads made by a horse going sideways round a center; so that these two treads make parallel tracks; the one which is made by the fore feet larger, and the other by the hinder feet smaller; the shoulders bearing outwards, and the croupe approaching towards the center.

Mettre un cheval sur les Voltes, Fr. To make a horse turn round, or perform the volts. They likewise say in the manege, Demi-volte, half-turn or volt.

VOLTE, Fr. In fencing, a sudden movement or leap, which is made to avoid the thrust of an antagonist.

Volte-facé, Fr. Right about.

Faire Volte-facé, Fr. To come to the right about. It is chiefly applicable to a cavalry movement; and sometimes generally used to express any species of facing about, viz. Les ennemis furent jusqu'à un certain endroit, ou ils furent Volte-facé; the enemy fled to a certain spot, where they faced about.

Volte, is also used as a sea phrase among the French to express the track which a vessel sails; likewise the different movements and steps that a ship makes in preparing for action.

VOLTER, Fr. In fencing, to volt; to change ground in order to avoid the thrust of an antagonist.

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VOLTIGER, Fr. To float; to stream out; to hover about; La cavalerie voltige autour du camp; the cavalry hovers about the camp. It also means, in the manège, to ride a wooden horse for the purpose of acquiring a good seat.

VOLUNTEER. In a general acceptation of the word, any one who enters into the service of his own accord. The signification of it is more or less extensive, according to the conditions on which a man voluntarily engages to bear arms.

Volunteers, are also bodies of men who assemble in time of war to defend their respective districts, and this generally without pay.

To Volunteer. To engage in any affair of one's own accord. Officers and soldiers often volunteer their services on the most desperate occasions; sometimes specifically, and sometimes generally. Hence to volunteer for any particular enterprise, or to volunteer for general service. In some instances soldiers volunteer for a limited period, and within certain boundaries. Of this description were the drafts from the militia in 1798, who volunteered to serve in Europe only. It is not our business to enter into the impolicy of this measure; the inconveniences which have already arisen from it, and the enormous addition to the half-pay list, sufficiently condemn it. We are certainly advocates for a limited period of enlistment, but decidedly repugnant to limited service. A real soldier knows no boundary to his exertions, when the interest of his country requires an extension of them.

The volunteers that approach nearer to the regular establishment of a militia corps than any others, are the St. George's, Hanover-square.

The adjutant has a certain allowance, and the sergeants and corporals receive subsistence throughout the year: the privates when they go out for exercise, or when they mount guard. The several weekly rates, exclusive of the adjutant, are as follow, according to the different ranks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>a</th>
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<tr>
<td>Drum-major</td>
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<tr>
<td>Drummers, each</td>
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<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Drill-serjeant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Serjeant</td>
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<tr>
<td>Corporal</td>
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<td>2</td>
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Private for a whole day 0 3 0
Ditto for half-a day 0 2 0
Mounting guard 0 2 6

There are three armourers, who receive each, per week 0 18 0

When the sergeants and corporals attend for a whole day, they receive one shilling each; but they do not get any thing when they go out for half-a day only.

With respect to the volunteer system, of which so much has been written, and concerning which so many contradictory opinions have been hazarded by individuals, both in and out of parliament; we cannot conceive how, at this critical juncture, any difference should exist on the ground of national utility. That there are defects in its organization no man will pretend to deny; but that the root of its establishment, and its smallest branches, may be converted into a state-engine of defence, the most prejudiced of its opposers, and we are sorry to add of its technical scoffer and revilers, must acknowledge. When the enemy was on the frontiers of France, and a victorious, (because an imposing army from established lines,) was ready to storm the gates of her capital, no member of the French convention, no regular old officer, or upstart hero of the line, attempted to weaken the energies of the country, by throwing a damp upon the public spirit of the nation. All were invited to join the threatened standard of their mother country; all were respected alike, and when uncommon genius was elicited by uncommon circumstances and events, extraordinary stations were allotted to it. Though La Fayette had distinguished himself, as a regular officer, against the bravest troops that ever crossed the Atlantic, he had too much good sense, and (though not the best politician in the world) too much discernment not to see, that the aggregate of a nation is never to be despised. Every part has its little orbit; and if it be permitted to move so as not to jar or come in contact with larger bodies, it will always contribute to that general harmony, which constitutes good order. It is a solecism in state, and a most fatal error in military government, to cause any man to
feel little within himself, whose assistance in person or mind, may be useful to community; but it is more than a solecism, and worse than an error, to depreciate a whole body of men. With regard to individuals, it will certainly not be denied, that in the dispensations of Providence, and in the immense variety of the gifts of nature, many may be found, who, without having been born in the womb of grandeur, or brought up in the lap of opulence, are equal to the first employments of a state. History can furnish us with innumerable instances of this sort; and the annals of our own times sufficiently prove the justness of this observation. How, therefore, any man of this Island, whose great boast is equality of right, and whose pride is the aristocracy of talents!—could descend to invindios comparisons, or degrading animadversions before the grave senate of such a nation; or how any officer, of common sense, could be prejudiced against an active and meritorious individual, because he had not been in the line, is a circumstance in our opinion, which deserves the severest censure. This gentleman did not probably recollect, that some of the best generals in Europe, and, indeed, some of the bravest warriors on record, have issued out of the aggregate of a nation, and, not unfrequently, out of bodies of volunteers.

To be perfectly in point, we refer him to the history of General Championet. This man was originally a common scullion, and afterwards cook at the Pères de la Charité, a religious order whose time was devoted to the care of the sick at the hospital in the isle of Rhée. Yet he became an officer of experience, was commander in chief of the army of Naples, and gained a complete victory over the celebrated General Mack.

VOUCHER, (Pièce justificative; preuve; recette, Fr.) A written document or proof upon which any account or charge is established.

Regimental-Vouchers. Particular documents which are signed by regimental colonels, paymasters, adjutants, quarter-masters, &c. for pay and allowances, &c.

VOUGE, Fr. A sort of hedging bill. It likewise signifies an axe, which the ancient bowmen of France had fixed to their halberts. It is also called a hunter's staff.

VOULGUE, Fr. A sort of javelin which was formerly used in hunting the wild-boar. See Guisarmiers.

VOUSSOIR or Voussure, Fr. The bending of a vault.

VOUTE, Fr. A vault; an arch.

Voute à dos d’âne, Fr. A sharp raised vault.

Voute en anse de panier, Fr. A flat arched vault.

VOUTER, Fr. To arch over. The French also use this word figuratively as: Se voutier, to stoop with age.

VOYAGE sur Mer, Fr. A sea voyage. The French call a voyage to the East Indies, Un voyage de long cours. UP. An adverb frequently used in military phraseology, viz.

To cut up, the same as cut down, in a military sense. See Cut.

To draw up. To put in regular array, as to draw up a regiment.

UP. In a state of insurrection, ready to oppose. This term is also figuratively used.—As, my soul is up in arms.

Up-to. Adequately to. Hence, up to the circumstances of the times. The French say, à la hauteur des circonstances. Up to every thing. A trite, and indeed a vulgar phrase, which implies, that a person is adequate to and ready for every project or undertaking. It is generally used in a bad sense. The French say, particularly with respect to play, &c. Il a fait les quatre coups.

To come up with. (Atteindre, Fr.) A term used, in the British service, when an army or detachment is in pursuit of an enemy, and gets near enough to harass and attack him.

Up! Exhorting, exciting, or rousing to action.

Thus, Dryden says:

Up! up, for honour's sake; twelve legions wait you,
And long to call you chief.

Heads-up. (La tête haute, Fr.) A term used at the drill, by which recruits and soldiers are cautioned to take an erect and soldier-like posture, without constraint.

Up. (Debout, Fr.) Rise, a word of command in the French service.

6 1 2

when
when troops are in the presence of the consecrated host.

URBANICI. From Urbanicus, belonging to a city. A body of armed men, amounting to six thousand effectives, which was formed by the Emperor Augustus for the defence and internal tranquillity of Rome: This body was divided into four cohorts, which were quartered in a particular part of the city called Castra Urbana.

VRIOTE, Fr. A wimple.

VRIOLE, Fr. Among fireworkers, to rise in a spiral manner, as sky-rockets do.

USARH, Ind. The name of a month; which partly corresponds with June; it follows Jeth.

To USE. To employ to any particular purpose; to bring into action; as he used his choicest troops on that decisive day.

USTENSILES, Fr. The necessary articles which a soldier who is quartered or billeted at an inn, &c. has a right to be supplied with.

USTENSILES de Magazines, Fr. Under this word are comprehended all the various tools, implements, &c. which are required in military magazines and store-houses.

USTENSILES d’un Vaisseau, Fr. Everything which is necessary in the navigation of a ship.

USTENSILES de Canon, Fr. Everything which is required to load and unload a piece of ordnance, viz. the rammer, sponge, priming horn, wedges, &c.

To USURP. (Usurper, Fr.) To seize upon by violence, or stratagem.

Usurper, (Usurpateur,) Fr. Any person is so called, who by force or stratagem gets possession of a power or authority to which he is not legally entitled.

USURY, (Usure, Fr.) Excessive interest for money lent. From the Latin Usura. No class of individuals, perhaps, (if we except that of gamblers) are so often driven to the necessity of applying to this ruinous source of accommodation, as military men; especially those of the profession, who have been placed upon the half-pay list of Great Britain and Ireland. The danger, which attends every species of usurious contract, is rendered less, and the practice consequently more frequent, in proportion to the nice sense of honour that is attached to a military character. It is not, however, less criminal, particularly with regard to the half-pay; and we should be deficient in our duty to the army at large—for whom alone we write—did we omit to warn them against the insidious aid of discount, and of temporary loans. Nor do we scruple to say, (however sacred the word of an officer must at all times be held) that a deviation from it, under circumstances of palpable extortion, is not dishonourable. Perhaps it might not be wholly useless were the legislature so far to interfere, as to express in the mutiny bill, not only the nullity of all pecuniary engagements, beyond the bona fide interest of the law, between officers and money-lenders; but also to make it criminal in the latter to injure the king’s service by inveigling the former into promissory notes, &c. With regard to usury in general, it is defined to be an unlawful profit which a person makes of his money; in which sense usury is forbidden by the civil and ecclesiastical, and even by the law of nature. For the information of those gentlemen who are in the habits of accommodating officers, it may not be irrelevant to state, that by Stat. 12 Ann. c. 16, which is called the statute against Excessive Usury, it is ordained, that no person shall take for the loan of any money, or other thing, above the value of five pounds for the forbearance of one hundred pounds for a year; and so in proportion for a greater or lesser sum: and it is declared, that all bonds, contracts, and assurances, made for payment of any principal sum to be lent on usury, above that rate, shall be void; and that whosoever shall take, accept or receive, by way of corrupt bargain, loan, &c. a greater interest than 5 per cent. shall forfeit treble the value of the money lent, provided the information is laid within the space of one year, for the borrower or informer, and of two years for the king; and also that scriveners, solicitors, and drivers of bargains, shall not take or receive above five shillings for the procuring of the loan of one hundred pounds for one year, on pain of forfeiting twenty pounds.

In an action brought for usury, the statute made against it must be pleaded;
ed; and in pleading an usurious contract, as a bar to an action, the whole matter is to be set forth specially, because it lies within the party's own pri-
vacy; yet on an information on the statute for making such contract, it is sufficient to mention the corrupt bargain generally; because matters of this kind are supposed to be privily trans-
acted; and such information may be brought by a stranger. 1 Hawk. P. C. 428.
See Ord on Usury, also Bentham.

It will likewise be remembered, that upon an information on the statute against Usury, he that borrows the money may be a witness, after he has paid the same.

UTENSILS. In a military sense, are necessaries due to every soldier, and to be furnished by his host, where he is in quarters, viz. bed with sheets, a pot, a glass or cup to drink out of, a dish, a place at the fire, and a candle. See Billeting.

UTENSILS, &c. directed to be provided for the use of regimental hospitals.

In page 19, of the Regulations for the Sick, it is stated, that each hospital ought to be furnished with a slipper bath, or bathing tub, two water-buckets, one dozen of Osnaburgh towels, one dozen of flannel cloths, half a dozen of large sponges, combs, razors, and soap; two large kettles, capable of making soup for 30 men, two large tea-kettles, two large tea-pots, two sauce-
pans, 40 tin cans of one pint each, 40 spoons, one dozen of knives and forks, two close-stools, two bed-pans, and two urinals.

A regiment, consisting of 1000 men, and provided with three medical persons, ought to be furnished with hospital necessaries and utensils for at least 40 patients. It should be provided with 40 cotton night-caps, 40 sets of bedding, in the proportion of four for every hundred men; each set consisting of one paillasse, one straw mattress, one bolster, three sheets, two blankets, and one rug.

For regiments of smaller number, the quantity of hospital necessaries will of course be proportionally reduced.

Bakery UTENSILS. The following list of bakery utensils, being the proportion requisite for an army of 26,000 men, has been extracted from the Bri-

tish Commissary, to which useful treat-
ise we refer the military reader for a specific description of field ovens, &c.

12 double iron ovens, 11 feet long, 9 feet diameter, and 3 feet high; 28 troughs and their covers, 16 feet long, 3 feet wide, and 3 feet deep, to knead the dough.

12 large canvas tents (having double coverings) 32 feet long, and 24 feet wide, to make the bread in.

4 ditto, to cool and deposit the bread in.

2 ditto, to deposit the meal and empty sacks in.

200 boards, 8 feet long, and 1½ feet wide, to carry the bread to the oven and back when baked; 24 small scales to weigh the dough, with weights from half an ounce to 6 lb; 24 small lamps for night work; 24 small hatchets; 24 scrapers, to scrape the dough from the troughs; 12 copper kettles, containing each from 10 to 12 pails of water; 12 trevets for ditto; 12 barrels with handles, to carry water, containing each from 6 to 7 pails.

12 pails, to draw water; 24 yokes and hooks, to carry the barrels by hand; 24 iron peles, to shore and draw the bread from the ovens; 24 iron pitchforks, to turn and move the firewood and coals in the ovens; 24 spare handles, 14 feet long, for the peles and pitchforks; 24 rakes, with handles of the same length, to clear away the coals and cinders from the ovens; 4 large scales, to weigh the sacks and barrels of meal, and capable of weighing 500 lb.; 4 triangles for the said scales; to each must be added 500 lb. of weights, 3 of 100 lb. each, 2 of 50 lb. each, and downwards to half a pound.

UTER. A bladder to swim with. This machine is mentioned in Cæsar's Commentaries, and was frequently used by the Romans in crossing rivers, &c.

VUE, Fr. Sight; view; prospect; look, &c. The French say, Les ar-

mîes sont en vue. The armies are in sight of one another. Camper en vue de l'ennemi. To encamp in sight of the enemy. Marcher à vue de pays. To march by guess, or without any partic-

ular direction to move by.

A vue, d'œil, Fr. Visibly.

Vue de toute longueur et de toute hauteur,
WAD, (Bourre, Fr.) in gunnery, a substance made of hay or straw, and sometimes of tow rolled up tight in a ball. It serves to be put into a gun after the powder, and rammed home, to prevent the powder from being scattered, which would have no effect if left unconfined.

WAD-hook, a strong iron screw, like those that serve for drawing corks, mounted upon a wooden handle, to draw out the wads, or any part of cartridges, which often remain in guns, and when accumulated stop up the vent.

WAD-mill, a hollow form of wood to make the wads of a proper size.

WADA or WADADARY, Ind. a farm of a district.

WADABUNDY, Ind. stated periods or dates, on which money is to be paid.

WADADAR, Ind. a government officer, who is responsible for the rents of a zamindary.

WADDING, hay or straw, or any other forage, generally carried along with the guns to be made into wads.

Experiments relative to the effects of WADDING. The quantity of powder requisite to raise a shell weighing 218 lb. clear of the mortar and bed was found to be 4 oz. 2 dr. without any wadding; but with the help of a little wadding, rammed over the powder, 3 oz. 1 dr. were sufficient. The powder requisite to raise a shell weighing 100 lb. clear of the mortar and bed, was found to be 2 oz. 6 dr. without any wadding; but with wadding, properly rammed over the powder, 2 oz. were found to be sufficient.

To raise a shell of 16 lb. 4 dr. were sufficient without wadding, and only 3 dr. with wadding.

And to raise a shell of 3 lb. 2 dr. were enough without wadding, and 1 dr. two-thirds with wadding.

From the above experiments it may be observed, that the judicious ramming of a little wadding over the powder, adds about ½ part of the whole effect.

WAGON, in the army, (Chariot, Fr.) is a four-wheel carriage, drawn by four horses, and for sundry uses.

Ammonition-WAGON, (Chariot d'artillerie, Fr.) a carriage made for transporting all kinds of stores, as also to carry bread, it being lined round in the inside with basket-work.

WAGON-Train, the wagons, carts, &c. that are provided for the use of an army are so called. In page 25, of the British Commissary we find the following observations concerning this necessary establishment. "The great engine in the hands of the commissariat, on which the movements of an army depend, is a proper establishment of wagons. In all wars where a British army has taken the field, great abuses have unfortunately prevailed in this department, and it even now remains a problem, whether government ought to purchase wagons and horses, and form temporary establishments, or whether the army should be provided with a train by contractors?"

In the seven years war, there was a general contractor for the wagon train, and
and his contract was kept up until the very year before the peace, when government bought the train of him. In the American war, wagons were considered almost as a privilege by the departments to which they were attached, until the arrival of the gentleman (we presume Brook Watson) last sent there as commissioner general, who found it necessary to make great reforms in that branch of the service. The same gentleman, when he went out to the continent with the late army, (viz. in 1793) made use of the wagons of different contractors: but in the beginning of 1794, an experiment was made by raising a corps called the corps of royal wagoners, and purchasing wagons and horses. Of this corps little need be said, as its miserable state became proverbial in the army: it failed completely in every part; and on many occasions, the service suffered very materially in consequence.

The idea of this corps was probably taken from the fine well-regulated establishment of Austrian wagons. This is a standing establishment kept up in peace and war, having officers and men trained to the service, and a system improved and perfected through a succession of years. The ingenious author very properly remarks, that such an establishment is necessary to Austria on account of its large military force, which is constantly kept up; but that it is utterly impossible for Great Britain to procure a similar one upon the spur of the moment. He further remarks, with great justice, that the excellent roads of England, also render it difficult to find English drivers capable of acting in foreign countries in the same capacity; the carriages in those countries being constructed purposely for the roads, and both different from any thing seen here.

Bad, therefore, as were the contract wagons in the campaign of 1794, they certainly did far better service than the royal corps of wagoners.

Accordingly the royal train was sold, and every purchaser of not less than 50 wagons was admitted to the advantages of a contract for all the wagons he purchased; he was insured the duration of his contract for three months, and was only to deposit one-third of the cost, allowing the remainder to be paid out of his earnings. The form of the contract and the pay of the wagons were previously fixed, and by this mode a most advantageous sale was procured, while a new set of contractors were introduced, with the additional advantage of obliging old contractors to reduce their prices, and to come under the same terms.

The space of ground occupied by a wagon with four horses, is about 10 paces; a mile will, therefore, hold 117 wagons; but allowing a short distance between each wagon in travelling, a mile may be said to contain about 100 wagons. Wagons, in convoy, may travel from one to two miles per hour, according to the roads and other circumstances. A great object in convoys is to preserve the horses as much as possible from fatigue. For this purpose, if the convoy amounts to many hundred wagons, they must be divided into divisions of not more than 500 each. Should it consist of thousands, it will be advisable to divide them into grand divisions, and then again into subdivisions of 500 each: by this means, and the time of departure being calculated by the following rules, each division may remain at rest, till just before its time of movement; and which will prevent the necessity of the latter part of a large convoy being harrassed for a considerable time before its turn to move.

Rule 1. To find the time in which any number of wagons may be driven off: Divide the number of wagons by 100, and multiply by the time of travelling one mile.

Rule 2. To find the time in which any number of wagons will drive over any number of miles: To the time they take in driving off, add the time any one of the wagons takes to travel the distance.

The different divisions of the convoy should be numbered, and obliged each day to change the order of their marching.

**WAGONER, (Charretier, Fr.) one who drives a wagon.**

**Corps of Wagoners, or Royal Wagon Corps, (Corps de Charretiers, Fr.) a body of men originally employed in the commissariat. It now forms a part of the regular army.**

**WAINEBOPE, the large cord with which the load is tied on the wagon.**

**WAIT,**
WAIT, to lie in wait; to lay wait. See AMBUSH.

In WAITING. This term is used, in the British service, to mark out the person whose turn is next for duty; as officer in waiting.

Field Officer in Waiting, a monthly duty taken by the field officers of the three regiments of Foot Guards, who attend his majesty on Court days, to present the detail of this corps, and receive the parole or other orders from him personally, which are afterwards given to the guards in orders. The field officer in waiting commands all the troops on duty, and has the immediate care of his Majesty's person without doors, as the gold stick has of it while in Court. The latter also receives the parole from the King.

WAKANAGUR, Ind. a writer of occurrences.

To WALK, (see promener, Fr.) generally speaking, to move with the ordinary pace of man; it is likewise said with respect to horses. When the term is applied to the latter, it is commonly used in an active sense; as to walk a horse, promener un cheval, Fr.

WALK about! a military term used by British officers when they approach a sentry, and think proper to wave the ceremony of being rested to.

WALL, a series of brick, stone, or other materials, carried upwards, and cemented with mortar. When used in the plural number, wall signifies fortification; works built for defence.

Chinese WALL, or the great wall in China, a wall of immense extent, which the Chinese built to secure their country from the incursions of their neighbours, but which was not found sufficiently strong to keep out the Tartars. This wall, which has lasted one thousand nine hundred and thirty odd years, is still in good condition: it comprehends, in circumference, five hundred leagues; runs over mountains, down into vallies and steep descents, and is, almost in every part, more than 20 feet in breadth, and 50 in height.

To be driven to the WALL, (Etre acculé, Fr.) a figurative term, signifying to be so pressed, that you can neither advance nor retreat.

Walls of a Tent or Marquee, that part of the canvas which is attached to the fly or top by means of hooks and eyes, and which is fixed to the earth with wooden pegs. These walls should be frequently lowered in order to admit fresh air. When there is an hospital tent, this precaution is indispensible, if the weather will permit.

WALLET. See HAVERSACK, KNAPSACK.

WAPENTAKE, (from the Sax.) the same as what we call a hundred, and more especially used in the northern counties beyond the Trent. There have been several conjectures as to the original of the word; one of which is, that anciently musters were made of the armour and weapons of the inhabitants of every hundred; and from those that could not find sufficient pledges of their good abating their weapons were taken away; whereas it is said wapentake is derived. Spenser says it was so named, of touching the weapon or spear of their alderman, and swearing to follow him faithfully, and serve their prince truly.

WAR, a contest or difference between princes, states, or large bodies of people, which, not being determinable by the ordinary measures of justice and equity, is referred to the decision of the sword, &c.

It is that important event, for which all military education is designed to prepare the soldier. It is for this that in peace, he receives the indulgence of a subsistence from society; and for this he is gratefully bound to secure the possession of that society from the outrage of an enemy, and to guard its possessions from the devastations of invaders.

Although it would be as needless as it is impossible to shew, how often the art of the soldier has accomplished the design of its institution, we shall, however, distinguish those wars which are remarkable for having obtained the blessings of peace to this kingdom since the

War with Scotland, 1068.
Peace with § ditto, 1113.
War with France, 1116.
Peace with § ditto, 1118.
War with Scotland, 1199.
War with France, 1161.
Peace with ditto, 1186.
War with France, with success, 1194.

Peace with ditto, 1195.

Civil war, renewed, 1215.

ended, 1216.

with France, 1224.

ended, 1243.

1262.

ended, 1267.

with France, 1294.

with Scotland, 1296.

Peace with France, 1299.

with Scotland, 1323.

again with Scotland, 1327.

ended, 1328.

War again with Scotland, 1333.

with France, 1339.

Peace with France, May 8, 1360.

with France, 1368.

War civil, 1400.

with Scotland, 1400.

Peace with France, May 31, 1420.

with France, 1422.

War civil between York and Lancaster, 1452.

Peace with France, Oct. 1741.

War civil, 1486.

Peace with ditto, Nov. 3, 1492.

with Scotland, 1502.

War with France, Feb. 4, 1512.

with Scotland, 1513.

Peace with France, Aug. 7, 1514.

War with ditto, 1522.

Scotland, 1522.

Peace with France, 1527.

Scotland, 1542.

War with Scotland, directly after.

Peace with France and Scotland, June 7, 1546.

War with Scotland, 1547.

Peace with France, 1549.

Peace with both, March 6, 1550.

Civil, 1553.

War with France, June 7, 1557.

with Scotland, 1557.

Peace with France, April 2, 1559.

Scotland, 1560.

War with France, 1569.

Peace 1564.

War with Scotland, 1570.

Spain, 1588.

Peace with ditto, Aug. 18, 1604.

War with Spain, 1624.

France, 1627.

Peace with Spain and France, April 14, 1699.

War with Spain, 1612.

with the Dutch, 1651.

Peace with ditto, April 5, 1654.

War with Spain, 1655.

Peace with Spain, Sept. 10, 1660.

War with France, Jan. 28, 1666.

Denmark, Oct. 19, 1666.

Peace with the French, Danes, and Dutch, Aug. 24, 1667.

Peace with Spain, Feb. 13, 1668.

War with the Algerines, Sept. 6, 1669.

Peace with ditto, Nov. 19, 1671.

War with the Dutch, March, 1672.

Peace with ditto, Feb. 28, 1674.

War with France, May 7, 1689.

Peace general, Sept. 20, 1697.

War with France, May 4, 1702.

Peace of Utrecht, March 13, 1713.

War with Spain, Dec. 1718.

Peace with ditto, 1721.

War with Spain, 1739.

France, March 31, 1744.

France, 1756.

Spain, Jan. 4, 1762.

Peace with France and Spain, Feb. 10, 1763.

War with the Caribbs of St. Vincent in 1773.

War civil in America, commenced July 14, 1774.

with France, Feb. 6, 1778.

War with Spain, April 1780.

with Holland, 1780.

Peace with France, Spain, July 3, 1803.

Holland, 1803.

America, 1803.

War with France by the English, Prussians, Austrians, and other German powers, in 1793.

Peace between Prussia and the French Republic, 1795.

Peace between Spain and the French Republic, 1795.

Peace between the French and the Sardinians in 1796.

Peace between the French and the Austrians in 1797.

War between the British and Tippoo Saib in India, in 1797.

War with the French Republic by the Austrians, Russians, Neapolitans, &c. 1798.

War with the Turks, and the invasion of Egypt, in 1798.

Peace between the French and the Russians in 1799.
Peace between the French and Austrians in 1800.
Preliminaries of peace commenced between the French and the Ottoman empire, in consequence of the reduction of Egypt by the British forces in 1801.
Preliminaries of peace between France and Great Britain, &c. 1801.
War between the British forces in India and Holkar, 1802.
Peace with the same, 1805.
War between France and Great Britain, 1809.
War between Great Britain and Spain.
War between Great Britain and the Batavian Republic.
War between Great Britain, Russia, Sweden and Austria, united against France, or more properly against Bonaparte, surnamed the Emperor Napoleon, 1805.

There are five different kinds of war, each of which is to be conducted differently the one from the other, viz. the offensive: the defensive; that between equal powers; the auxiliary, which is carried on out of our own territories to succour a prince or ally, or to assist a weaker whom a more powerful prince has attacked; and a civil war.

Offensive war must be long meditated on in private before it be openly undertaken; when the success will depend upon two essential points: that the plan be justly formed, and the enterprise conducted with order. It should be well and maturely considered and digested, and with the greatest secrecy, lest, (however able the prince or his council may be,) some of the precautions necessary to be taken, be discovered. These precautions are infinite both at home and abroad.

Abroad, they consist in alliances and security not to be disturbed in the meditated expedition, foreign levies, and the buying up of warlike ammunition, as well to increase your own stores as to prevent the enemy from getting them.

The precautions at home, consist in providing for the security of our distant frontiers, levying new troops, or augmenting the old ones, with as little noise as possible; furnishing your magazines with ammunition; constructing carriages for artillery and provisions; buying up horses, which should be done as much as possible among your neighbours; both to prevent their furnishing the enemy, and to preserve your own for the cavalry, and the particular equipages of the officers.

Defensive war may be divided into three kinds. It is either a war sustained by a prince, who is suddenly attacked by another superior to him in troops and in means; or a prince makes the sort of war by choice on one side of his frontiers, while he carries on offensive war elsewhere; or it is a war become defensive by the loss of a battle.

A defensive war which a prince attacked by a superior enemy sustains, depends entirely on the capacity of his general. His particular application should be, to chuse advantageous camps to stop the enemy, without however, being obliged to fight him; to multiply small advantages; to harass and perplex the enemy in his foraging parties, and to oblige them to go out with great escorts; to attack the convoys; to render the passages of rivers or defiles as difficult to them as possible; to force them to keep together; if they want to attack a town, to throw in succours before it is invested. In the beginning his chief aim should be, to secure the enemy’s respect by his vigilance and activity, and by forcing him to be circumspect in his marches and manner of encampment, to gain time himself, and make the enemy lose it.

An able general, carefully pursuing these maxims, will give courage to his soldiers, and to the inhabitants of the country; he affords time to his prince to take proper precautions to resist the enemy who attacks him; and thus changes the nature of this disagreeable and vexations kind of warfare.

The management of a defensive war requires more military judgment than that of an offensive one.

A war between equal powers, is that in which the neighbouring princes take no part, so long as the belligerent parties obtain no great advantage, the one over the other. This sort of war never should last long if you want to reap any advantages from it. As to its rules, they are entirely comfortable to those already given; but we may look on it as a certain maxim in this sort of war, that
that the general who is the most active and penetrating, will ever in the end prevail over him, who possesses these qualities in a lesser degree; because, by his activity and penetration, he will multiply small advantages, till at last they procure him a decisive superiority. The success which has attended the rapidity of the movements of the French armies, is a strong illustration of this maxim.

A general who is continually attentive to procure himself small advantages, ever obtains his end, which is to ruin the enemy's army; in which case he changes the nature of the war, and makes it offensive; which should ever be the chief object of his prince.

Auxiliary War, is that in which a prince succours his neighbours, either in consequence of alliances or engagements entered into with them; or sometimes to prevent their falling under the power of an ambitious prince.

If it be in virtue of treaties, he observes them religiously, in furnishing the number of troops prescribed, and even offering to augment his quota, if required; or in making a diversion by attacking the common enemy, or his allies.

If it be to prevent a neighbouring prince from being crushed by a power, who after this conquest may become dangerous to yourself, there are several measures to be taken for your own particular interest. One of the chief is, to exact from those you succour, the possession of some place in security, lest they make their peace without your knowledge, or to your prejudice.

The general, therefore, who is chosen for the command of this auxiliary corps, should have wisdom, penetration, and foresight; wisdom, to preserve a proper discipline in his corps, that the allied prince may have no cause to complain of him; foresight and penetration, to prevent his troops suffering for want of subsistence, or being exposed to the perils of war, but in proportion to their numbers with those of the allied prince; and, finally, that nothing shall pass without his knowledge, which may be prejudicial to his master.

Civil or intestine War, is that between subjects of the same realm, or between parties in the same state. In this sense, we say, the civil wars of the Romans destroyed the republic; the civil wars of Grenada ruined the power of the Moors in Spain; the civil wars in England began 1641, and ended in the king’s death.

Religious War, is war maintained in a state on account of religion, one of the parties refusing to tolerate the other.

Holy War, is that species of warfare which was anciently maintained by leagues and crusades, for the recovery of the Holy Land.

Civil and religious Wars are ever unhappy for the states who sustain them. These sorts of war, which the animosity of the different parties, and fanaticism, always carry beyond the bounds of humanity, and the duties of society, have in general, no other rules but those of the offensive and defensive. It has however, always been observed, that civil wars form great men and good soldiers, because the nobility, citizens, and labourers, being equally obliged to fight for their property and preservation, every man has an equal opportunity of learning the art of war. This species of war may likewise be called revolutionary, with the additional circumstance, that in the latter sense it is of a more extensive nature.

War of opinion. See Opinion.

War of Finance, (Guerre de finance, Fr.) This term seems to be peculiarly applicable to the late period of hostilities, between Great Britain and the French government. Shut out, as we were, from the Continent, and destitute of all the means of military cooperation, our disposable forces were reduced to the necessity, either of hoarding about our own possessions at home, or of looking into the enemy's ports, without being sufficiently strong to attack them. At present the case is altered. How far the change will be beneficial to Great Britain, time and events must prove.

Council of War, is an assembly of great officers called by a general, or commander, to deliberate with him on enterprises and attempts to be made. On some occasions, council of war is also understood of an assembly of officers, sitting in judgment on delinquent soldiers, deserters, coward officers, &c.

War. This word is frequently prefixed
fixed or attached to things or persons, in order to distinguish their particular state or functions, viz.

War Establishment. See Establishment.

War Minister. See Minister.

Secretary at War. An efficient character at the head of the war-office, with whom all pecuniary matters belonging to the army rest. See Office.

Warasdins, a kind of Selavonian soldiers, clothed like the Turks, with a sugar-loaf bonnet instead of a hat. Their arms are a fuzee and pistols; the butt end of their fuzees serves for a spade, when they have occasion to throw up earth.

War-Cry, was formerly customary in the armies of most nations, when they were just upon the point of engaging. Sometimes it consisted of tumultuous shouts, or horrid yells, uttered with an intent to strike terror into their adversaries; such as are still practised by the Indians in America. See Warhooop.

To Ward. To guard; to watch; to defend; to parry any attack.

Ward. Watch; the act of guarding. A garrison or party stationed for defence of any place; a position of defence, or guard made by a weapon in fencing. That part of a lock, which, corresponding to the proper key, hinders any other from opening it. A district of a town; division of a building, &c. It is also used to denote one under the care and subject to the control of a guardian.

Warden. A keeper: a head officer.

Warden, or Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. A magistrate that has the jurisdiction of those havens in the east part of England, commonly called the cinque ports, or five havens, where he is invested with all that jurisdiction which the admiral of England has in places of exempt. According to Cowel, from whom this explanation is taken, the reason why one magistrate should be assigned to these havens seems to be, because, in respect to their situation, they formerly required a more vigilant care than other havens, being in greater danger of invasion from our enemies. On this account, the lord chief warden of the cinque should, in our humble opi-

nion, be an officer of some experience, well skilled in the art of defence, and equal to the superintendence of so important a range of coast, upon which France has cast a jealous eye from time immemorial, and where Caesar made a successful landing. It is, however, little more than a sinecure station, and a snug retreat for ex-ministers.

By act the 26th of the king, it has been enacted, that the warden of the cinque ports, two ancient towns, and their members, and in his absence his lieutenant or lieutenants, may put in execution within the said ports, towns, and members, all the powers and authorities given and granted by this act, in like manner as lieutenants of counties, and their deputy lieutenants, may do, and shall keep up and continue the usual number of soldiers in the said ports, towns and members, unless he or they find cause to lessen the same. The militia of the ports is, according to this act, to remain separate from the militia of the counties, and may be called out, pursuant to an act passed in the 13th and 14th years of King Charles the Second, notwithstanding the pay advanced may not have been reimbursed.

Warden of the Stannaries. By act the 26th of his present Majesty, it is directed, that the warden of the stannaries, and such as he shall commissions and authorize under him, shall have and use the like powers with the lords lieutenants of counties, and array, assess, arm, muster, and exercise the turners in the counties of Devon and Cornwall, within the said counties, or either of them, according to the ancient privileges and customs of the said stannaries.

Warder. A guard: a truncheon by which an officer at arms forbade fight.

Warfare. Military service, state of war.

To Warfare. To lead a military life.

Warhable, Military; fit for Warlike, War.
tience. In the last celebration of the
anniversary of the de-struc-tion of the
Bastille, which took place at Paris on
the 14th of July 1789, the French cha-
acterized these eleven virtues by the
following emblems:—a pelican, a lion,
a horse, a stag, a wolf, an elephant, a
dog, a yoked ox, an owl, a cock, and
a camel.

WARNED. Admonished of some
duty to be performed at a given time or
place. Thus officers and soldiers are
warned for guard, &c.

WARRANT. A writ of authority
inferior to a commission; thus quarter-
masters are warrant officers. Likewise
a document with the sign manual at-
tached to it, to authorize the assem-
bling a general court-martial in Great
Britain and Ireland, &c. the receipt of
public monies at the treasury, &c. Also
a writ to arrest and take persons into
custody.

To WARRILAY. To make war upon any
state or body of men. An obsolete word.

WARREN. A kind of park for
rabbits.

WARREN, at Woolwich, so called
from the spot having formerly been
stocked with rabbits. It now com-
prehends the head-quarters for the royal
artillery, the royal foundry, the royal
laboratory, and royal military academy;
also famous for proofs and experiments
of artillery, and great apparatus of
war. It is now called the Royal ar-
senal, in compliment to an observation
made by his present Majesty.

WARRIOR. A soldier; one who
fights in war.

WAR-WHOOP. A signal of attack
among the Indians. See WHOOP.

WARWOLF. In ancient military
history, an engine for throwing stones
and other great masses.

WAR-WORN. Worn out in the
service.

WASELAAT, Ind. Collections made.

WASEL Baky, Ind. Collections
made, and balances struck.

WASHER. A flat circular ring put
on the axle-tree, between the linch-pin
and small end of the nave, to prevent
the nave rubbing against the linch-pin
and wearing it, as likewise to diminish
the friction of the nave.

WASSYOUTNama, Ind. A will
or last testament.

To WATCH. To keep guard; to
be attentive and vigilant; to observe
the conduct of any one.

WATCH. A duty performed on
board of ship. It likewise means the
person who performs that duty.

Sergeant of the Watch. A non-com-
missioned officer belonging to the ma-
rines or other troops on board, who does
duty for a stated period. At sea, the
term watch denotes a measure or space
of four hours, because half the ship's
company watch and do duty in their
turns, so long at a time: and they are
called the starboard watch and larboard
watch.

The following instructions have been
published respecting the watch duty
which is to be done by troops embarked
in transports, &c.

At eight o'clock in the evening, every
man is to be in his birth, except the
men on watch; the officer of the watch
to go round with a lanthorn, to see that
the above has been complied with.

The whole to be divided into three
watches, both subaltern officers and
men; the watch gives all the sentries,
&c. &c.

A captain of the day to be appointed,
to whom the subaltern of the watch
will make his reports; and the captain
to the commanding officer; if there be
a superior officer on board.

The whole watch to be always on
deck, except when rain obliges them to
go down for shelter; and, in fine wea-
ther, every man should be upon deck
the whole day. Regulations and Orders,
p. 178.

WATCHMAN. A sentinel, one
set to keep guard.

WATCH-TOWER. A tower on
which a sentinel is posted to keep guard
against an enemy.

WATER-DECK. A painted piece
of canvas, which is made sufficiently
large to cover the saddle and bridle,
girths, &c. of a dragoon's horse. When
the tents are not large enough to admit
of these articles, in addition to the
fire-arms and bags of necessaries, the
water-decks serve to secure them from
rain, and are fastened with pegs to the
ground. The name of the regiment is
generally painted on the outside; and
when the dragon is mounted for ser-
vice or a march, it is strapped over his
portmanteau.

WATER-Rocket. A kind of fire
work made to burn in the water.

WATERING-Call. A trumpet
sounding, on which the cavalry assemble
to water their horses.

WATERING-Cap. A cap, made
of leather or cloth, which dragoons
wear when they water their horses or do
stable duty.

WATERING-Jacket. A waistcoat
with sleeves, which dragoons wear on
the above occasions.

WATREGANS, Fr. This word is
pronounced outregans, there being no
W in the French alphabet. It is a Ple-
mish term which is generally used in
France, and signifies a ditch full of
water, that has been made for the pur-
pose of separating lands and inheri-
tances. These ditches are sometimes
large enough to receive small boats
or barges, and run through a whole
village.

WATTLE. A hurdle made by en-
twining twigs together.

WAY. A military road among the
Romans and Saxons.

Way of the rounde, in fortification,
is a space left for the passage of the
rounds, between the rampart and the
wall of a fortified town. This is not
much in use at present. See Berme.

To WAYLAY. To beset by am-
bush.

WAYMODE, Ind. A prince; a
chieftain.

WEAPON. An instrument of of-
fence.

WEAPONED. Armed; furnished
with arms of offence.

WEAPONLESS. Unarmed; having
no weapon.

WEAIl. A sluice-gate, or dam to
shut up the water.

WEDGE. See Coins, Mechanic
Powers, &c.

WEDGE. In a work translated from
the French, and which is entitled,
Observations on the Military Art, we
find the following description of this
instrument. It is composed of five sur-
faces, two of which are triangular, two
long squared, and the fifth arbitrary:
The two oblong surfaces, by their incli-
nation to each other, form the point
that insinuates itself into the wood, &c.

that is to be split, as well as the side
or triangular surfaces, if the triangle,
as it is driven, lengthens the slit or
opening. They are the square surfaces
that first insinuate themselves into the
body to be cleft; and what are called
triangular surfaces, are only what fill
the space that separates the two qua-
drangular sides. After this reflects
it appears, that the column has, at
least, as just a claim as the triangle, in
the term or word wedge. We may say,
with confidence, it has a much
better; for a triangle of men ranged
according to the same propriety, as
the triangle of the mechanic wedge,
would be of very little force; and a
mechanic wedge, of which the incised
angle was as great as that of a triangle
of men, would be too large to mass
those bodies we might want to close
or split.

The double phalang amphistoma, of
which Epaminondas formed the wedge,
contained 3000 men, who were ranged
in Bouchoird's opinion, one hundred in
front, and 30 deep. This opinion, ac-
cording to some is erroneous. Among
the different evolutions of the ancients,
the wedge was frequently resorted to,
and was in some degree connected with
the lozenge, which is a figure in geomet-
try composed of four sides and four an-
gles: of the four angles, two are always
obtuse, and two acute. The angles, that
are unlike, are always opposed one to
the other, and always in the same number
of degrees. According to Elicen, there
are many ways of raising squadrons in
a lozenge: In the first, they have ranks
and files; in the second, neither; in the
third, they have files, but no ranks;
lastly, in the fourth, they have ranks
alone without files. With regard to
the wedge, it was a formation which
the ancients adopted both in cavalry and
infantry evolutions, and was variously
used, viz:

The WEDGE of Cauculty. This figure
was formed on the same principles and
movements as the lozenge, as far as the
greatest rank of the latter, which served
as a base to the triangular wedge. It
was therefore as the half of a lozenge,
cut and divided at its obtuse angles.

The triangular WEDGE of Infantry.
Some people pretend, that there were
two sorts of triangular wedges in an
among
among the ancients. The first was full, and formed after the same manner as the lozenge, and the wedge of the cavalry. The second was open at the base, and ranged differently from that of the first.

Triangular Wedge with a full center. The Greek soldier occupied, at all times, a square space greater or less in proportion to the requisite order, either at a review, advancing towards the enemy, or standing in a position to receive him. This wedge was formed according to the arithmetical progression, 1, 3, 5, 7, &c.

The open wedge. This species of wedge was formed two different ways, with the Greeks and Romans. Bouchaud du Bussy, who takes them, one from Elen, whom he translates, and the other from Vegetius, gives us a third, which appears to be of his own invention, and is very much superior to the other two. According to Elen, Epaminondas, the Theban general, employed the open wedge at the battle of Leuctre, and overthrew the Lacedemonians, whose army was much superior to the one he commanded. To form this wedge, the two divisions of a double phalanx amphistome, are to unite together at the head, being separate or open at the tail or rear; which gives them a near resemblance of the Greek letter Δ. Bouchaud du Bussy, formed the wedge in the following manner:

The same body of troops being in array, may likewise, says he, form the wedge in marching forward, and this manoeuvre requires no preliminary movement. The three divisions being marked, as well as the three files of the center which compose the head of the wedge, the following words of command are given: Marked divisions, prepare to form the wedge in marching: March. At the first notice, the files and ranks close suddenly; at the second, the three files of the center, which will be the two first left files of the division on the right, and the first right file in the division on the left, march straight forward; at their second pace, the first file, that is contiguous to them on the right, and that which is equally contiguous on the left, move in their turn, so as to have their chiefs or leaders on a line, and in a rank, as it were, with the second soldiers of the three files of the center; at the second pace of the files that have made the second motion, the files which touch them march immediately likewise, and the same manoeuvre is to continue successively; each head of a file taking notice not to move, until the moment he finds himself on a line with the second man of the file contiguous, &c.

This method is beyond dispute the most simple, short, and secure that can be devised. The men occupy necessary and proper spaces, and if the enemy's resistance should stop their head, the rest of the files, continuing their movements, would all arrive on the same front to engage together, that is, they would be in their primitive order of the phalanx. This author, to whose observations we refer from page 170 to page 203, thus concludes: We shall only remark, that all terms, metaphorically applied, sooner or later produce doubt and uncertainty. Neither a column nor a triangle of men should have ever been denominated a wedge; for a line of troops is not formed to be split like a piece of timber; it may be opened, broken through, or divided into as many parts as possible.

WEIGHTS in military matters, are those in general use, except in artillery, where hundreds are made use of; each of 112 lb. quarters, each of 28 lb. and pounds, each 16 ounces.
The 100 lb. of England, Scotland, and Ireland, are equal to

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119
112 8 — Spain;
96 5 — Liege;
112 1⁄2 — Russia;
107 1⁄2 — Sweden;
89 1⁄2 — Denmark.

WEIGHT, (poids, Fr.) Impression, pressure, burden, overwhelming power. The great advantage which heavy cavalry has over the light horse, and particularly over infantry troops, consists wholly in its pressure and overwhelming power. The British are superior to all others, because in addition to the weight of substance or carcase, their horses unite spirit and intrepidity, to a natural eagerness of pushing forward; and what the light dragoons want in weight, they generally make up in velocity; so that the British cavalry may be looked upon as the best in the world for a charge. The same may be said of the infantry. The English, Scotch, and Irish are naturally robust, broad-set, and strong-limbed; they are likewise bold; and although the Germans may be equally able-bodied in appearance, neither they, nor even the Swiss, possess that elastic impulse and activity by which British troops, when well officered and ably commanded, make use of the bayonet with irresistible effect.

WELL. In the military art, a depth which the miner sinks under ground, with branches or galleries running out from it; either to prepare a mine, or to discover and disappoint the enemy's mine. — See Shaft.

To WET. In a sense of good fellowship and hilarity, and of course in a military one, to take a cheerful glass, or, speaking popularly, to moisten one's clay.

To Wet a Commission. It has always been customary in the British army, (the life and foot guards excepted) for every officer, when he obtains a commission, gets promoted, or exchanged, to afford some mark and acknowledgment to the corps he joins. Among the regulars, a pecuniary consideration is made: for the benefit of the mess-plate, (where a service of plate is allowed) according to the rank of the individual; where it is not, that acknowledgment is given in wine. To the best of our recollection, it is a rule in a well conducted regiment of Light Dra-
justices of the peace, within forty-eight hours after such muster taken, that such notice was given to six justices of the peace; which justices so attending are empowered to sign the said muster-rolls, and to take cognizance of such muster, and to examine the truth thereof before they sign.

**WHEEL**, in artillery. A circular body which turns round on its axis. The strength of these wheels is always, or should be, proportional to the weight they carry: the diameters of the wheels of heavy gun-carriages are 85 inches, and those for light held-pieces 52 only.

To Wheel, (Faire conversion, Fr.) In a military sense, to move forward or backward in a circular manner, round some given point. See Pivot. It is observed, s. 8, p. 19, of the Cavalry Regulations, that wheeling is one of the most essential and important operations of the squadron, necessary in many changes of position, and in the formation of column and of the line.

**Wheel of the squadron.** When the entire squadron is to wheel, a caution is given to that purpose, and to which hand. At the word March, the front rank of the squadron remains dressed to the center, the leader fixes his eye and makes his circle on the standing flank man; the standard follows him exactly, and the squadron wheels with the same uniform front, at such a pace as is requisite to keep every where dressed with the standard. The rear rank and the serrefiles look to the wheeling flank, and incline at the same time that they wheel, so as always to cover their front leaders.

The standard must take care never to oblige the wheeling man to exceed a moderate gallop, otherwise the rear rank, which has still more ground to go over, cannot keep up; the squadron will wheel loose and in disorder, and be longer in dressing than if it had come about at a slower pace, but close and connected.

The flanks must always conform to the center, in case the leader does not take his ground exactly as he ought. At any rate, the standard is the guide for the pace, and the point from which the distance of files is to be preserved.

The leader must take care to time his words, halt! dress! the instant before the wheel is completed, otherwise an over wheel or reining back, will be the consequence. The whole halt and dress by the center.

The squadron breaks into column of any of the divisions in which it is told off, by each of those divisions wheeling up the quarter circle. If the body is in motion (as in column) the wheels of the divisions all begin at the word wheel! If halted, they are begun at the word march!

In all division wheelings, the whole look to the wheeling hand. In all wheelings, the rear rank must rein back at the standing flank, and incline towards the wheeling hand, in order to cover.

At the words halt! dress! given when the wheel is completed, the whole turn eyes and dress to the standing flank, and remain so till a new direction is given, which will be,

- Eyes Right to the pivot flank,
- or
- Eyes Left when necessary.

Wheelings of the squadron, or its parts from the halt, are made on the flanks, except those of ranks by threes, which are made on the middle man of each.

**Wheel of divisions into squadron.** When the squadron is to be formed by the wheeling up of its divisions, there must not be any intervals, and the rear ranks must rein back, and incline so as not to interrupt the front ranks coming up together.

In division wheelings, the whole keep closed lightly towards the hand they wheel to, and must avoid pressing the pivot man off his ground. The outward man looks to his rank, he of course regulates the pace at which the wheel is made; he must not press in on his rank, nor turn his horse’s head towards the standing flank; all the horses’ heads must be kept rather outwards (for to attempt to bend them inwards, would certainly occasion a crowding on the standing flank) and the croupes lightly closed inwards with the leg. The pivot man of the wheel turns his horse on his fore feet, keeps his ground, and comes gradually round with his rank.

**Wheels of divisions made on a halted, or on a moveable pivot.** Wheels of divisions of the squadron or line, are made

6 K
Or a Halted, or on a Moveable pivot.

When on a halted pivot, they are made from line into column, or from column into line; and also generally by the column of manœuvre or march, when moving on a considerable front, and when the wheel by which its direction is to be changed, approaches to, or exceeds the quarter circle. When on a moveable pivot, they are generally used and ordered when the front of the column is small, and its path winding and changeable.

Whenever the wheel, made on a halted pivot, is less than the quarter circle, the pause after the wheel will be considerable; should the wheel be greater than the quarter circle, it must be accelerated, otherwise more than one division will be arrived, and arrested at the wheeling point.

Wheel on a moveable pivot. When wheels or changes of direction of bodies in column, are made on a moveable pivot, both flanks are kept in motion; the pivot one always describing part of a circle, and the reverse flank, and intermediate men of the division, by a compound of inclining and wheeling, conforming to the pivot movement.

Wheel made to the pivot hand, and moveable. When the change is made to the pivot hand, (the whole being in motion) the leader of the head division, when at the distance of twenty or thirty yards from the point of intersection of the old and new direction, will give the word, right or left shoulder forward, which is a caution for each man to give a small turn of his horse towards the pivot hand, and the leader himself carefully preserving the rate of march, without the least alteration of pace, will in his own person begin to circle before the line, from the old, so as to enter the new direction twenty or thirty yards from the point of intersection, which he in this case leaves at some small distance within his pivot hand. When this is effected (the rest of his division having, during the transition, and on the principle of gradual dressing, conformed to the direction he is giving them) he will give the word Forward! for the division to pursue the right line. The leader of the second, and of every other division, when he arrives on the ground on which the first began to wheel, will in the same manner follow his exact tract, always preserving his proper distance from him.

Wheel made to the reverse flank.

When the change is made to the reverse hand, the pivot leader having arrived as before, at the spot where he gives his word right (or left) should forward! for each man to give a small turn of his horse head from the pivot hand, will begin in his own person to circle behind the line from the old, so as to enter the new direction twenty or thirty yards from the point of intersection, which, in this case, he leaves at some small distance without his pivot hand. The rest of his division, by giving way, having gradually conformed to his movement, will give proper instant order Forward! and resume a straight line.

During the change to either hand, the whole continue looking to the pivot flank, which never alters the rate of the then march; but the reverse flank is in the one case obliged to slacken, and in the other to quicken its movement.

In this manner, without the constraint of formal wheels, a column, when not confined on its flanks, may be conducted in all kinds of winding and changeable directions; for if the changes be made gradual, and circling, and that the pivot leaders pursue their proper path at the same uniform equal pace, the true distances of divisions will be preserved, which is the great regulating object on this occasion, and to which every other consideration must give way.

The wheelings of cavalry being more difficult than those of infantry, we have on that account given these copious extracts from the regulations printed by authority; referring, at the same time to what has been laid down respecting the wheelings of corps on foot in pages 38, 39, &c. of the Infantry Regulations.

The French do not make use of any word that immediately corresponds with Wheel, as a term of command. They say briefly, by platoons, &c. To the right or left into line, march. Péloton, à droite ou à gauche en bataille, marche. The term of wheeling in general is expressed by Conversion, or Demi-quart de conversion, half-quarter wheel.

WHEELINGS. Are different actions made by horse and foot, either
to the right or left, or the right and left about, &c. forward or backward.

General rules for Wheeling. The circle is divided into four equal parts: hence, wheeling to the right or left, is only a quarter of the circle; wheeling to the right or left about, is one half of the circle.

When you wheel to the left, you are to close to the left, and look to the right as above directed. This rule will serve for all wheeling by ranks; as when a battalion is marching by subdivisions with their ranks open, then each rank wheels distinctly by itself, when it comes to the ground on which the ranks before it wheeled, but not before.

In wheeling, the men are to take particular care, neither to open nor close their ranks, and to carry their arms well.

When you wheel to the right, you are to close to the right so near as to touch your right hand man, but without pressing him; and to look to the left, in order to bring the rank about even.

In wheeling, the motion of each man is quicker or slower, according to the distance he is from the right or the left: thus, when you wheel to the right, each man moves quicker than his right-hand man; and, wheeling to the left, each man moves quicker than his left-hand man; the circle that every man wheels being larger, according to the distance he is from the hand he is to; as may be seen by describing several circles within one another, at two feet distance from each, which is nearly the space every man is supposed to take up.

Over-wheeling. The act of moving beyond a given point or pivot, so as to be obliged to rein or fall back. When this happens the leaders of squadrons or divisions are generally in fault.

Wheel-carriages. In artillery, &c. The whole doctrine thereof, as it stands on a mathematical theory, may be reduced to the following particulars, viz.

1. Wheel-carriages meet with less resistance than any other kind of carriage.

2. The larger the wheels, the easier is the draught of the carriage.

3. A carriage, upon four wheels of equal size, is drawn with less force than with two of those wheels, and two of a lesser size.

4. If the load be all on the axle of the larger wheels, it will be drawn with less force than if laid on the axis of the lesser wheels; contrary to the common notion of loading carriages before.

5. Carriages go with much less force on friction wheels, than in the common way.

WHEELBARROW. A small carriage of burden, pushed forward by the hands on one wheel; a certain number are always attached to the artillery.

WHINYARD. A sword, so called by Butler in his Hudibras. A sort of back-sword or scimitar.

WHIPCORD. A tight-spun cord, with which the cat-o-nine tails is made.

WHOLE. All, total, containing all.

Take care the whole. A cautionary word which was formerly used in the British service, and is sometimes, but improperly, given now. The term Attention is adopted in its room.

WHOOP. A shout; a loud noise which soldiers make in charging, &c. It is a natural though a barbarous habit, and has been preserved in civilized armies from a prevailing custom among savages, particularly the wild Indians of America.

WICKET, (guichet, Fr.) A small door in the gate of a fortified place, through which people go in and out, without opening the great gate.

WIDERZOUROUK. A compound word from the German, which signifies back again. The French pronounce it Vouiderzourouk. It means a movement which is made to the rear, in order to bring a squadron to the right about, in the same manner that a battalion is faced about. Marshal Guise remarks, that the French adopted this movement from the Germans, in the year 1670. He is of opinion, that previous to this epoch, squadrons were faced to the rear by means of a double caracol, describing a half-circle, the extent of whose front was equal to half of its diameter; on which account, the general order of battle in those days had considerable intervals.

WIG. A Saxon termination of the names of men, signifying war.

WIGWAM. A hut used in America.

WILBE, Ind. Guardian; protector.

WILDFIRE. A composition of fire.
work, so called from its ready ignition and rapid combustion.

WINCH, (Manivelle, Fr.) The handle or lever by which a jack, windlass, &c. is turned.

WINDAGE of a gun, mortar, or howitzer. The difference between the diameter of the bore, and the diameter of the shot or shell. In England the diameter of the shot is supposed to be divided into 20 equal parts, and the diameter of the bore into 21 of those parts. The French divide the shot in 26, and the bore into 27. The Prussians divide the shot into 24, and the bore into 25. The Dutch nearly the same as the English. The general windage of shells in England is ¼ of an inch, let them be large or small, which is contrary to all reason. It is evident, that the less windage a shot or shell has, the farther and truer it will go; and having less room to bounce from side to side, the gun will not be spoiled so soon.

It is true that some artillery officers say, that the windage of a gun should be equal to the thickness of the ladle; because, when it has been loaded for a while, the shot will not come out, without being loosened thereby, in order to unload it; and when this cannot be done, it must be fired away, and so lost: but in our humble opinion, the most advantageous windage should be in dividing the shot into 24 equal parts, and the bore into 23, on account of the convenient scale it affords, not only to construct guns thereby, but also their carriages. Hence, agreeable to this plan, the windage of a 9-pounder will be 100 of an inch, consequently a sufficient thickness for a ladle; and those of a higher calibre become still thicker in proportion: but suppose this thickness is not enough, the loss of a shot is a mere trifle, in respect to the advantage got thereby.

WIND-GUN. See AIR-GUN.

WINDLASS, (vindas, Fr.) is a roller of wood, square at each end, through which are either cross holes for handspikes, or staves across to turn it round: by this means it draws a cord, one end of which is fastened to some weight which it raises up. They are used in gins, and about Dutch mortars, to help to elevate them. The French say, vin-

dos ou cabestan horizontal, the latter being a sea term.

WINDSAILS, (manches à vent, Fr.) large pieces of canvas, which are set in ships at sea for the purposes of ventilation, &c. It is very judiciously observed, in page 101 of the Regulations and Orders, that during voyages in hot climates, the most beneficial effects are derived from the use of windsails. The master of the transport should be desired to have them made immediately as troops are embarked, if not already provided, and they should be constantly hung up. These sails throw a stream of cold air between decks. It is an unusual practice among the men, at least among the inexperienced soldiers to tie up the bottom of them, by which this salutary purpose is defeated. The sergeant of the watch must be responsible, that this irregularity is never committed.

To WINDWARD, (au vent, Fr.) Towards the wind. As St. Domingo is to the windward of Jamaica.

WINGS of an army, when drawn in battle, are the right and left hand divisions; when a battalion is drawn up, the divisions on the right and left are called the wings. The word wing is sometimes used to denote the large sides of barracks, crown-works, tenailleis, and other out-works, &c.

WINTER-QUARTERS. See QUARTERS.

WITHerbAND, a piece of vine laid under a saddle, about three inches above the withers of the horse, to keep tight the two pieces of wood.

WITNESSES, in fortification. See TERRAINS.

WITNESSES, in a military judicial sense, persons summoned by the judge-advocate, or any of his deputies, to attend at a general court-martial, there to speak to facts which they know of their own knowledge, and to which they can bind themselves, from having been present at the transaction, &c. See Tyler on Courts-Martial.

According to the articles of war, (see Art. xii.) witnesses attending court-martial are to be privileged from arrests, and not attending are liable to be attached.

WOIKEFELD, Ind. an ambassador.

WOLF-HOLES, in the defence of places, arc round holes, generally about
Cautionary Words, (commandements d'avertissement, Fr.) certain leading instructions which are given to designate any particular manoeuvre. The cautionary words precede the words of command, and are issued by the chiefs of corps.

It was our intention to have inserted under this head, all the different words of command that are directed to be given in infantry manoeuvres, and to have added the mots de commandement, as practised in the French service. But as most of those used in the British service have been published by authority, we judged it superfluous to encumber a work of this description with so much additional matter.

With respect to the French words of command, of which we have the arrangement by us, we have declined inserting them in the present volume; first, because they would have considerably increased its size, and, in the next place, because we had already given occasional explanations of them, with their corresponding terms in English.

WORKMEN, are persons that attend the ammunition, boatmen, carpenters, smiths, millers, bakers, wagoners, miners, pioneers, &c.

When soldiers are employed upon fatigue, or working parties, the drums and fifes, &c. should invariably play to time and measure. According to Marshal Saxe, they should be relieved at the expiration of two hours and a half; by which means the individuals are less harassed, and all the troops share alike. With regard to accompanying them in their labour with music, the policy of it is warranted by antiquity. The Lacedemonians, with a detachment of only 3000 men, under the command of Lyssander, destroyed the famous Pyræus of Athens in less than six hours. During the whole of the operation, the flutes were playing to cullin and encourage the troops. This custom existed in France to a late period among the galley-slaves at Marseilles, who, whilst they were employed in removing enormous loads of rubbish, &c., were constantly accompanied by musical instruments and drums. Marshal Saxe’s Réveries, pages 157 and 158.

WORKS. This term is generally understood to comprehend the fortifications

WOOL-Packs, bags of wool. They are frequently ranged in form of a breast-work, because they resist cannon-shot. See Siege.

WORD (mot, Fr.), a single part of speech, consisting of one or more syllables, for the purpose of expressing ideas. In a military sense, it signifies signal, token, order; as watch-word, &c.

The Word, Watch Word, that serves for a token and mark of distinction, given out in the orders of the day, in times of peace, but in war every evening in the field, by the general who commands, and in garrison by the governor, or other officer commanding in chief, to prevent surprise, and hinder an enemy, or any treacherous person, to pass backwards and forwards. This watch-word is generally called the parole, and to which is added the countersign. The first is known to all officers and non-commissioned officers, the latter only to the sentinels. The officers that go the rounds, or patrol, exchange the word with the officers on duty; nor must the sentinels let any one pass who has not got the countersign.

Words of command, (mots de commandement, Fr.) certain terms, which have been adopted for the exercise and movement of military bodies, according to the nature of each particular service. Words of command are classed under two principal heads, and consist of those which are given by the chief or commander of a brigade, battalion, or division, and of those which are uttered by the subordinate leaders of troops or companies, &c.

2 or 3 feet in diameter at the top, 1 at bottom, and 21/2 deep, dug in the front, of any work. Sometimes a sharp-pointed stake or two are fixed at the bottom, and covered with very thin planks, and green sods; consequently the enemy, on advancing, fall in, and are put into confusion.

WOODEN-Bottoms, in laboratory works, are cylindrical pieces of wood, of different lengths and diameters, agreeable to the size of the gun. They are hollowed at one end to receive the shot, and the flannel cartridge is fastened to the other end; the whole forming one cartridge, which is put into the piece at one motion.
tions about the body of a place; as by outworks are meant those without the first inclosure. The word is also used to signify the approaches of the besiegers, and the several lines, trenches, &c. made round a place, an army, or the like, for its security.

*Crown Works,* (ouvrages à crêtes, Fr.) See Crown-work.

*Horned Works,* (ouvrages à cornets, Fr.) See Horned-work.

To WORM a Gun, (décharger un canon avec la tire-bouree, Fr.) to take out the charge of a fire-arm by means of a worm.

*Worm of a Gun,* (tire-bouree, Fr.) an instrument vermiculated or turned round, that serves to extract any thing into which it insinuates itself by means of a spiral direction. It is much the same as wad-hook, with this difference, that the one is more proper for small arms, and the other for ordnance.

Divine WORSHIP. In section I. of the Rules and Articles of War, it is ordained that all officers and soldiers, not having just impediment, shall diligently frequent divine service and sermon, in the places appointed for the assembling of the regiment, troop, or company to which they belong.

Commissioned officers who wilfully absent themselves, or, being present, behave indecently or irreverently are liable to be brought before a court-martial, there to be publicly and severely reprimanded.

Non-commissioned officers and soldiers are liable to a forfeit of twelve pence, to be deducted out of the next pay of each individual so offending, for his first offence; for the second, he not only forfeits twelve pence, but he is laid in irons for twelve hours. The money so forfeited, is applied to the use of the sick soldiers of the troop or company to which the offender belongs.

To WORST. To defeat, to overthrow.

WORSTED. Defeated; put to the rout.

WORTHY. A man particularly distinguished, more especially for his valour, as the worthies of antiquity.

To WOUND, (*Blesser, Fr.*) To make or cause a wound.

A WOUND, (*Blesser, plaie, Fr.*) The breaking the continuity of the parts of the body.

A simple WOUND, (*Blesser critique, Fr.*) that which only opens the flesh, and does not affect the bones or sinews.

A complicated WOUND, (*Blesser compliquée, Fr.*) A wound which is accompanied with bad symptoms, as fluxes of blood, &c.

A dangerous WOUND, (*Blesser une plaie dangereuse, Fr.*) A wound by which the nobler parts are affected; as when an artery is pricked, &c.

A mortal WOUND, (*Blesser une plaie mortelle, Fr.*) A wound which must unavoidably end in dissolution.

The WOUNDED, (*Les Blessés, Fr.*) Under this term are comprehended all the individuals belonging to an army, who may have been maimed or otherwise hurt in battle, &c. It forms part of the general return which is made on service, viz. killed, wounded, missing and taken prisoners. The care of the sick and wounded is one of the primary duties of a commander in chief.

To this list might be added DESERTED to the enemy; but desertion of this kind, though not unusual in other services, is so uncommon among British sailors and soldiers, that we think the mention of the term superfluous.

To WREAK, (*Assouvir, décharger sa colère, Fr.*) To discharge, to vent; as to wreak one's vengeance, or make on defenceless prisoners. A species of vengeance which no state policy can justify, (not even on the Machiavellian system).

WREATH of victory. The garland or cinquefoil of triumph. See TRIUMPH.

WRESTLER. One who contends in wrestling.

WRESTLING. A contest for ascendancy of bodily strength; as when two wrestlers attempt to throw each other down. It was in great vogue among the Olympic games; and is yet to be met with in many parts of England.

WRIT. A legal instrument. A slender piece of parchment which is issued out of the Sheriff's office, and
which the stoutest officer must yield: the only mode of avoiding this hovering enemy to personal freedom, is to avoid unnecessary expense, and to keep out of debt. The latter mode, is, however, scarcely feasible under the circumscribed limits of British pay, and the extended price of every necessary in life. By the articles of war, no soldier can be sued unless for a real debt of 20l. of course no writ can be served upon him. Art. war, page 126, Art. lxxii.

WRIT OF REBELLION. A writ when a man (after proclamation issued out of the Court of Chancery or Exchequer, and made by the Sheriffs, to present himself to the court under pain of his allegiance, by a certain day) does not appear.

WRONG. An injury; a designed or known detriment; not right, not justice.

WRONGS. We have already observed under the article Rights, that although they are not specifically mentioned or described in the mutiny bill, they nevertheless exist in military life. Every officer and soldier possesses rights, and when either is wronged he is authorised to seek for redress. In section III. art. 1st, it is expressly laid down, That if any officer shall think himself to be wronged by his colonel or the commanding officer, of the regiment, and shall upon due application made to him, be refused to be redressed, he may complain to the general commanding in chief of his Majesty’s forces, in order to obtain justice; who is by the same article required to examine into such complaint; and either by himself or by the secretary at war, to make his report to the king thereupon, in order to receive his further directions. It will be observed, that although officers may be peremptorily dismissed the service by the king, without trial or investigation, yet, according to this article, and in the true spirit of justice, they have a right to have any particular instance of grievance laid before his majesty through the commander in chief or secretary at war.

If any inferior officer, non-commissioned officer, or soldier shall think himself wronged by his captain, or other officer commanding the troop or company to which he belongs, he is to complain thereof to the commanding officer of the regiment, who is required to summon a regimental court-martial for the doing justice to the complainant; from which regimental court-martial either party may, if he thinks himself still aggrieved (provided always that the wrong complained of be of a pecuniary nature), appeal to a general court-martial: and if upon a second hearing, the appeal shall appear to be vexatious and groundless, the person so appealing shall be liable to be punished at the discretion of the said general court-martial.

To the credit of British jurisprudence, and to the honour of the present administration, let it, however, he said, that no military power which is exercised with barbarity, is eventually paramount to the equality of justice that pervades our criminal code. No distance of time or place within the empire; no rank, no connection can rescue the offender from insulted justice. The late trial of Governor Wall, for the inhuman murder of Serjeant Armstrong, upwards of twenty years ago, is corroborative of this assertion. He was convicted before a special jury on the 20th of January 1802; and notwithstanding the exertions of considerable friends to save him, was finally executed on the 28th day of the same month.

The fate of Governor Wall will bear testimony to Europe and to the world, that English justice still retains its original purity, and is still equally and impartially administered to the peer and to the peasant; making no distinction between the private and his commander, but punishing, protecting, and avenging all alike. It will be a consolation to such of the British seamen who may be dejected and cast down by the melancholy end of so many of their messmates, to find that no simian charge, no groundless imputation, no pretended mutiny, either imagined at the moment, or afterwards trumped up, as occasion may require, will be admitted as a justification of severities, causelessly and inhumanly inflicted. When they see the death of a simple serjeant, without family, or friends, in a country whence the report of his wrongs might possibly have never reached home, now made the subject
subject of a state prosecution, conducted by the two principal criminal officers of the crown, with the assistance of a number of other highly respectable counsel, and the attendance of every witness in the smallest degree necessary, collected with all the anxiety that could have been bestowed on the case at the commencement of the prosecution in 1784, by the widow and orphan children of the deceased (if such he had, and they were rich enough to afford the expense); will they not rejoice to see, that punishments are not for them alone, and that the proudest of those who rule them cannot tyrannize over them with impunity? It is natural to the ignorance of low situation, to suppose that suffering is confined to its own class. In some countries this is unfortunately too much the fact. In ours, great crimes are rare in the higher ranks of society; but in the few instances that have occurred, the equality of justice has been enforced in a manner which gives every peasant in the land reason to thank heaven that he was born in such a country.

WUHAI, Ind. Sandals.
WULANDA, or WULANDER, Ind.
The Dutch are so called in India.

XEBEC; (Chibec, Fr.) A sort of armed vessel, with lateen sails, which is used in the Mediterranean.

XENOPHON. A Greek general, who has rendered his name immortal by a well-conducted retreat; and is equally celebrated for good military maxims, which are still extant in his Cyropedia.

XERIF. A prince, or chief ruler in Barbary is so called.

* XERIES. A king of Persia, son of Darius, and grandson of Cyrus. This monarch has been rendered notorious in history, by the extravagance of his preparations to invade Greece, and his ultimate failure; which latter may be attributed to the undisciplined state of his army, and to the presumption of his General Mardonius. He entered the Hellespont with so numerous a fleet, that it covered its surface between the two lands. The number he embarked exceeded 1,000,000 men, who were entirely defeated by 40,000 well disciplined troops from Greece.

XYSTARCHA. In antiquity, the master and director of the Xystus.

In the Greek Gymnasium, the Xystarcha was the second officer, and the Gymnasiarcha the first; the former was his lieutenant, and presided over the two Xysti, as well as over every species of exercise that was practised therein. 

XYSTER. An instrument used by surgeons to scrape and shave bones with.

XYSTUS. Among the ancients, a long portico, open or covered at the top, where the athletes practised wrestling and running: the gladiators who exercised therein, were called Xystici.

Among the Romans, the Xystus was only an alley, or double row of trees, meeting like an arbour, and forming a shade to walk under; so that, in this sense, it might be considered as an open walking place, where the Romans entertained one another.

YACHT,
YACHT, (Yacht, Fr.) This word is taken from the Dutch. It is a small ship with one deck, carrying four, eight, or twelve guns, and thirty or forty men. Yachts, in general, are from 50 to 160 tons; contrived and adorned both within side and without, for carrying state passengers. They answer the purposes of business as well as pleasure, being remarkable good sailors.

YAD DASHT, Ind. A memorandum.

YARD-MATTERING. A disease in horses.

YAWL, (Chaloupe, Fr.) A small vessel belonging to a ship.

YAWS, (Yian, Epius, Fr.) The venereal disorder, in a most virulent state; with which the negroes, and sometimes the Creoles and Whites, are infected in the colonies, and on the Continent of America.

YEOHOODY, Ind. A Jew.

YEOMAN. The French use this word when they allude to the yeomen of the guards. In a general acceptance of the word, among us, yeoman signifies a free-born Englishman, who may lay out of his own free land in yearly revenue to the amount of forty shillings. In other words, a freeholder who has land of his own.

YEOMAN of the guard. One belonging to a sort of foot guards, who attend at the palace. The yeomen were uniformly required to be six feet high. They are in number 100 on constant duty, and 70 off duty. They are armed with pertuisans. Their attendance is confined to the sovereign's person, both at home and abroad. They are clad after the manner of King Henry VIII.

The yeomen of the guards were at first only 50 men of the next rank, under gentry; but they were afterwards augmented to 100, of which eight are called ushers, who have each 10l. per annum more than the other yeomen. This corps was first instituted by King Henry VII. anno 1486. The officers of this veteran corps, although they are never included in the general promotions of the army, or derive any benefit from the occasional rise in brevet-rank, have nevertheless the advantage of good pay, and the right of wearing regimentals, without the danger of being called into actual service. The officers are, 1 captain, 1000l. per annum; 1 lieutenant 500l. per annum, and 1 ensign 300l. per annum. Of the same description is the honourable band of gentlemen pensioners, which was established in 1509, viz. 1 captain, 1000l. per annum; 1 lieutenant 500l. per annum. 1 standard bearer 30l. per annum, and 1 clerk of the chequer 120l. per annum.

YEOMANRY. The collective body of yeomen. In this class may be considered gentlemen of small landed property, independent farmers, &c. When the unparalleled successes of the French had almost laid Europe at the feet of their armies, England alone seemed destined to stop the torrent. Thanks to her insular situation! to the superiority of her fleets, and not a little to the valour and perseverance of her gallant army in Egypt, she has hitherto been able to preserve the high character of the nation at large. Let us hope, in spite of temporary reverses, that no change of things upon the Continent of Europe, will ever reduce her to the necessity of being awed, at home, by the menacing aspect of her ancient rival.

During the last war, it was deemed expedient to have recourse to the native energies of the land. Not only the militia, but the volunteer corps were increased; and in order to secure a ready co-operation with all the dispositions.
able parts of the regular army, &c. it was strongly recommended to the yeomanry to equip and arm, and to make themselves acquainted with the ordinary routine of military evolutions. The plan was accordingly adopted, and in addition to the supplementary militia, and volunteer corps that were formed in the different parishes, bodies of mounted yeomen were regularly assembled, and were headed by the principal noblemen and gentlemen belonging to the several counties. Conspicuous, however, as the martial spirit of the country appeared at that time, it has been far surpassed in the exertions, to which Englishmen have been excited, by the innate valour of their constitutions, at the present eventful period. Roused into action by the repeated menace of invasion, and knowing no other surrender of this last asylum of liberty, but that which is connected and interwoven with their lives, the inhabitants of these Islands have felt increased animation in proportion to the repetition of the old Roman sentence—(Delenda est Carthago,) which has so long been heard from Ushant to the Baltic, and which will again be renewed should the French succeed in Germany. Among other noble instances of disinterested patriotism, his Grace the Duke of Northumberland has raised among his tenantry, a corps of 1511 men, consisting of a body of horse artillery, commanded by a captain, six troops of cavalry, and 17 companies of infantry; the whole clothed, appointed, paid and maintained by himself; for government has only found arms and accoutrements. The captain of artillery and the staff receive a permanent pay.—Such a command, and such a saving to the state, are proud circumstances to boast of, and worthy of a British nobleman. Advocates, as we most unquestionably profess ourselves to be, for a regular army, in the most extended sense of the expression, we cannot withhold our tribute of applause to this effusion of native patriotism. It has proved the determined spirit of the land to resist invasion, and by so doing, it has shewn, that while the soldiers of general service are fighting their country's battles in all quarters of the globe, their native homes are not left defenceless or unguarded.

YEOMANRY CAVALRY. (La Cavalerie des tenanciers volontaires.) Certain corps of mounted gentlemen and farmers, who during the last war, subjected themselves to specific military regulations.

YESAWUL, Ind. A state messenger; a servant of parade, who carries a gold or silver staff; an aide-de-camp.

YETESAB, Ind. An officer who regulates the weights.

YIELD. See SURRENDER.

YOG, Ind. Junction, or union.

YOLATOLE. A sort of drink in the East Indies.

YOLL. A general name for tobacco in the West Indies.

YORK MILITARY ASYLUM. A laudable institution which has been adopted in this country, through the particular recommendation of His Royal Highness the Duke of York, for the education of orphans, and of the children of meritorious soldiers. The following rules are directed to be observed:

In the selection of the children for admission, preference in general shall be given,

1st. To orphans.
2nd. To those, whose fathers have been killed; or have died on foreign service.
3d. To those who have lost their mothers, and whose fathers are absent on duty abroad.
4th. To those whose fathers are ordered on foreign service; or, whose parents have other children to maintain.

The merit of the father, as to regimental character, shall be always considered as a principal recommendation.

None shall be admitted, except the children, born in wedlock, of warrant and non-commissioned officers and soldiers of our regular army.

Every child, previously to admission, must be ascertained to be entirely free from mental, and bodily, infirmity.

The parents, or friends, applying for the admission of children, shall be required to sign their consent to such children remaining in the asylum as long as our commissioners may think fit; and to their being disposed of, when
of proper age, at the discretion of the commissioners, as apprentices, or servants; or, if boys, to their being placed with their own free consent, in our regular army, as private soldiers.

The number of children to be admitted shall not exceed one thousand, viz. seven hundred boys, and three hundred girls; exclusive of such as, upon any pressure of special circumstances, may be received (for a time, and until they are of proper age to be removed, or until vacancies may occur in the asylum) into the infant establishment in the Isle of Wight; hereby declared to be a branch of this Our Royal Institution, and to be under the general control of the commissioners thereof.

Officers, Assistants, and Servants on the Establishment.—The following are the officers, assistants, and servants, on the establishment of the Royal Military Asylum; subject to such further change, augmentation, or diminution, in the description, number, or salaries, of the under officers, assistants, and servants, as to the commissioners may hereafter appear necessary: viz.

A Commandant; to whom, in consideration of the great trust reposed in him, and the continued attention required of him to promote the general welfare of the institution, an allowance is made of twenty shillings per diem, with an allowance of coals and candles for three rooms.

A Treasurer; to whom is granted a salary of 300l. per annum, including all allowances for clerks, stationary, or otherwise.

A Chaplain, and Superintendent of Morals and Education; to whom is granted a salary of 280l. per annum, with an allowance of coals and candles for two rooms and an half.

An Adjutant and Secretary; to whom is granted the pay of seven shillings per diem, with an allowance of coals and candles for two rooms.

A Quarter Master and Steward; to whom is granted a salary of 180l. per annum, with an allowance of coals and candles for two rooms.

A Surgeon; who, holding the rank of surgeon to the forces, has the pay of fifteen shillings per diem, with an allowance of coals and candles for two rooms and an half—he has also the assistance of an hospital mate, (not resident in the house) at five shillings per diem, without any other allowance.

A Serjeant-Major of Instruction; whose pay is two shillings and sixpence per diem, with clothing: board, the same as the children; and an allowance of coals and candles for one room.

Serjeant-Assistants; in the proportion of one to every fifty boys; they have the pay of one shilling and sixpence per day, each; clothing and board; and an allowance of coals and candles, according to the season of the year, in a proportion to be fixed by the commissioners.

To the Quarter-Master Serjeant, and to such of the serjeant-assistants as shall be employed to instruct the boys in the different trades, is allowed sixpence per diem to each; in addition to the pay of one shilling and sixpence above specified.

A Drummer; is allowed drummer’s pay and clothing, and to mess with the children.

A Matron; who has 100l. per annum as salary, and in lieu of all former allowances; except in regard to coals and candles, the allowance for which shall be continued to her for two rooms.

An Assistant Matron and School-Mistress; who has a salary of 50l. per annum; (in lieu of her former salary, and allowance for provisions) allowance of coals and candles for one room.

One Reading Mistress, and one Knitting Mistress and Sempstress; each having a salary of 25l. per annum, one shilling per diem in lieu of board, and an allowance of coals and candles for one room.

Nurses, in the proportion of one to each ward; are allowed 10l. per annum each, and their board; with clothing, and coals and candles, the same as the serjeant-assistants.

Nurses for the Infirmary, in proportion to the number of the sick; are allowed 12l. per annum each, and their board; with clothing, and coals and candles, as the other nurses.

A Cook; who is allowed 20l. per annum and her board; with clothing, and an allowance of coals and candles, the same as the Nurses. She is allowed two assistants; each having 10l. per annum, with board, clothing, and coals and candles, the same as the cook.

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A Laundress; who is allowed 20l. per annum and her board; with clothing, and an allowance of coals and candles, the same as the cooks. She is to have such aid from the female children, and such hired assistance, as circumstances may from time to time require.

A Serjeant-Porter; who has the pay of one shilling and sixpence per day; with clothing, and one shilling per diem in lieu of board; together with an allowance of coals and candles, in a proportion to be fixed by the commissioners.

The officers, assistants, and servants, belonging to the Royal Military Asylum, are not, directly or indirectly, to demand or receive any perquisite; or any emolument whatever, beyond the pay and allowances annexed to their respective employments, as specified in this warrant, or otherwise expressly authorized by the commissioners: and any such officers, assistants, or servants, offending herein, shall be deemed to have forfeited their situations.

YOUNGER regiment, is that which was last raised. See Seniority.

YOUNGER officer, is he whose commission is of the latest date. Regiments and officers are posted and commanded, according to the dates of their commissions. See Seniority.

YOUNGESTERS. A familiar term to signify the junior officers of a troop or company. The word youngest is likewise used in the navy. The French say Mouss in naval phraseology.

YPREAU, Fr. A Dutch elm.

YZQUI-AOTOTE. A sort of drink in the West Indies.

Z.

Z.AAT, Ind. Division of people into tribes or sects.

ZACCHIO. In architecture, the lower part of the pedestal of a column.

ZAGAIE, Fr. A weapon made in the form of a long dart, which the Moors use in battle, and which they cast with extreme dexterity.

ZAIMS. Principal leaders or chiefs; after whom a mounted militia, which they support and pay, is called among the Turks.

One class of the Zaims receives its appointments direct from the Porte, and the other from the Beglerbeys. Whenever an order is issued by the latter for that purpose, the whole body of the Zaims must assemble, with their followers, at a given spot of rendezvous.

They are supported by certain revenues called Timars; and the money which they receive from thence amounts to twenty thousand aspers—five aspers are equal to one penny English—and they never can receive less. The Zaims are all of equal rank among themselves. They may be considered as the chief noblemen in Turkey; deriving considerable importance from the many privileges and immunities which are attached to their several Ziamets. The lowest annual revenue of a Ziamet is twenty thousand aspers, and the highest amounts to ninety-nine thousand nine hundred and nine-nine. Whenever it exceeds the latter sum, the surplus is added to the income of the Sagra-Bey or Bacha, whose rank in Turkey is nearly similar to that of a count in France.

The Zaims seldom serve at sea. They prefer paying a certain sum of money to be exempted from that duty. But whenever they take the field, it is incumbent upon each to bring as many horsemen, accoutred and fit for service, as there are sums of five thousand aspers in the annual receipt of his Ziamet; so that every Zaim who receives thirty thousand aspers, must produce six able-bodied and well mounted followers; and every one having sixty thousand aspers per year must bring twelve.

Although
Although the Turks take especial care to see, that the Timariots and the Zaimis bring their complement of men, whom they call Jcbelus or horsemen; nevertheless they do not reckon them as any part of the effective forces of the Ottoman empire. On the contrary, they call a Zaim, accompanied by his quota of horsemen, a Selebrar or one sabre.

When a Zaim takes the field, he must provide himself with camp equipage, &c. and independent of the necessary number of tents for himself and his men, he must also have one to cook in, and another to serve for stabiling.

The Zaimis, as well as the Timariots, are under the immediate orders of their Ali-Beglier or colonel. These officers are subordinate to the Bacha, who has the rank of colonel-general; but in all considerable enterprises, such as sieges, battles, &c. the Bacha is obliged to communicate with the seraskier or general in chief of the army; which is usually the Grand Vizir.

ZAMORIN. A title of sovereign princes, in Malabar in the East Indies.
ZAMPOGNI. A common flute, or whistle.

ZAYM, Ind. A feudal chief, or military tenant.

ZÉAL, (Zéle, Fr.) More than common ardour for the good of the service. An earnest passion for any thing; especially for religion, and for the welfare of one’s country. It has been wisely said by one of our best didactic poets, that excess of zeal may be detrimental to community:

For virtue self may too much zeal be had;
The worst of madmen is a saint run mad.

Pope.

Military Zeal. Under this term may be comprehended, not only a natural disposition to arms, but also an unwearied application to the science of war, and a prompt and undaunted exercise of all the duties which the situation of an individual may prescribe. There is not, perhaps, any profession in which the thorough devotion of a man’s time and talents is so imperiously called for, as in the theoretical and practical branches of military knowledge. It is scarcely possible to have too much zeal; most especially when the heated imagi-

nation of a soldier has been gradually tempered by experience, calm by the hand of time, and is constantly under the influence of well digested plans.

ZEBANBUNDY, Ind. A deposition.
ZECHIN, (Seguin, Fr.) So called ZACHIN, from La Zechia, a place in the city of Venice, where the mint is settled; a gold coin worth about nine shillings sterling.

Turkish Zechin. A gold coin, in value about nine shillings.

ZEINAUB, Ind. A term of distinction used to persons of rank or eminence.

ZEMEEN, Ind. Ground.
ZEMEENDAR, Ind. A person who holds a tract of land immediately from the government, somewhat similar to a lord of the manor.

ZEMEENDARY, Ind. The lands of a zemeendar.

ZENITHI, (Zenith, Fr.) The point of vertex in the heavens directly over one’s head. If we conceive a line drawn through the observer and the center of the earth, which must necessarily be perpendicular to the horizon, it will reach to a point among the fixed stars called the zenith.

The zenith is directly opposite to the Nadir; one above our heads, and the other below our feet.

ZERAKET, Ind. Agriculture.
ZERB, Ind. A blow; a stroke.
ZERB ShALLAAK, Ind. A blow given with a stick.

ZERO, Fr. A word used to express a cypher, or nought (0).
ZIG-ZAG, Fr. A term used in mechanics. The working beams or balances which give motion to the several pumps that throw the water up from the river to the hill at Marly, near Paris, form a sort of zig-zag.

ZIG-ZAGS, in fortifications, are trenches or paths with several windings, so cut, that the besieged are prevented from enfilading the besieger in his approaches.

ZIL. A military musical instrument which is used in the Turkish armies. It consists of two brass basons, that are struck together, so as to be in concord with other instruments.

ZIMRA, Ind. A certificate.
ZINDIGEE, Ind. Grain, cattle, lands, plantations.

ZIYAMUT,
ZOD

ZIVAMUT, Ind. A seat bestowed for military services.

ZOCLE, (in architecture.) A square member, lower than its breadth, serving to support a pillar, or any other part of a building, instead of a pedestal, base, or plinth.

Zocas continued, a continued pedestal, on which a structure is raised, but which has no base or cornice.

ZODIACK, (Zodiaque, Fr.) One of the greatest imaginary circles of the heavens, which passes obliquely between the two poles of the world; it is cut into two equal parts, by the equator;

one of which comprehends the northern signs towards the Arctic Pole, and the other the six southern signs towards the Antarctic Pole; it is furnished with twelve constellations, represented upon globes, by the figure of twelve living creatures.

ZOPISSA, (Zopissa, Fr.) The best sort of pitch, or pitch which is scraped off from the sides of ships, and then tempered with wax and salt.

ZULLUM, Ind. Violence; oppression.

ZUROOREAT, Ind. Necessity.

FINIS.